Language Teaching Methods (ENG513)

VIRTUAL UNIVERSITY OF PAKISTAN

Table of Contents

Lesson No.	Lesson Title	Topics	Pg. No.
Lesson No. 1	**LANGUAGE: SOME THEORETICAL CONCEPTS**		
	Defining Language Learning	001	9
	Some Theoretical Concepts: Language as a System	002	9
	Some Theoretical Concepts: Language as Discourse	003	12
	Some Theoretical Concepts: Language as an Ideology	004	15
	Language Teaching and Theoretical Concepts about Language	005	19
Lesson No. 2	**A BRIEF HISTORY OF LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS**		
	Significance of a 'Language Teaching Methods' Course	006	20
	Language Teaching Methods in Ancient Times	007	20
	Language Teaching Methods in Europe in Early Modern Times	008	21
	Language Teaching Methods in the 19th and Early to Mid-20th Century	009	21
	Language Teaching Methods from the Mid- to Late-20th Century	010	24
Lesson No. 3	**DIFFERENCE IN THEORY, APPROACH, METHOD AND TECHNIQUE**		
	What is a Theory?	011	28
	What is an Approach?	012	33
	What is a Method/ Methodology?	013	34
	Types of Methods	014	37
	Some other terms: System, Procedure, Technique	015	39
Lesson No. 4	**CONTEXT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LTM IN PAKISTAN- PART 1**		
	Status of English in Pakistan	016	41
	English Language and Education in Pakistan	017	41
	Teaching and Learning of English in Pakistan	018	42
	English Language Curriculum in Pakistan	019	43
	LTM and Constraints in Pakistan	020	44
Lesson No. 5	**CONTEXT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LTM IN PAKISTAN- PART 2**		
	Teaching Speaking and Listening in Pakistan	021	46
	Teaching Reading in Pakistan	022	46
	Teaching Writing in Pakistan	023	47
	ELT, Use of Methods and SL Proficiency in Pakistan	024	47
	ELT and Teacher Training in Pakistan	025	48
Lesson No. 6	**GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD**		
	What is Grammar Translation Method?	026	49
	Strengths of Grammar Translation Method	027	49
	Weaknesses of Grammar Translation Method	028	50
	Grammar Translation Method Opportunities and Threats	029	50

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	Grammar Translation Method in Pakistan	030	52
Lesson No. 7	**THE DIRECT METHOD**		
	What is the Direct Method?	031	53
	Strengths and Weaknesses of the direct Method	032	54
	The Direct Method: Opportunities and Threats	033	54
	Direct method in Pakistani Context	034	55
	Direct method: Sample Activities	035	55
Lesson No. 8	**AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD**		
	Background of Audio-lingual Method	036	57
	Theoretical Principles behind Audio-lingual Method	037	59
	Contents in Audio-lingual Method	038	64
	Objectives, Syllabus and Classroom Procedures in Audio-lingual Method	039	65
	Decline of Audio-lingual Method: A Critical Assessment	040	74
Lesson No. 9	**TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE METHOD**		
	Introduction to Alternative/Humanistic Approaches and Methods / and Background of Total Physical Response Method	041	77
	Approach & Theory behind Total Physical Response Method	042	77
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Total Physical Response Method	043	79
	Role of Learners, Teachers and Material in Total Physical Response Method	044	80
	Procedure in Total Physical Response Method	045	80
Lesson No. 10	**THE SILENT WAY**		
	Background of the Silent Way Method	046	83
	Approach & Theory of Language and Learning behind The Silent Way Method	047	84
	Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in The Silent Way Method	048	85
	Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in the Silent Way Method	049	87
	Procedure in the Silent Way Method	050	88
Lesson No. 11	**COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING**		
	Background of Community Language Learning Method	051	90
	Approach and Theory of Language and Learning in Community Language Learning Method	052	91
	Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in Community Language Learning Method	053	92
	Roles of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in Community Language Learning Method	054	94
	Procedure in Community Language Learning Method	055	95

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Lesson No. 12	**SUGGESTOPEDIA**		
	Background of Suggestopedia	056	98
	Approach and Theory of Language and Learning in Suggestopedia	057	98
	Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in Suggestopedia	058	100
	Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Suggestopedia	059	101
	Procedure in Suggestopedia	060	102
Lesson No. 13	**WHOLE LANGUAGE METHOD**		
	Background of Whole Language Method	061	105
	Approach and Theory of Language and of Learning in Whole Language Method	062	106
	Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in Whole Language Method	063	106
	Role of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in Whole Language Method	064	107
	Procedure in Whole Language Method	065	108
Lesson No. 14	**MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE METHOD**		
	Background of Multiple Intelligences Method	066	110
	Approach and Theory of Language and Language Learning behind Multiple Intelligences Method	067	111
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Multiple Intelligences Method	068	112
	Roles of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in Multiple Intelligences Method	069	114
	Procedure in Multiple Intelligences Method	070	115
Lesson No. 15	**NEUROLINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING**		
	Background, Approach and Theory behind Neurolinguistic Programming	071	118
	Objectives and Presuppositions that Guide the Application of Neurolinguistic Programming	072	119
	Role of Teacher and Learner in Neurolinguistic Programming	073	120
	Procedure of Neurolinguistic Programming	074	121
	Critical Comments on Neurolinguistic Programming	075	123
Lesson No. 16	**THE LEXICAL APPROACH**		
	Background of the Lexical Approach	076	124
	Approach and Theory of Language and Learning of the Lexical Approach	077	124
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in the Lexical Approach	078	126
	Role of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in the Lexical Approach	079	127
	Procedure of the Lexical Approach	080	129

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Lesson No. 17	**COMPETENCY BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING**		
	Background of Competency-Based Language Teaching	081	131
	Approach and Theory of Language and Learning of Competency-Based Language Teaching	082	132
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Competency-Based Language Teaching	083	133
	Factors involved in the Implementation of Competency-Based Language Teaching Programs	084	135
	Procedure and Criticism on Competency-Based Language Teaching	085	136
Lesson No. 18	**COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACH**		
	Introduction to Current Communicative Approaches / and Background of Communicative Language Teaching Approach	086	139
	Theory behind Communicative Language Teaching Approach	087	141
	Contents in Communicative Language Teaching Approach	088	145
	Classroom Procedures in Communicative Language Teaching Approach	089	146
	A Critical Assessment & Conclusion of Communicative Language Teaching Approach	090	149
Lesson No. 19	**THE NATURAL APPROACH**		
	Background of the Natural Approach	091	152
	Approach and Theory of Language behind the Natural Approach	092	153
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning & Teaching Activities in the Natural Approach	093	157
	Role of Leaners, Teachers and Materials in the Natural Approach	094	159
	Procedure in the Natural Approach	095	161
Lesson No. 20	**COOPERATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING**		
	Background of Cooperative Language Learning	096	164
	Approach and Theory of Language and Learning behind Cooperative Language Learning	097	165
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Cooperative Language Learning	098	167
	Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Cooperative Language Learning	099	170
	Procedure in Cooperative Language Learning	100	172
Lesson No. 21	**CONTENT BASED INSTRUCTION**		
	Background of Content-Based Instruction	101	173
	Role of Content in other Curriculum Designs and Content-Based Instruction	102	174
	Approach and Theory of Language & Learning behind Content-Based Instruction	103	175
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Content-Based Instruction	104	179

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	Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Content-Based Instruction	105	181
Lesson No. 22	**TASK BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING**		
	Background of Task-Based Language Teaching	106	184
	Theory of language and Learning behind Task-Based Language Teaching	107	186
	Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Task-Based Language Teaching	108	189
	Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Task-Based Language Teaching	109	194
	Procedure in Task-Based Language Teaching	110	196
Lesson No. 23	**THE POST METHODS ERA AND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS**		
	Background of the Post-methods Era/ Eclectic Approach	111	200
	Why criticism on Approaches and Methods Developed over Time?	112	202
	Beyond Approaches and Methods	113	204
	The Scope of Post Method	114	206
	Post Method Era and Looking Forward	115	207
Lesson No. 24	**LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS FOR BILINGUALS**		
	The Multilingual Mind: Second Language Acquisition	116	210
	A general Language Processing Model	117	210
	Towards a Dynamic Model of the Multilingual Mental Lexicon	118	212
	A Dynamic Model of the Multilingual Mental Lexicon and its Implications for SLA	119	216
	Language Teaching Methods in Pakistani Bilingual Context	120	217
Lesson No. 25	**LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)**		
	Language Teaching Methods in English for Specific Purposes: Introduction	121	221
	Importance of Needs Analysis in ESP	122	221
	English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)	123	222
	Elements of ESP Materials	124	223
	Vocationally Oriented Language Learning (VOLL) Tasks	125	226
Lesson No. 26	**TEACHING VOCABULARY IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM**		
	Introduction to Vocabulary Teaching	126	230
	Vocabulary Size and Coverage: Key Facts and Figures	127	230
	How Much Vocabulary Do EFL Learners Know?	128	231
	Choosing Words to Be Learned in an English Language-Learning Programme	129	232
	Vocabulary Learning Activities: Learning Outside the Classroom	130	235
Lesson No. 27	**TEACHING PRONUNCIATION IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM**		
	Introduction: Pronunciation and the Changing Landscape of	131	239

	English		
	Teaching Listening and the Case of Pakistan	132	239
	New Approaches and Goals in Teaching Pronunciation	133	239
	The Basis for Pronunciation: Phonetics and Phonology	134	242
	Role of the Internet in Teaching and Learning Pronunciation	135	242
Lesson No. 28	**TEACHING SPEAKING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM**		
	Introduction: Teaching Speaking in a Language Classroom	136	245
	Second Language: Speaking Activities	137	245
	Processes in Speech Production and designing activities	138	249
	Classroom Speaking Tasks	139	251
	Enhancing Second Language Speaking Performance and LTM	140	252
Lesson No. 29	**TEACHING LISTENING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM**		
	The Importance of Developing L2 Listening Skills	141	254
	The Features of Spoken Language and classroom activities	142	256
	Factors Affecting L2 Comprehension	143	257
	Format of a Well-Designed Listening Lesson	144	260
	Suggested Approaches to Listening Practice	145	263
Lesson No. 30	**TEACHING READING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM**		
	Introduction to Teaching Reading in a Language Classroom	146	266
	Views on Reading and Viewing: Classroom Activities	147	267
	Factors Affecting Reading and Viewing Success in a language classroom	148	270
	Effective Instruction in Reading and Viewing: A Language Classroom	149	270
	Teaching Reading and Viewing Inside and Outside the Classroom	150	271
Lesson No. 31	**TEACHING WRITING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM**		
	Introduction to Teaching Writing in a Language Classroom	151	274
	Writing Competence and LTM	152	275
	Writing Process and LTM in a classroom	153	277
	The Use of Technologies to Enhance the Teaching of Writing	154	278
	Pedagogical Principles of the Socio-Cognitive Approach to Academic Writing	155	281
Lesson No. 32	**INTEGRATING LANGUAGE SKILLS**		
	What does Integrating Language Skills Mean?	156	284
	A History of Skill Separation	157	284
	The Need for Integration: Why?	158	285
	Micro-strategies for Integrating Language Skills	159	287
	Exploratory Projects for Skill Integration	160	291
Lesson No. 33	**LESSON PLANNING AND LANGUAGE TEACHING**		
	What is a Lesson Plan?	161	294
	Lesson Planning in Language Teaching	162	294
	Functions and Significance of a lesson plan	163	297

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	Important Items to Include in a Lesson Plan	164	297
	Lesson Planning in Pakistan	165	300
Lesson No. 34	**DESIGNING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS**		
	Significance of Designing Instructional Materials	166	301
	Materials: Traditional Practices and Principles	167	301
	Needs and Wants of Learners of English as a Lingua Franca, and Designing Materials	168	307
	Materials: Use of Spoken Interactions of Native and Non-native Speakers	169	308
	Materials: Use of Written Texts Produced by Native and Non-native Speakers	170	311
Lesson No. 35	**DIGITAL MEDIA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING**		
	Use of Digital Media in Teaching EIL: Methods	171	312
	Digital Media and the EIL Classroom: Traditional Principles and Practices	172	312
	Global Literacy: EIL Classrooms Inside a Changing World	173	314
	Contribution of ICT to L2 Development	174	315
	Principles of Selecting and evaluating ICT Tools and Resources	175	315
Lesson No. 36	**PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY**		
	What is Learner Autonomy?	176	318
	What Learner Autonomy is not?	177	319
	Learning Strategies for Learner Autonomy	178	319
	Degrees of Learner Autonomy	179	323
	Learner Autonomy and the Case of Pakistan	180	326
Lesson No. 37	**SYLLABUS DESIGN FOR A LANGUAGE TEACHING COURSE**		
	Definition of Syllabus	181	327
	Purpose of a Syllabus in Language Teaching	182	328
	Characteristics of Syllabus and Language Teaching Classroom	183	329
	Syllabus Classifications and LTM	184	329
	Using a Syllabus in a LTM Course	185	330
Lesson No. 38	**ASSESSMENT IN LANGUAGE TEACHING**		
	Assessment in Language Teaching	186	332
	Assessment and Evaluation in Second Language	187	333
	Assessment types and Options for Language Teachers	188	335
	Importance of Assessment in English Language Teaching	189	338
	English Language Assessment in Pakistan	190	339
Lesson No. 39	**TEACHER TRAINING AND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS**		
	Introduction to Teacher Training	191	341
	Why Teacher Training for Language Teachers?	192	342
	Teacher Training: Some Important Aspects	193	343
	Teacher Training Of Language Teachers: International Practices	194	343
	Teacher Training and Language Teaching in Pakistan	195	347

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Lesson No. 40	**RESEARCH AND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS**		
	Introduction to Research in Language Teaching	196	349
	Epistemological Basis for Research in Language Teaching	197	351
	Current Research Practices in Language Teaching	198	353
	Research in Language Teaching in Pakistan	199	354
	Types of Research Instruments and their Purpose: Current Trends	200	354
Lesson No. 41	**RECAPITULATING AND EXPLORING FUTURE DIRECTIONS**		
	Recapitulating the History of LTM	201	358
	Recapitulating Some Methods: - Part 1	202	358
	Recapitulating Some Methods: - Part 2	203	359
	Recapitulating Teaching of Vocabulary, Pronunciation and Skills	204	359
	Future Directions in LTM	205	359

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Lesson-01

LANGUAGE: SOME THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

Topic-001: Defining Language

"A definition of language," observed the British cultural critic, Raymond Williams, "is always, implicitly or explicitly, a definition of human beings in the world" (1977, p. 21).

Significance of Language

Language permeates every aspect of human experience, and creates as well as reflects images of that experience. It is almost impossible to imagine human life without it. And yet, we seldom think about it. We are oblivious of its ubiquitous presence in and around us, just as the fish is (or, is it?) unmindful of the water it is submerged in. Even those who systematically study language have not fully figured out what it is.

A case in point: After brilliantly synthesizing both Western and non-Western visions of language developed through the ages, the leading French linguist and psychoanalyst, Julia Kristeva (1989, p. 329) ends her erudite book on language with the humbling phrase: "that still unknown object—language."

Topic-002: Some Theoretical Concepts: Language as a System

Although there are endless debates on what constitutes language, for the limited purpose of understanding its relevance, concepts and precepts, we may look at it from three broad conceptual vantage points: language as a system, language as discourse, and language as ideology.

Language as a System

We all know that human language is a well-organized and well-crafted instrument. That is to say, all the basic components of a language work in tandem in a coherent and systematic manner. They are certainly not a random collection of disparate units. From one perspective, a study of language is basically a study of its systems and subsystems. By treating language as a system, we are merely acknowledging that each unit of language, from a single sound to a complex word to a large text—spoken or written—has a character of its own, and each is, in some principled way, delimited by and dependent upon its co-occurring units. As we learn from any introductory textbook in linguistics, the core of language as a system consists of the phonological system that deals with the patterns of sound, the semantic system that deals with the meaning of words, and the syntactic system that deals with the rules of grammar. For instance, at the phonological level, with regard to the pattern of English, stop consonants are distinguished from one another according to their place of articulation (bilabial, alveolar, velar) and their manner of articulation (voiceless, voiced) as shown:

Bilabial Alveolar Velar
Voiceless /p/ /t/ /k/
Voiced /b/ /d/ /g/

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These minimal sounds, or phonemes as they are called, have contrastive values in the sense that replacing one with another will make a different word as in pit–bit, or ten–den, and so forth. Understanding the sound system of a language entails an understanding of which sounds can appear word-initially or word-finally, or which can follow which. It also entails an understanding of how certain sound sequences signify certain meanings. In the aforementioned example, the user of English knows that ten and den are two different words with two different meanings.

We learn from semantics that every morpheme, which is a collection of phonemes arranged in a particular way, expresses a distinct meaning, and that there are free morphemes that can occur independently (as in den, dance) or bound morphemes like plural -s, or past tense, which are attached to a free morpheme (as in dens, danced).

Different words are put together to form a sentence, again within the confines of a rule-governed grammatical system. The sentence, 'The baby is sleeping peacefully', is grammatical only because of the way the words have been strung together. A change in the sequence such as 'Sleeping is the peacefully baby' will make the sentence ungrammatical. Conversely, sentences that may have a grammatically well-formed sequence as in the well-known example, 'Colorless green ideas sleep furiously', may not make any sense at all. These examples show, in part, that "the nouns and verbs and adjectives are not just hitched end to end in one long chain, there is some overarching blueprint or plan for the sentence that puts each word in a specific slot". (Pinker, 1994, p. 94)

Language as a system enables the language user to combine phonemes to form words, words to form phrases, phrases to form sentences, and sentences to form spoken or written texts—each unit following its own rules as well as the rules for combination. Crucial to understanding language, then, is the idea of systematicity. Language as a system, however, is much more complex than the description. A true understanding of the complexity of language requires a robust method of analysis.

More than anyone else in the modern era, it is Chomsky who has persuasively demonstrated that language as a system is amenable to scientific analysis and, in doing so, he has elevated our ability to deal with language as a system to a higher level of sophistication. Chomsky (1959, 1965, and elsewhere) began by pointing out certain fundamental facts about language as a system. First and foremost, all adult native speakers of a language are able to produce and understand myriad sentences that they have never said or heard before. In other words, an infinite number of sentences can be produced using a finite number of grammatical rules. Second, with regard to the child's first language acquisition, there is what Chomsky calls "the poverty of stimulus," that is, the language input exposed to the child is both quantitatively and qualitatively poor but still the child is able to produce, in a short period of time, language output that is immensely rich. The stimulus (that is the language data) available to the child is impoverished in the sense that it only has a limited set of sentences among all possible sentences in a language, and a large number of grammatical types remain unrepresented in the data. Besides, the parents' or the caretakers' language addressed to the child may not be the best possible sample because it is full of hesitations, false starts, sentence fragments, and even grammatical deviations. But still, all children, except those who may have

neurological or biological defects, acquire the complex language rapidly, and, more importantly, without any formal instruction.

The Chomskyan thought about these and other "logical problems of language acquisition" is essentially premised upon mentalism, which states that much of human behavior is biologically determined, and language behavior is no exception. Positing the notion of "innateness," Chomsky argues that human beings, by virtue of their characteristic genetic structure, are born with an "innate ability," that is, with an "initial state" of "language faculty" in which general properties of language as a system are prewired.

Using this "prewired" system, children are able to distill and develop the complex grammatical system out of the speech of their parents and caretakers. The system that the child is born with is common to the grammars of all human languages, and hence Chomsky calls it "Universal Grammar."

The Universal Grammar is a set of abstract concepts governing the grammatical structure of all languages that are genetically encoded in the human brain. It comprises principles and parameters. The way it is considered to work is that children, using the unconscious knowledge of Universal Grammar, would know the underlying universal principles of language; for instance, languages usually have nouns, pronouns, and verbs. They would also know their parameters; for instance, in some languages, verbs can be placed at the end of the sentence, or in some languages, pronouns can be dropped when in the subject position, and so forth. Thus, based on the specific language they are exposed to, children determine, unconsciously, whether their native language (L1) allows the deletion of pronouns (as in the case of Spanish), or not (as in the case of English). Such unconscious knowledge helps children eventually to "generate" or create all and only grammatical sentences in their L1.

The abstract generative system of grammar that Chomsky has proposed (which he has frequently updated) is actually a theory of linguistic competence. He makes "a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations)" (1965, p. 4) and he is concerned only with discovering the mental reality (i.e., competence) underlying the actual behavior (i.e., performance) of a speaker–hearer. He is very clear in emphasizing that his linguistic theory is primarily concerned with an ideal speaker–listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of language in actual performance (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3). Clearly, the speaker-hearer which Chomsky is talking about is an artificially constructed idealized person; not an actual language user. In addition, as Lyons (1996, p. 30) pointed out, for Chomsky, "linguistic competence is the speaker–hearer's tacit, rather than conscious or even cognitively accessible knowledge of the language-system."

Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence is actually a theory of grammatical competence. It should, however, be remembered that his term, linguistic competence, subsumes phonological, syntactic, and semantic subsystems. That is why the unconscious possession of this abstract

linguistic competence helps native speakers of a language to discriminate well-formed sentences from ill-formed word-sequences as well as well-formed sentences that make sense from those that do not (see the previously given examples).

In the same way, native speakers of English can also identify the ambiguity in sentences like 'Visiting mother-in-law can be boring', or tell who the agent is in structurally identical pairs like:

John is easy to please.
John is eager to please.

In other words, linguistic competence entails a semantic component that indicates the intrinsic meaning of sentences. This intrinsic meaning is semantic meaning and should not be confused with pragmatic meaning, which takes into consideration actual language use, that is, the speaker–hearer's ability to use utterances that are deemed appropriate in a particular communicative situation. As Chomsky clarifies, the notion of competence does not include actual language use: "The term 'competence' entered the technical literature in an effort to avoid the slew of problems relating to 'knowledge,' but it is misleading in that it suggests 'ability'—an association I would like to sever" (Chomsky, 1980, p. 59).

By not considering the pragmatic aspect of language use in formulating his theory of linguistic competence, Chomsky is in no way dismissing its importance. For purposes of "enquiry and exposition," he considers it fit "to distinguish 'grammatical competence' from 'pragmatic competence,' restricting the first to the knowledge of form and meaning and the second to the knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use . . ." (Chomsky, 1980, p. 224).

In other words, Chomsky is interested in looking at human language as a cognitive psychological mechanism and not as a communicative tool for social interaction. Those who do treat language as a vehicle for communication, find it absolutely necessary to go beyond language as a system and consider the nature of language as discourse.

Topic-003: Some Theoretical Concepts: Language as Discourse

In the field of linguistics, the term discourse is used to refer to "an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g., words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/speaker" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 4). The focus here is a connected and contextualized unit of language use. During the 1970s, discourse analysis began to gain grounds partly as a response to the dominance of the Chomskyan view of language as a system that focused mainly on disconnected and decontextualized units of phonology, syntax, and semantics. Although there are many who have made contributions to our understanding of language as discourse; here, we briefly consider the seminal works of Halliday, Hymes, and Austin.

Rejecting the Chomskyan emphasis on grammar, Halliday (1973) defined language as meaning potential, as sets of options in meaning that are available to the speaker–hearer in social contexts.

Instead of viewing language as something exclusively internal to the learner, as Chomsky does, Halliday views it as a means of functioning in society. From a functional perspective, he sees three metafunctions or macrofunctions of language: the ideational, the interpersonal, and the textual. The ideational function represents the individual's meaning potential and relates to the expression and experience of the concepts, processes, and objects governing the physical and natural phenomena of the world around. The interpersonal function deals with the individual's personal relationships with people. The textual function refers to the linguistic realizations of the ideational and interpersonal functions enabling the individual to construct coherent texts, spoken or written.

For Halliday, language communication is the product or the result of the process of interplay between the ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions of language. Through this interplay, the meaning potential of language is realized. Learning a language then entails "learning to mean."

As the child interacts with language and language users, he or she begins to understand the meaning potential within the language, and develops a capacity to use it. It is only through meaningful interactive activities in communicative contexts that a learner broadens and deepens the capacity for language use. And, language use is always embedded in a sociocultural milieu.

That is why Halliday (1973) preferred to define meaning potential "not in terms of the mind but in terms of the culture" (p. 52). Unlike Halliday, who questions the Chomskyan notion of competence and seeks to replace it, Hymes seeks to expand it. For Chomsky, competence is a mental structure of tacit knowledge possessed by the idealized speaker–hearer, but for Hymes, it is that as well as the communicative ability to use a language in concrete situations.

We have to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical units but also as appropriate units. He or she acquires competence as when to speak, and when not, what to talk about, and with whom, when, where, and in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others. (Hymes, 1972, pp. 277–278)

And the way Hymes seeks to account for that fact is by positing the concept of communicative competence, which "is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use" (1972, p. 282).

Communicative competence consists of grammatical competence as well as sociolinguistic competence, that is, factors governing successful communication. Hymes (1972) identified these factors, and has used an acronym SPEAKING to describe them:

- **S**etting refers to the place and time in which the communicative event takes place.
- **P**articipants refer to speakers and hearers and their role/relationships.
- **E**nds refer to the stated or unstated objectives the participants wish to accomplish.
- **A**ct sequence refers to the form, content, and sequence of utterances.
- **K**ey refers to the manner and tone (serious, sarcastic, etc.) of the utterances.
- **I**nstrumentalities refer to the channel (oral or written) and the code (formal or informal).
- **N**orms refers to conventions of interaction and interpretation based on shared knowledge.

- **G**enre refers to categories of communication such as lecture, report, essay, poem, and so forth.

These flexible, overlapping factors, which vary from culture to culture, provide the bases for determining the rules of language use in a given context. For Hymes, knowing a language is knowing not only the rules of grammatical usage but also the rules of communicative use. He makes that amply clear in his oft-quoted statement: "There are rules of use without which the rules of usage are useless."

Because both Chomsky and Hymes accept and use the notion of competence, it is useful to compare it in its broadest terms. Chomsky's notion is limited to the tacit knowledge of formal linguistic properties possessed by the idealized speaker–hearer. Hymes' notion goes well beyond that to include actual knowledge and ability possessed by the language user. Furthermore, Chomsky's notion is biologically based, whereas Hymes' is more socially based. "The former is purely individual, the latter is mainly social. The former concerns form; the latter concerns function. The former characterizes a state; the latter involves processes" (Taylor, 1988, p. 156). It is rather apparent then that Hymes brings a much wider perspective to the notion of competence, one that has more relevance for treating and understanding language as a vehicle for communication.

Yet another aspect of language communication that is relevant for our discussion here is the notion of speech acts. In his classic book, How to Do Things With Words, published in 1962, Austin, a language philosopher, raised the question: What do we do with language? and answered, simply: We perform speech acts. By speech acts, he refers to the everyday activity of informing, instructing, ordering, threatening, complaining, describing, and scores of other such activities for which we use our language. In other words, language is an activity that we do in myriad situations and circumstances.

Of all the numerous phenomena of language, Austin asserts: "The total speech act in the total speech situation is the only actual phenomenon which, in the last resort, we are engaged in elucidating" (1962, p. 148, emphasis in original).

To elucidate Austin's speech act theory in simple terms: Every speech act that we perform has three components, which he calls locution, illocution, and perlocution. The first refers to a propositional statement, the second to its intended meaning, and the third to its expected response. The act of saying something is a locutionary act. It is no more than a string of words containing phonological (sounds), syntactic (grammar), and semantic (word meaning) elements put together in a systemically acceptable sequence. In performing a locutionary act, one often performs such an act as "asking or answering a question, giving some information or an assurance or a warning, announcing a verdict or an intention, pronouncing sentence, making an appointment or an appeal or a criticism, making an identification or giving a description, and the numerous like" (Austin, 1962, pp. 98–99).

The perlocutionary act is the effect or the consequence of an utterance in a given situation. To illustrate a speech act, take a simple and short utterance, Move it. Here the locutionary act is the act of saying 'move it' meaning by move, and referring it to the object in question. If we assume an appropriate context, the illocutionary act in this case is an act of ordering (or, urging or advising, or

suggesting, etc., in different contexts) somebody to move it. The perlocutionary act then is the act of actually moving an object. The most important component of a speech act is the illocutionary act. For an object to have what Austin calls 'illocutionary force', a speech act has to meet certain socially agreed upon demands or conventions. For instance, a statement like 'I now pronounce you man and wife' has its intended illocutionary force only if it is uttered in a proper context (e.g., a church) and by a proper person (e.g., a priest). The same statement uttered by a clerk in a departmental store will not render two customers a married couple! The statement gains its illocutionary force only because of the situational context in which it is uttered and not because of its linguistic properties. Or, to quote Joseph, Love, and Taylor (2001):

"The illocutionary force of an utterance is not part of the meaning the words have simply in virtue of being those words. On the other hand, the illocutionary act is performed 'by' or 'in' rather than merely 'through' using those words. The illocutionary force of an utterance is simultaneously both context-dependent and, in context, inherent in the uttering of the words themselves". (p. 103)

The key word in the above quote is context. It is also a key to language as discourse in general. In linguistics, discourse was initially defined as a unit of coherent language consisting of more than one sentence, to which a reference was added to language use in context. Combining these two perspectives, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) gave the definition quoted at the beginning of this section and repeated here for convenience:

Discourse "is an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g., words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor" (p. 4). Some discourse analysts (e.g., McCarthy & Carter, 1994) go beyond the internal relationships of form and meaning to include "the interpersonal, variational and negotiable aspects of language" (p. xii), and some others (e.g., G. Cook, 1994) include "a form of knowledge of the world" (p. 24) as well.

The added focus on context has certainly facilitated a useful connection between language structure and the immediate social context in which it is used. It has also aided, from a classroom discourse point of view, the study of the routines of turn-taking, turn sequencing, activity types, and elicitation techniques in the language classroom. However, a truly discourse-based view of language should have also considered "the higher order operations of language at the interface of cultural and ideological meanings and returning to the lower-order forms of language which are often crucial to the patterning of such meanings" (McCarthy & Carter, 1994, p. 38). And yet, most "mainstream" discourse analysts have found contentment in analyzing "the lower order forms of language" and leaving "the higher order operations of language" largely untouched. That challenging task has recently been taken up by critical discourse analysts who explore language as an ideology.

Topic-004: Some Theoretical Concepts: Language as an Ideology

Ideology is "a systematic body of ideas, organized from a particular point of view" (Kress & Hodge, 1979, p. 6). Stated as such, it sounds rather simple and straightforward. As a matter of fact, ideology is a contested concept. Its reference and relevance cut across disciplines such as

anthropology, sociology, political science, history, and cultural studies. Linguistics is a much belated and bewildered entrant, in spite of the fact that language and ideology are closely connected. Among the many interpretations of the concept of ideology, there is one common thread that unfailingly runs through all of them: its ties to power and domination.

In an authoritative book on Ideology and Modern Culture, Thompson (1990) defined ideology rather briskly as "meaning in the service of power" (p.7, emphasis in original). Therefore, "to study ideology is to study ways in which meaning serves to establish and sustain relations of domination." (p. 56, emphasis in original) The best way to investigate ideology, according to Thompson, is to investigate the ways in which meaning is constructed and conveyed by symbolic forms of various kinds, from everyday linguistic utterances to complex images and texts; it requires us to investigate the social contexts within which symbolic forms are employed and deployed; and it calls upon us to ask whether, and if so how, the meaning mobilized by symbolic forms serves, in specific contexts, to establish and sustain relations of domination (1990, p. 7).

In a very succinct manner, Thompson has made the connection between language and ideology very clear. Expanding that connection, anthropologist Kroskrity (2000) suggested that it is profitable to think of language ideologies as a cluster of concepts consisting of converging dimensions:

- First, "language ideologies represent the perception of language and discourse that is constructed in the interests of a specific social or cultural group" (p. 8). That is, notions of language and discourse are grounded in social experience and often demonstrably tied to the promotion and protection of political-economic interests.
- Second, "language ideologies are profitably conceived as multiple because of the multiplicity of meaningful social divisions (class, gender, clan, elites, generations, and so on) within sociocultural groups that have the potential to produce divergent perspectives expressed as indices of group membership" (p. 12). That is, language ideologies are grounded in social experiences that are never uniformly distributed across diverse communities.
- Third, "members may display varying degrees of awareness of local language ideologies" (p. 18). That is, depending on the role they play, people develop different degrees of consciousness about ideologically grounded discourse. Finally, "members' language ideologies mediate between social structures and forms of talk" (p. 21). That is, people's sociocultural experience and interactive patterns contribute to their construction and understanding of language ideologies. These dimensions, according to Kroskrity, must be considered seriously if we are to understand the connection between language and ideology.

These dimensions of language ideology are a clear echo of the broad-based concept of discourse that post structural thinkers such as Foucault have enunciated. Foucault's concept of discourse is significantly different from that of mainstream linguists. For him, discourse is not just the suprasentential aspect of language; rather, language itself is one aspect of discourse. In accordance with that view, he offers a three-dimensional definition of discourse "treating it sometimes as the general domain of all statements, sometimes as an individualized group of statements, and sometimes as a regulated practice that accounts for a number of statements". (Foucault, 1972, p. 80)

The first definition relates to all actual utterances or texts. The second relates to specific formations or fields, as in "the discourse of racism" or "the discourse of feminism." The third relates to sociopolitical structures that create the conditions governing particular utterances or texts. Thus, Discourse designates the entire conceptual territory on which knowledge is produced and reproduced. It includes not only what is actually thought and articulated but also determines what can be said or heard and what is silenced, what is acceptable and what is tabooed. Discourse in this sense is a whole field or domain within which language is used in particular ways. This field or domain is produced in and through social practices, institutions, and actions. In characterizing language as one, and only one of the multitudes of organisms that constitute discourse, Foucault (1970) significantly extended the notion of linguistic text. A text means what it means not because of any inherent objective linguistic features but because it is generated by discursive formations, each with its particular ideologies and particular ways of controlling power. No text is innocent and every text reflects a fragment of the world we live in. In other words, texts are political because all discursive formations are political. Analyzing text or discourse therefore means analyzing discursive formations, which are essentially political in character and ideological in content. Such a concept of language ideology is usually reflected in the ideologically grounded perceptions and practices of language use that are shaped and reshaped by dominant institutional forces, historical processes, and vested interests. For instance, the preeminent cultural critic, Said (1978), in his book, Orientalism, presented compelling textual evidence from literary, historical, sociological, and anthropological texts produced by the colonial West to represent the colonized people. He uses the term Orientalism to refer to a systematically constructed discourse by which the powerful West "was able to manage—and even produce—the Orient politically, sociologically, militarily, ideologically, scientifically, and imaginatively . . ." (Said, 1978, p. 3). It forms an interrelated web of ideas, images, and texts from the scholarly to the popular, produced by artists, writers, missionaries, travelers, politicians, militarists, and administrators, that shape and structure Western representations of colonized people and their cultures.

In yet another manifestation of the nexus between power and language, the French sociologist, Bourdieu (1991), in his book, Language and Symbolic Power, described symbolic power "as a power of constituting the given through utterances, of making people see and believe, of confirming or transforming the vision of the world and thereby, action on the world and thus the world itself . . ." (p. 170). He also showed the innumerable and subtle strategies by which language can be used as an instrument of communication as well as control, coercion as well as constraint, and condescension as well as contempt. He pointed out how variations in accent, intonation, and vocabulary reflect differential power positions in the social hierarchy. According to him, "what creates the power of words and slogans, a power capable of maintaining or subverting the social order, is the belief in the legitimacy of words and of those who utter them" (p. 170). In another work, Bourdieu (1977) invoked the notion of "legitimate discourse" and elaborated it by saying that "a language is worth what those who speak it are worth, so too, at the level of interactions between individuals, speech always owes a major part of its value to the value of the person who utters it" (p. 652).

"On a personal note, I was recently reminded of the significance of Bourdieu's statement when I read the remarks of a prominent applied linguist, Larsen-Freeman, about her inventing a new word,

grammaring. In explaining how she, as a native speaker of English, is empowered to invent new words, she says: The point is that as language teachers, we should never forget that issues of power and language are intimately connected. For example, it is unfair, but nevertheless true, that native speakers of a language are permitted to create neologisms, as I have done with grammaring. Such a coinage, however, might have been corrected if a nonnative speaker of English had been its author". (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 64)

One may take it as a gentle reminder that one, as a nonnative speaker of English does not have "permission" to coin a new word, and if one had coined one, it might have been corrected. It is unfair, but nevertheless true!

It is the unfair and true nature of language ideology that a group of linguists, who call themselves critical discourse analysts, attempt to unravel. By critically analyzing the systematic distortion of language use, they focus on the exploitation of "meaning in the service of power." More specifically, as Fairclough (1995), in his introductory book, Critical Discourse Analysis, explained, critical discourse analysts aim to systematically explore the often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of, and are ideologically shaped by, relations of power and struggles over power (p. 132). In the context of language ideology, they see power in terms of "asymmetries between participants in discourse events, and in terms of unequal capacity to control how texts are produced, distributed and consumed (and hence the shape of texts), in particular sociocultural contexts" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 1). Their working assumption is that any level of language structure and use is a relevant site for critical and ideological analysis. Their method of analysis includes description of the language text, interpretation of the relationship between the text and the discursive processes, and explanation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the social practices.

Recognizing the importance of critical discourse analysis, Pennycook (2001), in his book, Critical Applied Linguistics, has introduced a newly defined area of applied linguistic that seeks to take a critical look at the politics of knowledge, the politics of language, the politics of text, and the politics of pedagogy within a coherent conceptual framework. He has called for strengthening of critical discourse analysis by going beyond any prior sociological analysis of power and its connection to language, and by conducting linguistic analyses of texts to show how power may operate through language. His aim is to make the task of applied linguistics "to be one of exploration rather than of mere revelation" (p. 93). From an educational point of view, critical discourse analysts see language-teaching as a prime source for sensitizing learners to social inequalities that confront them, and for developing necessary capabilities for addressing those inequalities. Therefore, they advocate the creation of critical language awareness in our learners. Such a task should be fully integrated, not only with the development of language practices across the curriculum, but also with the development of the individual learner's intellectual capabilities that are required for long-term, multifaceted struggles in various sociopolitical arenas. They caution that instruction in critical language awareness "should not push learners into oppositional practices which condemn them to disadvantage and marginalization; it should equip them with the capacities and understanding which are preconditions for meaningful choice and effective citizenship in the domain of language" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 252).

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Applying the principles of critical discourse analysis to explore the nature of input and interaction in the language classroom, we have questioned the present practice of conducting classroom discourse analysis that focuses narrowly on turn-taking, turn sequencing, activity types, and elicitation techniques. Here, it is argued that a true and meaningful understanding of sociocultural aspects of classroom discourse can be achieved not by realizing the surface level features of communicative performance or conversational style but only by recognizing the complex and competing world of discourses that exist in the classroom. (Kumaravadivelu, 1999a, p. 470)

Topic-005: Language Teaching and Theoretical Concepts about Language

To understand the relationship between language teaching and theoretical concepts about language, we first need to think about the following:

- What do theories of language do?
- What purpose do they serve?

This leads to the understanding: how do theories of language relate to Language teaching?

In fact, history of language teaching and history of the study of language go side by side. The study of language addresses the teaching of language. The question arises HOW. The answer is simple: Theory helps to take a perspective; and this perspective addresses the perspective and practices of teaching. When a teacher believes in language as a certain kind of entity, it affects his or her way of thinking about language which in turn affects his or her way of thinking about how to teach a language.

Lesson-02

A BRIEF HISTORY OF LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

Topic-006: Language Teaching Methods Course and its Significance

The English language teaching tradition has been subject to tremendous change, especially throughout the twentieth century. Perhaps more than any other discipline, this tradition has been practiced, in various adaptations, in language classrooms all around the world for centuries. While the teaching of Math or Physics, that is, the methodology of teaching Math or Physics, has to a greater or lesser extent, remained the same, this is hardly the case with English or language teaching in general. There are some milestones in the development of this tradition, which we need to briefly touch upon in an attempt to reveal the importance of research in the selection and implementation of the optimal methods and techniques for language teaching and learning.

Language teaching methods refer to the set of teaching practices, approaches, and materials used by instructors to facilitate foreign language (FL) learning. Throughout history, methods have responded to the changing goals of language learning, for example, communicating with foreign trade partners, supporting missionary efforts to spread religion, reading academic scholarship and sacred texts, or, most recently, facilitating interaction on transnational and global levels. Language teaching methods therefore have prioritized different skills, for example, listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing, given the needs of learners and the values of societies. Various theoretical understandings of second language acquisition (SLA) and FL pedagogy have further informed teaching methods. In particular, new research developments, emphases, and trends in the related disciplines of linguistics, literature studies, education, and psychology have shaped thinking on the most effective ways to teach language.

Language teaching has been around for many centuries, and over the centuries, it has changed. Various influences have affected language teaching. Reasons for learning language have been different in different periods. In some eras, languages were mainly taught for the purpose of reading. In others, it was taught mainly to people who needed to use it orally. These differences influenced how language was taught in various periods. Also, theories about the nature of language and the nature of learning have changed. However, many of the current issues in language teaching have been considered off and on throughout history.

Topic-007: Language Teaching Methods in Ancient Times

The history of the consideration of foreign language teaching goes back at least to the ancient Greeks. They were interested in what they could learn about the mind and the will through language learning. The Romans were probably the first to study a foreign language formally. They studied Greek, taught by Greek tutors and slaves. Their approach was less philosophical and more practical than that of the Greeks.

In the Western world back in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries, foreign language learning was associated with the learning of Latin and Greek, both supposed to promote their speakers' intellectuality. At the time, it was of vital importance to focus on grammatical rules, syntactic structures, along with rote memorization of vocabulary and translation of literary texts. There was no provision for the oral use of the languages under study; after all, both Latin and Greek were not being taught for oral communication but for the sake of their speakers' becoming "scholarly" or creating an illusion of "erudition." Late in the nineteenth century, the Classical Method came to be known as the Grammar Translation Method, which offered very little beyond an insight into the grammatical rules attending the process of translating from the second to the native language.

Topic-008: Language Teaching Methods in Europe in Early Modern Times

In Europe, before the 16th century, much of the language teaching involved teaching Latin to priests. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, French was a lingua franca for speaking to foreigners. Members of the court spoke French, but it was also a necessary language for travelers, traders, and soldiers. French was fairly widely taught during this period, and a study of the theoretical books and language textbooks from this period indicate that many of the same questions that are being considered today by language teachers were being considered then. These included questions about practice versus learning rules and formal study versus informal use.

The status of Latin changed during this period from a living language that learners needed to be able to read, write, and speak, to a dead language which was studied as an intellectual exercise. The analysis of the grammar and rhetoric of Classical Latin became the model language teaching between the 17th and 19th centuries, a time when thought about language teaching crystalized in Europe. Emphasis was on learning grammar rules and vocabulary by rote, translations, and practice in writing sample sentences. The sentences that were translated or written by the students were examples of grammatical points and usually had little relationship to the real world. This method came to be known as the grammar-translation method. Though some people tried to challenge this type of language education, it was difficult to overcome the attitude that Classical Latin (and to a lesser extent Greek) was the most ideal language, and the way it was taught was the model for the way any language should be taught. When modern languages were taught as part of the curriculum, beginning in the 18th century, they were generally taught using the same method as Latin.

Topic-009: Language Teaching Methods in the 19th and Early to Mid-20th Century

The Grammar-Translation Method

The grammar-translation method was the dominant foreign language teaching method in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s, and a version of it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world even today. However, even as early as the mid-19th century, theorists were beginning to question the principles behind the grammar-translation method. Changes were beginning to take place. There was a greater demand for ability to speak foreign languages, and various reformers began reconsidering the nature of language and learning. Among these reformers were two

Frenchmen, C. Marcel and F. Gouin, and an Englishman, T. Pendergast. Through their separate observations, they concluded that the way the children learned language was relevant to how adults should learn language. Marcel emphasized the importance of understanding meaning in language learning. Pendergast proposed the first structural syllabus. He proposed arranging grammatical structures so that the easiest were taught first. Gouin believed that children learned language through using language for a sequence of related actions. He emphasized presenting each item in context and using gestures to supplement verbal meaning.

Though the ideas of these and other reformers had some influence for a time, they did not become widespread. They were outside of the established educational circles, and the networks of conferences and journals which exist today did not exist then to spread their ideas.

Reforms

However, in the late 1800s and early 1900s, linguists became interested in the problem of the best way to teach languages. These reformers, who included Henry Sweet of England, Wilhelm Vietor of Germany, and Paul Passy of France, believed that language teaching should be based on scientific knowledge about language; that it should begin with speaking and expand to other skills; that words and sentences should be presented in context; that grammar should be taught inductively; and that translation should, for the most part, be avoided. These ideas spread, and were consolidated in what became known as the Direct Method, the first of the "natural methods." The Direct Method became popular in language schools, but it was not very practical with larger classes or in public schools.

Behaviorism and Language Teaching

Developments in other fields have, at times, had an effect on language teaching. In the field of psychology, behaviorism has had a great effect on language teaching. Various scientists in the early to mid-1900s did experiments with animals, trying to understand how animals learned, and through animals, how humans learned.

One of the most famous of these scientists was Ivan Pavlov. His experiments showed that if he rang a bell before giving food to the dogs he was studying, they would salivate, when they heard the bell, even before the food was presented to them. This, he called, a conditioned response. Pavlov believed that this indicated how animals learned, even in the wild. Pavlov and other studying in the fields of animal behavior (including John Watson and B.F. Skinner) came to believe that animal behavior was formed by a series of rewards or punishments. Skinner, in particular, promoted the idea that human behavior could be described using the same model.

In applying his principles to language, Skinner theorized that parents or other caretakers hear a child say something that sounds like a word in their language; they reward the child with praise and attention. The child repeats words and combinations of words that are praised and thus learns the language.

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Behaviorism, along with applied linguistics, which developed detailed descriptions of the differences between languages, had a great influence on language teaching. Theorists believed that languages were made up of a series of habits, and that if learners could develop all these habits, they would speak the language well. Also, they believed that a contrastive analysis of languages would be invaluable in teaching languages, because points in which the languages were similar would be easy for students, but points in which they were different would be difficult for students. From these theories arose the audio-lingual method. The audio-lingual method is based on using drills for the formation of good language habits. Students are given a stimulus, which they respond to. If their response is correct, it is rewarded, so the habit will be formed; if it is incorrect, it is corrected, so that it will be suppressed.

Gouin and Berlitz - The Direct Method

The last two decades of the nineteenth century ushered in a new age. In his 'The Art of Learning and Studying Foreign Languages' (1880), Francois Gouin described his "harrowing" experiences of learning German, which helped him gain insights into the intricacies of language teaching and learning. Living in Hamburg for one year, he attempted to master the German language by dint of memorizing a German grammar book and a list of the 248 irregular German verbs, instead of conversing with the natives. Exulting in the security that the grounding in German grammar offered him, he hastened to go to the University to test his knowledge. He could not understand a word! After his failure, he decided to memorize the German roots, but with no success. He went so far as to memorize books, translate Goethe and Schiller, and learn 30,000 words in a dictionary by heart, only to meet with failure. Upon returning to France, Gouin discovered that his three-year-old nephew had managed to become a chatterbox of French - a fact that made him think that the child held the secret to learning a language. Thus, he began observing his nephew and came to the conclusion (arrived at by another researcher a century before him) that language learning is a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions and then using language to represent these conceptions. Equipped with this knowledge, he devised a teaching method premised upon these insights. It was against this background that the Series Method was created, which taught learners directly a "series" of connected sentences that are easy to understand. For instance,

'I stretch out my arm. I take hold of the handle. I turn the handle. I open the door. I pull the door.'

Nevertheless, this approach to language learning was short-lived, and only a generation later, gave place to the Direct Method, posited by Charles Berlitz. The basic tenet of Berlitz's method was that second language learning is similar to first language learning. In this light, there should be lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation, and little, if any, analysis of grammatical rules and syntactic structures. In short, the principles of the Direct Method were as follows:

- Classroom instruction was conducted in the target language
- There was an inductive approach to grammar
- Only everyday vocabulary was taught

- Concrete vocabulary was taught through pictures and objects, while abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas

The Direct Method enjoyed great popularity at the end of the nineteenth century and beginning of the twentieth, but it was difficult to use, mainly because of the constraints of budget, time, and classroom size. Yet, after a period of decline, this method has been revived, leading to the emergence of the Audio-lingual Method.

The Audio-lingual Method

The outbreak of World War II heightened the need for Americans to become orally proficient in the languages of their allies and enemies alike. To this end, bits and pieces of the Direct Method were appropriated in order to form and support this new method, the "Army Method," which came to be known in the 1950s as the Audio-lingual Method.

The Audio-lingual Method was based on linguistic and psychological theory and one of its main premises was the scientific descriptive analysis of a wide assortment of languages. On the other hand, conditioning and habit-formation models of learning put forward by behavioristic psychologists were married with the pattern practices of the Audio-lingual Method. The following points sum up the characteristics of the method:

- Dependence on mimicry and memorization of set phrases
- Teaching structural patterns by means of repetitive drills
- No grammatical explanation
- Learning vocabulary in context
- Use of tapes and visual aids
- Focus on pronunciation
- Immediate reinforcement of correct responses

But its popularity waned after 1964, partly because of Wilga Rivers's exposure of its shortcomings. It fell short of promoting communicative ability as it paid undue attention to memorization and drilling, while downgrading the role of context and world knowledge in language learning. After all, it was discovered that language was not acquired through a process of habit formation and errors were not necessarily bad or pernicious.

Topic-010: Language Teaching Methods from the Mid- to Late-20th Century

In the years following World War II, great changes took place, some of which would eventually influence language teaching and learning. Language diversity greatly increased, so that there were more languages to learn. Expansion of schooling meant that language learning was no longer the prerogative of the elite but something that was necessary for a widening range of people. More opportunities for international travel and business and international social and cultural exchanges increased the need for language learning. As a result, renewed attempts were made in the 1950s and 1960s to 1) use new technology (e.g., tape recorders, radios, TV, and computers) effectively in

language teaching, 2) explore new educational patterns (e.g., bilingual education, individualized instruction, and immersion programs), and 3) establish methodological innovations (e.g., the audio-lingual method). However, the hoped-for increase in the effectiveness of language education did not materialize, and some of the theoretical underpinnings of the developments were called into question.

Beginning in the mid-1960s, there has been a variety of theoretical challenges to the audio-lingual method. Linguist Noam Chomsky challenged the behaviorist model of language learning. He proposed a theory called Transformational Generative Grammar, according to which learners do not acquire an endless list of rules but limited set of transformations which can be used over and over again. For example, a sentence is changed from an affirmative to a negative sentence by adding 'not' and the auxiliary verb to, i.e., "I go to New York every week" would be changed to "I do not go to New York every week." With a fairly limited number of these transformations, according to Chomsky, language users can form an unlimited number of sentences.

Other theorists have also proposed ideas that have influenced language teaching. Stephen Krashen, for example, studied the way that children learn language and applied it to adult language learning. He proposed the Input Hypothesis, which states that language is acquired by using comprehensible input (the language that one hears in the environment) which is slightly beyond the learner's present proficiency. Learners use the comprehensible input to deduce rules. Krashen's views on language teaching have given rise to a number of changes in language teaching, including a de-emphasis on the teaching of grammatical rules and a greater emphasis on trying to teach language to adults in the way that children learn language. While Krashen's theories are not universally accepted, they have had an influence.

Developments in various directions have taken place since the early 1970s. There have been developments such as, a great emphasis has been placed on individualized instruction, and more humanistic approaches to language learning, and a greater focus is placed on the learner. Some "new methods," including the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and Community Language Learning, have gained followings, and these reflect some of the trends mentioned above.

The "Designer" Methods of the 1970s

The Chomskyan revolution in linguistics drew the attention of linguists and language teachers to the "deep structure" of language, while psychologists took account of the affective and interpersonal nature of learning. As a result, new methods were proposed, which attempted to capitalize on the importance of psychological factors in language learning. David Nunan (1989, p. 97) referred to these methods as "designer" methods, on the grounds that they took a "one-size-fits-all" approach. Let us have a look at two of these "designer" methods.

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia promised great results if one would use their brain power and inner capacities. Lozanov (1979) believed that humans are capable of learning much more than they think. Drawing

upon Soviet psychological research on yoga and extrasensory perception, he came up with a method for learning that used relaxation as a means of retaining new knowledge and material. It stands to reason that music played a pivotal role in his method. Lozanov and his followers tried to present vocabulary, readings, role-plays and drama with classical music in the background and students sitting in comfortable seats. In this way, students became "suggestible."

Of course, suggestopedia offered valuable insights into the "super learning" powers of our brain but it was demolished on several fronts. For instance, what happens if our classrooms are bereft of such amenities as comfortable seats and Compact Disk players? Certainly, this method is insightful and constructive and can be practiced from time to time, without necessarily having to adhere to all its premises. A relaxed mind is an open mind and it can help a student to feel more confident and, in a sense, flexible.

The Silent Way

The Silent Way rested on cognitive rather than affective arguments, and was characterized by a problem-solving approach to learning. Gattegno (1972) held that it is in learners' best interests to develop independence and autonomy and cooperate with each other in solving language problems. The teacher is supposed to be silent - hence the name of the method - and must deprive themselves of the tendency to explain everything to them.

The Silent Way came in for an onslaught of criticism. More specifically, it was considered very harsh, as the teacher was distant and, in general lines, the classroom environment was not conducive to learning.

Strategies-based Instruction

The work of O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and others before and after them, emphasized the importance of style awareness and strategy development in ensuring mastery of a foreign language. In this vein, many textbooks and entire syllabi offered guidelines on constructing strategy-building activities.

Communicative Language Teaching

The need for communication has been relentless, leading to the emergence of the Communicative Language Teaching. Having defined and redefined the construct of communicative competence; having explored the vast array of functions of language that learners are supposed to be able to accomplish; and having probed the nature of styles and nonverbal communication, teachers and researchers are now better equipped to teach (about) communication through actual communication, and not merely by theorizing about it.

At this juncture, we should say that Communicative Language Teaching is not a method; it is an approach, which transcends the boundaries of concrete methods and, concomitantly, techniques. It is a theoretical position about the nature of language and language learning and teaching.

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The basic premises of this approach include:

- Focus on all of the components of communicative competence, and not only grammatical or linguistic competence. Engaging learners in the pragmatic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes
- Viewing fluency and accuracy as complementary principles underpinning communicative techniques
- Using the language in unrehearsed contexts

In addition, there has been disillusionment with the whole methods debate, partly due to inconclusiveness of research on methods, and calls for a deeper understanding of the process of language learning itself. Finally, there has been a greater stress on authenticity in language learning, meaning that the activities involved in language learning reflect real-world uses of the language.

Conclusion

Over the centuries, many changes have taken place in language learning, and yet there is evidence that considerations related to language learning have come up again and again through history. No doubt the search for a greater understanding of language learning, and more effective language teaching, will continue.

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Lesson-03
DIFFERENCE IN THEORY APPROACH METHOD TECHNIQUE

Topic-011: What is a Theory?

Generally speaking, a theory is a set of statements that is developed through a process of continued abstractions. A theory is a generalized statement aimed at explaining a phenomenon.

It is generally agreed that teachers' classroom practice is directly or indirectly based on some theory whether or not it is explicitly articulated. Teachers may have gained this crucial theoretical knowledge either through professional education, personal experience, robust common sense, or a combination.

In fact, it has been suggested that there is no substantial difference between common sense and theory, particularly in the field of education. Cameron et al. (1992, pp. 18–19), for instance, asserts that common sense is different from theory "only by the degree of formality and self-consciousness with which it is invoked. When someone purports to criticize or 'go beyond' common sense, they are not putting theory where previously there was none, but replacing one theory with another."

The most successful teaching techniques are in one way or another, informed by principled theories. What have become controversial are questions such as: what constitutes a theory, who constructs a theory, and whose theory counts as theory.

Traditionally, there has been a clear articulated separation between theory and practice. For instance, in the context of L2 education, theory is generally seen to constitute a set of insights and concepts derived from academic disciplines such as general education, linguistic sciences, second language acquisition, cognitive psychology, and information sciences. These and other allied disciplines provide the theoretical bases necessary for the study of language, language learning, language teaching, and language teacher education.

Practice is seen to constitute a set of teaching and learning strategies indicated by the theorist or the syllabus designer or the materials producer, and adopted or adapted by the teacher and the learner in order to jointly accomplish the stated and unstated goals of language learning and teaching in the classroom. Consequently, there isa corresponding division of labor between the theorist and the teacher: the theorist conceives and constructs knowledge and the teacher understands and applies that knowledge. Thus, the relationship between the theorist and the teacher is not unlike that of the producer and the consumer of a commercial commodity. Such a division of labor is said to have resulted in the creation of a privileged class of theorists and an underprivileged class of practitioners.

Professional Theory and Personal Theory

Well aware of the harmful effects of the artificial division between theory and practice, general educationists correctly affirm that theory and practice should inform each other, and should therefore

constitute a unified whole. Their stand on the theory/practice divide is reflected in a distinction they made between a "professional theory" and a "personal theory" of education. Charles O'Hanlon summarizes the distinction in this way:

A professional theory is a theory which is created and perpetuated within the professional culture. It is a theory which is widely known and understood like the developmental stages of Piaget. Professional theories are generally transmitted via teacher/professional training in colleges, polytechnics and universities. Professional theories form the basis of a shared knowledge and understanding about the "culture" of teaching and provide the opportunity to develop discourse on the implicit and explicit educational issues raised by these theoretical perspectives.

A personal theory, on the other hand, is an individual theory unique to each person, which is individually developed through the experience of putting professional theories to the test in the practical situation. How each person interprets and adapts their previous learning, particularly their reading, understanding and identification of professional theories while they are on the job is potentially their own personal theory (O'Hanlon, 1993, pp. 245–6).

Implied in this distinction is the traditional assumption that professional theory belongs to the domain of the theorist and personal theory belongs to the domain of the teacher. Although this approach does not place theory and practice in positions of antithetical polarity, it nevertheless perpetuates the artificial divide between theory and practice and between the theorist's professional theory and the teacher's personal theory. Another drawback is that this approach offers only limited possibilities for practicing teachers because they are not empowered to design their personal theories based on their own experiential knowledge; instead, they are encouraged to develop them by understanding, interpreting, and testing the professional theories and ideas constructed by the outside experts (Kumaravadivelu, 1999a).

Critical pedagogists have come out strongly against such an approach. They argue that it merely forces teachers to take orders from established theorists and faithfully execute them, thereby leaving very little room for self-conceptualization and self-construction of truly personal theories. They go on to say that supporters of this teacher-as-implementer approach "exhibit ideological naiveté. They are unable to recognize that the act of selecting problems for teachers to research is an ideological act, an act that trivialize the role of the teacher" (Kincheloe, 1993, pp. 185–6). A huge obstacle to the realization of the kind of flexibility and freedom that critical pedagogists advocate is that the artificial dichotomy between the theorist and the teacher has been institutionalized in the teaching community and that most teachers have been trained to accept the dichotomy as something that naturally goes with the territory.

Teacher's Theory of Practice

Any serious attempt to help teachers construct their own theory of practice requires a re-examination of the idea of theory and theory making. A distinction that Alexander (1984, 1986) makes between theory as product and theory as process may be useful in this context. Theory as product refers to the content knowledge of one's discipline; whereas, theory as process refers to the

intellectual activity (i.e., the thought process) needed to theorize. Appropriately, Alexander uses the term theorizing to refer to theory as intellectual activity. Theorizing as an intellectual activity, then, is not confined to theorists alone; it is something teachers should be enabled to do as well. According to Alexander, a teacher's theory of practice should be based on different types of knowledge:

- Speculative theory (by which he refers to the theory conceptualized by thinkers in the field),
- The findings of empirical research, and
- The experiential knowledge of practicing teachers.

None of these, however, should be presented as the privileged source of knowledge. He advises teachers to approach their own practice with "principles drawn from the consideration of these different types of knowledge" (Alexander 1986, p. 146), and urges teacher-educators "to concentrate less on what teachers should know, and more on how they might think" (ibid., p. 145). In other words, the primary concern of teachers and teacher educators should be the depth of critical thinking rather than the breadth of content knowledge.

Extending Alexander's notion of teacher theorizing, and drawing from research conducted by others, Donald McIntyre (1993) differentiates three levels of theorizing.

- At the first, technical level, teacher theorizing is concerned with the effective achievement of short-term, classroom-centered instructional goals. In order to achieve that, teachers are content with using ideas generated by outside experts and exercises designed by textbook writers.

- At the second, practical level, teacher theorizing is concerned with the assumptions, values, and consequences with which classroom activities are linked. At this level of practical reflectivity, teachers not only articulate their criteria for developing and evaluating their own practice but also engage in extensive theorizing about the nature of their subjects, their students, and learning/teaching processes.

- At the third, critical or emancipatory level, teacher theorizing is concerned with wider ethical, social, historical, and political issues, including the institutional and societal forces which may constrain the teacher's freedom of action to design an effective theory of practice.

Incidentally, the three levels correspond roughly to the three types of teacher roles—teachers as passive technicians, reflective practitioners, and transformative intellectuals.

Conclusion

Whether teachers characterize their activity as a job or as work, career, occupation, or vocation, they play an unmistakable and unparalleled role in the success of any educational enterprise. Whether they see themselves as passive technicians, reflective practitioners, transformative intellectuals, or as a combination, they are all the time involved in a critical mind engagement. Their success and the satisfaction they derive from it depends to a large extent on the quality of their mind engagement. One way of enhancing the quality of their mind engagement is to recognize the

symbiotic relationship between theory, research, and practice, and between professional, personal, and experiential knowledge.

Theory of Language

At least three different theoretical views of language and the nature of language proficiency explicitly or implicitly inform current approaches and methods in language teaching. The first, and the most traditional of the three, is the structural view, the view that language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The target of language learning is seen to be the mastery of elements of this system, which are generally defined in terms of phonological units (e.g., phonemes), grammatical units (e.g., clauses, phrases, sentences, grammatical operations).

The second view of language is the functional view, the view that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. The communicative movement in language teaching subscribes to this view of language. This theory emphasizes the semantic and communicative dimension rather than the grammatical characteristics of language, and leads to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar. Wilkins's Notional Syllabuses (1976) is an attempt to spell out the implications of this view of language for syllabus design. A notional syllabus would include not only elements of grammar and lexis but also specify the topics, notions, and concepts the learner needs to communicate about. The English for Specific Purposes ESP movement likewise begins not from a structural theory of language but from a functional account of learner needs (Robinson 1980).

The third view of language can be called as the interactional view. It sees language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Language is seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations. Areas of inquiry being drawn on in the development of interactional approaches to language teaching include interaction analysis, conversation analysis, and ethnomethodology. Interactional theories focus on the patterns of moves, acts, negotiation, and interaction found in conversational exchanges. According to this view, Language teaching content, may be specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction or may be left unspecified to be shaped by the inclinations of learners as interactors. "Interaction" has been central to theories of second language learning and pedagogy since the 1980s. Rivers (1987) defined the interactive perspective in language education: "Students achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages (that is, messages that contain information of interest to both speaker and listener in a situation of importance to both)" (Rivers 1987, p. 4). The notion of interactivity has also been linked to the teaching of reading and writing as well as listening and speaking skills. Structural, functional, or interactional models of language (or variations on them) provide the axioms and theoretical framework that may motivate a particular teaching method, such as Audio-lingualism. But in themselves they are incomplete and need to be complemented by theories of language learning.

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Theory of Language Learning

Although specific theories of the nature of language may provide the basis for a particular teaching method, other methods derive primarily from a theory of language learning. A learning theory underlying an approach or method responds to two questions: (a) what are the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning? And (b) what are the conditions that need to be met in order for these learning processes to be activated? Learning theories associated with a method at the level of approach may emphasize either one or both of these dimensions. Process-oriented theories build on learning processes, such as habit formation, induction, inferencing, hypothesis testing, and generalization. Condition-oriented theories emphasize the nature of the human and physical context in which language learning takes place.

Stephen D. Krashen's Monitor Model of second language development (1981) is an example of a learning theory on which a method (the Natural Approach) has been built. Monitor theory addresses both the process and the condition dimensions of learning. At the level of process, Krashen distinguishes between acquisition and learning. Acquisition refers to the natural assimilation of language rules through using language for communication. Learning refers to the formal study of language rules and is a conscious process. According to Krashen, learning is available only as a "monitor." The monitor is the repository of conscious grammatical knowledge about a language that is learned through formal instruction and that is called upon in the editing of utterances produced through the acquired system. Krashen's theory also addresses the conditions necessary for the process of "acquisition" to take place. Krashen describes these in terms of the type of "input" the learner receives. Input must be comprehensible, slightly above the learner's present level of competence, interesting or relevant, not grammatically sequenced, in sufficient quantity, and experienced in low-afixiety contexts.

Tracy D. Terrell's Natural Approach (1977) is an example of a method derived primarily from a learning theory rather than from a particular view of language. Although the Natural Approach is based on a learning theory that specifies both processes and conditions, the learning theory underlying such methods as Counseling-Learning and the Silent Way addresses the conditions held to be necessary for learning to take place without specifying what the learning processes are presumed to be.

Charles A. Curran in his writings on Counseling-Learning (1972), for example, focuses primarily on the conditions necessary for successful learning. He believes the atmosphere of the classroom is a crucial factor, and his method seeks to ameliorate the feelings of intimidation and insecurity that many learners experience. James Asher's Total Physical Response (Asher 1977) is a method that derives primarily from learning theory rather than from a theory of the nature of language. Asher's learning theory addresses both the process and the condition aspects of learning. It is based on the belief that child language learning is based on motor activity, on coordinating language with action, and that this should form the basis of adult foreign language teaching. Orchestrating language production and comprehension with body movement and physical actions is thought to provide the conditions for success in language learning. Caleb Gattegno's Silent Way (1972, 1976) is built around a theory of the conditions necessary for successful learning to be

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realized. Gattegno's writings address learners' needs to feel secure about learning and to assume conscious control of learning. Many of the techniques used in the method are designed to train learners to consciously use their intelligence to heighten learning potential.

Often, there appears to be natural affinities between certain theories of language and theories of language learning; however, one can imagine different pairings of language theory and learning theory that might work. The linking of structuralism (a linguistic theory) to-behaviorism (a learning theory) produced Audio-lingualism. However, this particular link was not inevitable. Cognitive-code proponents, for example, have attempted to link a more sophisticated model of structuralism to a more mentalistic and less behavioristic brand of learning theory.

At the level of approach, we are concerned with theoretical principles. With respect to language theory, we are concerned with a model of language competence and an account of the basic features of linguistic organization and language use. With respect to learning theory, we are concerned with an account of the central processes of learning and an account of the conditions believed to promote successful language learning. These principles may or may not lead to "a" method. Teachers may, for example, develop their own teaching procedures, informed by a particular view of language and a particular theory of learning. They may constantly revise, vary, and modify teaching/learning procedures on the basis of the performance of the learners and their reactions to instructional practice. A group of teachers holding similar beliefs about language and language learning (i.e., sharing a similar approach) may implement these principles in different ways. Approach does not specify procedure. Theory does not dictate a particular set of teaching techniques and activities. What links theory with practice (or approach with procedure) is what we call design.

Topic-012: What is an Approach?

According to Edward Anthony (1965), "An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language learning and teaching".

When linguists and language specialists sought to improve the quality of language teaching in the late nineteenth century, they often did so by referring to general principles and theories concerning how languages are learned, how knowledge of language is represented and organized in memory, or how language itself is structured. The early applied linguists, such as Henry Sweet (1845-1912), Otto Jespersen (1860-1943), and Harold Palmer (1877-1949), elaborated principles and theoretically accountable approaches to the design of language teaching programs, courses, and materials; though many of the specific practical details were left to be worked out by others. They sought a rational answer to questions such as those regarding principles for the selection and sequencing of vocabulary and grammar. In describing methods, the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles, and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language, is central. In an attempt to clarify this difference, a scheme was proposed by the American applied linguist Edward Anthony in 1963. He identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he termed approach, method, and technique.

The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach. An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught.

Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods.

According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described.

Anthony's model serves as a useful way of distinguishing between different degrees of abstraction and specificity found in different language teaching proposals. Thus we can see that the proposals of the Reform Movement were at the level of approach and that the Direct Method is one method derived from this approach. The so-called Reading Method, which evolved as a result of the Coleman Report, should really be described in the plural - reading methods - since a number of different ways of implementing a reading approach have been developed.

Topic-013: What is a Method/Methodology?

The Concept of Method: A core course in Theory and Practice of Methods, with the same or a different title, is an integral part of language teacher education programs all over the world. A survey of 120 teacher education programs in Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in the United States, for instance, shows that the Methods course functions as the primary vehicle for the development of basic knowledge and skill in the prospective teacher (Grosse, 1991). The survey also shows that specific classroom techniques receive "the greatest amount of attention and time in the methods courses" and that the three books that top the list of textbooks that are widely prescribed for methods classes "deal almost exclusively with specific language teaching methods".

A method is an application of an approach in the context of language teaching. An example of a method is the grammar-translation method. This method employs the memorization of various grammar rules and the translation of second language material to the student's native language. Students were able to develop the intellectual capacity to understand the new language through a deductive process of acquiring the rules of the language. The purpose is not to critique this method but to show how it was derived from the approach that the mind needs to be trained through intellectual exercises to be able to accomplish something.

According to Edward Anthony's model (1965), approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skill to be taught, the content to be

taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures, elements and sub elements that constitute method are described (Richards & Rodgers:33).

The term methods, as currently used in the literature on second and foreign language (L2) teaching, does not refer to what teachers actually do in the classroom; rather, it refers to established methods conceptualized and constructed by experts in the field. The exact number of methods that are commonly used is unclear. A book published in the mid-sixties, for instance, provides a list of fifteen "most common" types of methods "still in use in one form or another in various parts of the world" (Mackey, 1965, p. 151). Two books published in the mid-eighties (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; and Richards and Rodgers, 1986)—which have long-occupied the top two ranks among the books prescribed for methods classes in the United States—provide between them, a list of eleven methods that are currently used. They are (in alphabetical order): Audio-lingual Method, Communicative Methods, Community Language Learning, Direct Method, Grammar-Translation Method, Natural Approach, Oral Approach, Silent Way, Situational Language Teaching, Suggestopedia, and Total Physical Response. It would be wrong to assume that these eleven methods provide eleven different paths to language teaching. In fact, there is considerable overlap in their theoretical as well as practical approaches to L2 learning and teaching. Sometimes, as Wilga Rivers (1991, p. 283) rightly points out, what appears to be a radically new method is more often than not a variant of existing methods presented with "the fresh paint of a new terminology that camouflages their fundamental similarity."

Difference in Method and Methodology

Whereas method is a single tool, methodology is the rationale for the selection of a set of tools. A methodology describes the "general research strategy that outlines the way in which research is to be undertaken" (An Introduction to the Philosophy of Methodology, Howell 2013). Methodology is about the guiding principles.

Limitations of the Concept of Method

The disjunction between method as conceptualized by theorists and method as conducted by teachers is the direct consequence of the inherent limitations of the concept of method itself. First and foremost, methods are based on idealized concepts geared toward idealized contexts. Since language learning and teaching needs, wants, and situations are unpredictably numerous, no idealized method can visualize all the variables in advance in order to provide situation-specific suggestions that practicing teachers sorely need to tackle the challenges they confront every day of their professional lives. As a predominantly top-down exercise, the conception and construction of methods have been largely guided by a one-size-fits-all, cookie-cutter approach that assumes a common clientele with common goals.

Not anchored in any specific learning and teaching context, and caught up in the whirlwind of fashion, methods tend to wildly drift from one theoretical extreme to the other. At one time, grammatical drills were considered the right way to teach; at another, they were given up in favor of

communicative tasks. These extreme swings create conditions in which certain aspects of learning and teaching get overly emphasized while certain others are utterly ignored, depending on which way the pendulum swings.

Yet another crucial shortcoming of the concept of method is that it is too inadequate and too limited to satisfactorily explain the complexity of language teaching operations around the world. Concerned primarily and narrowly with classroom instructional strategies, it ignores the fact that the success or failure of classroom instruction depends to a large extent on the unstated and unstable interaction of multiple factors such as teacher cognition, learner perception, societal needs, cultural contexts, political exigencies, economic imperatives, and institutional constraints, all of which are inextricably interwoven.

The limitations of the concept of method gradually led to the realization that "the term method is a label without substance" (Clarke, 1983, p. 109), that it has "diminished rather than enhanced our understanding of language teaching" (Pennycook, 1989, p. 597), and that "language teaching might be better understood and better executed if the concept of method were not to exist at all" (Jarvis, 1991, p. 295). This realization has resulted in a widespread dissatisfaction with the concept of method.

Dissatisfaction with Method

Based on theoretical, experimental, and experiential knowledge, teachers and teacher educators have expressed their dissatisfaction with method in different ways. Studies by Janet Swaffer, Katherine Arens, and Martha Morgan (1982), David Nunan (1987), Michael Legutke and Howard Thomas (1991), Kumaravadivelu (1993b), and others clearly demonstrate that, even as the methodological band played on, practicing teachers have been marching to a different drum. These studies show, collectively and clearly, that

- teachers who are trained in and even swear by a particular method do not conform to its theoretical principles and classroom procedures,
- teachers who claim to follow the same method often use different classroom procedures that are not consistent with the adopted method,
- teachers who claim to follow different methods often use same classroom procedures, and
- over time, teachers develop and follow a carefully delineated task-hierarchy, a weighted sequence of activities not necessarily associated with any established method.

In short, confronted with "the complexity of language, learning, and language learners every day of their working lives in a more direct fashion than any theorist does," teachers have developed the conviction that "no single perspective on language, no single explanation for learning, and no unitary view of the contributions of language learners will account for what they must grapple with on a daily basis" (Larsen-Freeman, 1990, p. 269).

Justifiable dissatisfaction with established methods inevitably and increasingly led practicing teachers to rely on their intuitive ability and experiential knowledge. As Henry Widdowson (1990, p.

50) observes: "It is quite common to hear teachers say that they do not subscribe to any particular approach or method in their teaching but are 'eclectic'. They thereby avoid commitment to any current fad that comes up on the whirligig of fashion." He further asserts that "if by eclecticism is meant the random and expedient use of whatever technique comes most readily to hand, then, it has no merit whatever" (p. 50).

While there have been frequent calls for teachers to develop informed or enlightened eclecticism based on their own understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of established methods, teacher education programs seldom make any sustained and systematic effort to develop in prospective teachers the knowledge and skill necessary to be responsibly eclectic.

Topic-014: Types of Methods

It is useful, for the purpose of analysis and understanding, to cluster these methods in terms of certain identifiable common features. One way of doing that is to classify them as

- language-centered methods,
- learner-centered methods, and
- learning-centered methods (Kumaravadivelu, 1993a).

Learner-Centered Methods

Learner-centered methods are those that are principally concerned with language use and learner needs. These methods (e.g., some versions of communicative methods) seek to provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, pre-sequenced grammatical structures as well as communicative functions (i.e., speech acts such as apologizing, requesting, etc.) through meaning-focused activities.

The assumption is that a preoccupation with both form and function will ultimately lead to target language mastery and that the learners can make use of both formal and functional repertoire to fulfill their communicative needs outside the class. In this approach, as in the case of language-centered methods, language development is considered largely intentional rather than incidental.

Learner-centered methods aim at making language learners grammatically accurate and communicatively fluent. They take into account the learner's real-life language use for social interaction or for academic study, and present necessary linguistic structures in communicative contexts. Proponents of learner-centered methods, like those of language-centered methods, believe in accumulated entities.

The one major difference is that in the case of the latter, the accumulated entities represent linguistic structures, and in the case of the former they represent structures plus notions and functions.

Furthermore, just as language-centered methods advocate that the linguistic structures of a language could be sequentially presented and explained, learner-centered methods also advocate that

each functional category could be matched with one or more linguistic forms and sequentially presented and systematically explained to the learner.

Learning-Centered Methods

Learning-centered methods are those that are principally concerned with learning processes. These methods (e.g., the Natural Approach) seek to provide opportunities for learners to participate in open-ended meaningful interaction through communicative activities or problem-solving tasks in class. The assumption is that a preoccupation with meaning-making will ultimately lead to grammatical as well as communicative mastery of the language, and that the learners can learn through the process of communication. In this approach, unlike the other two, language development is considered more incidental than intentional.

According to learning-centered methods, language development is a non-linear process, and therefore, does not require preselected, pre-sequenced systematic language input but requires the creation of conditions in which learners can engage in meaningful activities in class. Proponents of learning-centered methods believe that language is best learned when the learner's attention is focused on understanding, saying and doing something with language, and not when their attention is focused explicitly on linguistic features.

They also hold the view that linguistic systems are too complex to be neatly analyzed, explicitly explained, and sequentially presented to the learner.

In seeking to redress what they consider to be a fundamental flaw that characterizes previous methods, proponents of learning- centered methods attempt to draw insights from the findings of research in second language acquisition. They claim that these insights can inform the theory and practice of language teaching methods.

As a result, the changes they advocate relate to all aspects of learning and teaching operations: syllabus design, materials production, classroom teaching, outcomes assessment, and teacher education. It is worthwhile to remember that language-, learner-, and learning- centered methods, in their prototypical version, consist of a specified set of theoretical principles and a specified set of classroom procedures. Theoretical principles are insights derived from linguistics, second language acquisition, cognitive psychology, information sciences, and other allied disciplines that provide theoretical bases for the study of language, language learning, and language teaching. Classroom procedures are teaching and learning techniques indicated by the syllabus designer and/or the materials producer, and adopted/adapted by the teacher and the learner in order to jointly accomplish the goals of language learning and teaching in the classroom.

Classroom teachers have always found it difficult to use any of the established methods as designed and delivered to them. In fact, even the authors of the two textbooks on methods widely used in the United States were uneasy about the efficacy of the methods they selected to include in their books, and wisely refrained from recommending any of them for adoption. "Our goal," Richards and Rodgers (1986, p. viii) told their readers, "is to enable teachers to become better

informed about the nature, strengths, and weaknesses of methods and approaches so they can better arrive at their own judgments and decisions." Larsen-Freeman (1986, p. 1) went a step further and explicitly warned her readers that "the inclusion of a method in this book should not be construed as an endorsement of that method. What is being recommended is that, in the interest of becoming informed about existing choices, you investigate each method" (emphasis as in original).

Some other terms: System, Procedure, Technique

An approach is a theory about language learning or even a philosophy of how people learn in general. They can be psychologically focused such as behaviorism or cognitivism. They can also be based on older philosophies such as idealism or realism.

Approaches are fuzzy and hard to define because they are broad in nature. An example of an approach that leads to a method would be the philosophies of scholasticism, faculty of psychology, or even perennialism. Each of these philosophies encouraged the development of the mind in the way of a muscle. Train the brain and a person would be able to do many different things. These philosophies have impacted some methods of language teaching as we will see below.

Topic-015: Some other terms: System, Procedure, Technique

What is a System?

The idea of language as a 'system' appears in the linguistic theory of Ferdinand de Saussure, J.R. Firth, Benjamin Lee Whorf, Louis Hjelmslev, and Michael Halliday. The paradigmatic principle - the idea that the process of using language involves choosing from a specifiable set of options - was established in semiotics by Saussure, whose concept of value (viz. "valeur"), and of signs as terms in a system, "showed up paradigmatic organization as the most abstract dimension of meaning".

"System" is used in two related ways in systemic functional linguistics (SFL). SFL uses the idea of system to refer to language as a whole, (e.g. "the system of language"). This usage derives from Hjelmslev. In this context, Jay Lemke describes language as an open, dynamic system.

There is also the notion of "system" as used by J.R. Firth, where linguistic systems are considered to furnish the background for elements of structure. Halliday argues that, unlike system in the sense in which it was used by Firth was a conception only found in Firth's linguistic theory. In this use of the term "system", grammatical, or other features of language, are considered best understood when described as sets of options. Thus, "the most abstract categories of the grammatical description are the systems together with their options (systemic features).

What is a Procedure?

A procedure by definition is an established way of doing something. We may define it as a series of actions conducted in a certain order or manner. When it comes to linguistic procedure or process, it refers to 'a process involved in human language'.

In fact, a linguistic process may refer to the cognitive processes involved in producing and understanding linguistic communication.

What is a Technique?

A technique is implementation that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and, therefore, in harmony with an approach as well. (Anthony, 1963, pp. 63-67)

Example of technique: a common technique when using video material is called "silent viewing". This is where the teacher plays the video with no sound. Silent viewing is a single activity rather than a sequence, and as such is a technique rather than a whole procedure.

Technique is a way of carrying out a particular task, especially the execution or performance of an artistic work or a scientific procedure.

Approach refers to a methodology, a perspective, and various other things. Tool must be used to refer to something unitary and specific, such as a named test, or a device to do research with, such as a microscope or computer algorithm. In the social sciences, at least, the others, theory, method, methodology, and framework, have somewhat more specific meanings.

What is a Theory?

A theory is a system of assumptions, principles, and relationships posited to explain a specified set of phenomena. A methodology is often a whole set of methods developed according to a philosophical theory about how best to research and learn about natural or social phenomena.

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Lesson-04

CONTEXT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LTM IN PAKISTAN

Topic-016: Status of English in Pakistan

In Pakistan, like most of other former colonies, English language is primarily a symbol of prestige and high social class. At the time of inception of Pakistan in 1947, English was supposed to continue as the official language till national language(s) replaced it. "However, English is as firmly entrenched in the domains of power in Pakistan as it was in 1947" (Rahman, 2003:4). The social and political factors have played a major role in maintaining the superiority of this language.

With reference to this topic, following aspects need to be considered:

- Place of English in the Linguistic Hierarchy
- In Pakistan, like most of other former colonies, English language is primarily a symbol of prestige and high social class.
- Historical background of English
- Colonial Experience
- Language of the Rulers

We also need to consider the following dimensions:

- Language Power and Social context
- Social Status Ladder
- Placement of English in the Language Policy of Pakistan
- Placement of English in the Education Policy of Pakistan
- English and Economic power
- English and Power of Media

Topic-017: English Language and Education in Pakistan

To understand the teaching and learning of English in Pakistani education context, we need to understand the following:

- Historical background of English in the sub-continent
- Historical context of positioning of English in education in the sub-continent
- The language policy issue in higher education in Pakistan
- Role of various education commissions is not adequately addressed
- Supremacy of English: English as official language and as medium of instruction in Higher education
- Every policy as an interim arrangement

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We also need to keep in mind:

- The long-term language policy, as laid down in all the Reports of Educational Policies as well as Education Commissions and Committees, has been to introduce Urdu as the official medium of instruction.
- Urdu was declared the official medium of instruction for schooling (class 1-12) in the public sector soon after the country's independence
- The period assigned to the transfer has varied in various reports.

Examples:

- Fifteen years in the 1950s (Sharif Commission)
- Five to seven years in the 1970s (University Grants Commission, 1982)
- The Report of the Education Sector Reforms (2001) and the Task Force on Higher Education (2002) set up by General Musharraf have also not addressed the issue of language policy in higher education.
- The question that the present language policy poses is whether Pakistani students involved in higher education receive sufficient linguistic support in Urdu, English, or their mother tongue.
- In fact, it is a complex question. We need to consider learners' language difficulties in the English medium. Significance of the development of sufficient and quality materials for language teaching cannot be undermined.
- One major problem has been the lack of research in the areas of language planning in education.
- Only a few sociolinguistic surveys involving schooling in Pakistan (Mansoor, 1993; Rahman, 2002).
- In higher education (which includes undergraduate and postgraduate studies), the participation rate is around 3% only.
- As far as English language teaching is concerned, according to Abbas (1998), despite the massive inputs into the teaching of English, the national results are abysmally poor.
- College level pass percentage is poor for English as a compulsory subject, but failure in English examinations is common, and reason is mainly flawed pedagogy and material design.
- We may conclude by stating that English is a compulsory subject at the graduate level but spoken skills of students are poor and writing is a problematic area.

Topic-018: Teaching and Learning of English in Pakistan

The practicality of the English language opens innumerable prospects in the social and financial world. Regrettably, in Pakistan, the way English language is taught leaves barely any ground for learners to properly incorporate this language in their daily communication.

The major source of learning English in Pakistan is our school classrooms where, ironically, teaching amounts to nothing more than English spelling drills, some formal grammatical constructions, and precise definitions for an endless array of words which make the subject appear desolate.

There is a lot more to English language teaching than merely slogging at grammar or cramming vocabulary for the sake of learning it. It is taught either as an abstract system (grammar) dealing with de-contextualized meaning or as communication dealing with contextualized meaning.

Unfortunately, far too many teachers who are teaching English are truly ignorant of the broader communicative concept of English language teaching. They are teaching only 'syntax' in the name of grammar.

English, therefore, can be no more seen as a matter of neutral communication of facts or fictional truths, particularly so in its current status of a major global lingua franca. There is a need to develop a consciousness among the English teachers that "this is no longer a matter of drilling students in grammatical skills, instructing them in turning out a five-paragraph essay, responding appreciatively to novels, plays and poems or creating their own in the like manner" (Morgan, 1997).

The diverse streams of education were established because resources were scarce and they could not provide equal English language teaching facilities to a large population (Rahman, 1996). Siddiqui (2007, p.161) mentions some noteworthy constraints of the ELT scenario which are 'large-size classes, lack of resources, untrained teachers, fixed syllabus, forty minutes duration for English and external examination bodies'.

Beside these causes, Warwick and Reimers (1995) view that unmotivated faculty and curriculum divorced from real problems also prevent students from being expressive in English in higher education. Murray (2005) also notes that NNS (non-native speakers) teachers admit that they use L1 as the medium of instruction and have examination preparation as the leading aim of teaching. Moreover, Kamhi-Stein and Mahboob (2005) observe that many English teachers speak very little English in the classroom. It is suggested that not only students undergo language problems but the teaching faculty also do not use English competently.

Coleman (2010, p.17) also reports that the 'Pakistani English teachers have a tendency to teach the language through the medium of Urdu or a local language probably because their own competence in English is poor or because they have so little confidence in their own competence'. The effect of such English language teaching can be seen in universities where the postgraduate students find it hard to express themselves in oral and written skills.

Topic-019: English Language Curriculum in Pakistan

Planning English as the second language (ESL) curriculum not only identifies students' language needs, but seeks to enable them to critically examine the existing order and become active in shaping their own roles in it (Auerbach, 1995, 79 p.15; Brindley, 1984). Richards (2011, p.52), identifies the purpose of needs analysis for curriculum development in English language teaching: to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role.

These aspects are not kept in sight for the curriculum development in higher education in Pakistan. Language policy goals are transmitted through curriculum and textbooks. As teachers are

not involved in the process of policy making, so in order to accommodate deficiencies in the curriculum, they create their own goals in the classroom. Siddiqui (2007, p.50) observes that 'the majority of the teachers believe that the curriculum is handed down to them so that they cannot bring any change'. Moreover, the language of the curriculum is increasingly complex and specialized that it transcends pupils' comprehension and does not necessarily prepare them for classroom conversation (Cummins, 2006). Mansoor (2002) also points out that in the Pakistani education system, the textbooks tend to occupy the central place and the teacher is bound to teach the textbooks because the questions in the examinations are set from those textbooks. Therefore, although the trained teachers would like to be creative, they have 'little room for innovation in the presence of existing curriculum and syllabus' (Siddiqui, 2007, p.51).

Topic-020: LTM and Constraints in Pakistan

In ELT context, we find many constraints, such as inadequate resources, overcrowded classes and unenthusiastic teachers who restrict the adoption of teaching methodology derived from language learning theories. Moreover, language policy is hinged on by religious, cultural, social and political circumstances.

Mackey (1965, p. 151) comments that although there has been a preference for particular methods at different times, methods often continue in some form long after they have fallen out of favour; this observation is still true with grammar translation method that is still alive in Pakistan and many other parts of the world.

Warsi (1994) views that ELT methodology in Pakistan is not based on a needs-based approach in the classroom as it does not utilize authentic materials to develop students' reflective and communicative skills. It is noted that teachers in Pakistani universities deliver lectures using bilingual instructional methods. Communication between teachers and students occur in Urdu or in their regional language, Sindhi, Punjabi, etc. In bilingual education, the students learn through two languages in the classroom (Cummins, 2006). Hornberger (2003, cited in Canagarajah, 2005) argues that bilingual education through the bilingual textbooks, expressive writing from students in mixed codes, and oral code switching between teachers and students in the classroom, can develop important communicative and thinking skills.

Teaching methodology in Pakistan, Nunan (2006) believes that the dominant approach to language teaching in Asia has been, and remains a synthetic one, which is unnatural as it does not take into account the fact that L2 should be taught naturally like L1 acquisition. Teachers, who have learned their own languages through a synthetic approach, see this as the normal and logical way of learning language. It is observed that 'teachers tend to revert to methods they know to be effective in rendering the situation manageable' (Doyle, 1977, cited in Baumfield and Oberski, 1998, p.48). They teach, as Siddiqui (2007, p.164) reflects: 'The way they were taught by their own teachers and the teacher in Pakistan is not convinced about the strategies or methods s/he is exposed to but uses them because the experts say so'. In a typical Pakistani English classroom, we see that: 'The translation method (GTM) is used to teach English language. It is ineffective in that communicative and creative skills are ignored and a great deal of stress is laid on the rules and exceptions of English

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language. The practice of GTM in classroom has the stultifying effect on learners as it is not honed towards the linguistic needs of learners' (Warsi, 2004, p.4). Regarding academic writing, for example, it is observed that 'English is taught as a second language and writing is a compulsory skill. During the whole period of education, students face great difficulty to express themselves' (Khan, 2011, p.101).

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Lesson-05

CONTEXT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LTM IN PAKISTAN- PART 2

Topic-021: Teaching Speaking and Listening in Pakistan

The importance of speaking and listening as language skills cannot be denied. When it comes to the order or sequence of learning language skills, in fact listening comes first out of the four skills, followed by speaking. Reading and writing come much later.

As far as listening and speaking in a foreign language are concerned, they are of great significance. In the Pakistani context, there are multiple issues related to listening and speaking of English as a second/foreign language. In this context, we need to keep in mind the following:

- Role of Social context
- Influence of first language
- Speaking and listening practices in Pakistan
- Skills are not given importance. Writing is the only skill that is given importance. Speaking and listening are neither taught, not evaluated
- Needs – English is used everywhere in a global world. Need to reconsider communicative needs. The roles they are expected to perform and their needs regarding the functionality of language.
- Issues – Classroom resources, unmotivated teachers, disinterested students, inadequate curriculum, non-availability of teachers and textbooks.

Concerns:

- Schooling system in Pakistan
- Mediums of instruction
- Public vs. Private sector
- Writing oriented examination system in Pakistan

Topic-022: Teaching Reading in Pakistan

Significance of reading in a second/foreign language cannot be undermined, especially when it comes to a lingua franca like English, it gathers further significance. As far as teaching of this language skill is concerned, teaching reading in a second/foreign language is a complex task. In the Pakistani context, teaching of reading in English is of great significance. We need to consider the following aspects in this regard:

- Pakistani linguistic situation
- Social context
- Status of reading in English

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- School system in Pakistan
- Use of Grammar Translation method
- Reading lessons in our classrooms
- Practices and problems
- Lack of training of teachers
- Reading comprehension
- Intensive reading

Topic-023: Teaching Writing in Pakistan

Writing as a language skill is a far developed skill that comes after listening, speaking and even after reading. Significance of writing cannot be denied; especially when it comes to writing in a second/foreign language, it is a complex and complicated task to learn. English has a unique significance around the globe due to its status as a lingua franca. Thus, writing in English is one of the major language skills that are required in the literate/educated world of today. As far as writing in English and the case of Pakistan is concerned, for all educated class, people serving in offices and in elite class businesses, it is considered to be an essential element. However, the teaching and learning of writing in English has multiple problems in our context. In this regard, we need to consider the following:

- Situation in schools, colleges and universities
- Teaching writing: Practices in Pakistan
- Teacher training
- Writing skill and Pakistani examination system

Topic-024: ELT, Use of Methods and SL Proficiency in Pakistan

English language teaching has a special status in Pakistan. Traditional methods of teaching English language are used. Examination system also is very conservative and supports the traditional ways of teaching and learning. When we explore the use of LTMs and teaching of English, we find that major focus is on grammar translation method. English is more taught as a subject than as a language. Focus is on finishing the literature based contents, not on improving language skills. Government schools and their teachers do not focus at all on speaking and listening. Even reading and writing are taught in a very superficial way. The result is that SL proficiency is very low.

The reasons of low proficiency in English include:

- Bifurcated streams of education
- Methods' choices and SL Proficiency
- SL proficiency and difference in public and private schools
- Focus on reading and writing
- De-contextualized teaching and learning of English

Topic-025: ELT and Teacher Training in Pakistan

To understand the status and role of ELT teachers and their teacher training in Pakistan, we need to consider the following backdrop:

- Status of English in Pakistan
- Pakistani schools and English language
- Streams of education in Pakistan
- Higher Education: ELT and teacher training

Role of HEC

In order to bring qualitative improvement in English Language Teaching and Learning, Higher Education Commission in 2004 launched its exclusive language based project titled 'English Language Teaching Reforms (ELTR)'. This project aims at building the capacity of English Language Teachers in higher education sector in Pakistan for effective and sustainable development. The project is part of the overall vision of prospective plan 2020, and pertains to human resource development in English Language Teaching and research in Higher Education. After the successful phase I, which catered 1398 teachers of colleges and universities, the ELTR launched its Phase II in 2010. The initial target was of professional training of 1400 ELT teachers through its Long and Short Term professional development programs.

Objectives:

- To impart professional development training to English Language and Literature Teaching faculty in higher education institutions through long and short term training programs.
- To enhance the research capacity of English faculty by providing support through research training programmes.
- To help integrate information technology with ELT by training English faculty to develop expertise in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and setting up of Self Access Centres (SAC) in public sector universities.
- To train English faculty to meet the demands of on-going assessments in semester systems by developing their expertise in designing and conducting latest testing techniques.
- To organize visits of International Experts for sharing different learning and assessment models for a suitable model for education system in Pakistan.

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Lesson-06

GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Topic-026: What is Grammar Translation Method?

Methods and approaches may differ in their theoretical background, their focus and goals, views on teacher and learner roles, typical techniques and forms of interaction, attitude to errors and use of mother tongue, role of instructional materials, etc. Each of them has its own **strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats** (SWOT).

In fact, the grammar–translation method is a method of teaching foreign languages derived from the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching Greek and Latin. It is aimed at analyzing and studying the grammatical rules of language, usually in an order roughly matching the traditional order of the grammar of Latin, and then to practice manipulating grammatical structures through the means of translating both into and from the mother tongue. The method is very much based on the written word and texts are widely in evidence.

- A typical procedure is to present the rules of a particular grammar item.
- Then to illustrate its use including the item several times in a text.
- And practice using the item through writing sentences and translating it into the mother tongue.

In grammar–translation classes, students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules by translating sentences between the target language and the native language. Advanced students may be required to translate whole texts word-for-word.

The method has two main goals: to enable students to read and translate literature written in the source language, and to further students' general intellectual development.

- The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use language for communication.
- GTM does not focus on context so communication skills of learners remain poor.

Topic-027: Strengths of Grammar Translation Method

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

The users of foreign language wanted simply to note things of their interest in the literature of foreign languages. Therefore, this method focuses on reading and writing and has developed techniques which facilitate more or less the learning of reading and writing only.

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Strengths of Grammar Translation Method include:

- Forming good academic knowledge of the target language
- Training grammar accuracy
- Developing students‘ memory

Topic-028: Weaknesses of Grammar Translation Method

- Grammar–translation classes are usually conducted in the students' native language.
- Grammar rules are learned deductively.
- Students learn grammar rules by rote.
- Then practice the rules by doing grammar drills and translating sentences to and from the target language.
- As a result, speaking and listening are overlooked.
- More attention is paid to the form of the sentences being translated than to their content.
- Tests often consist of the translation of classical texts.
- There is no usual listening or speaking practice, and very little attention is placed on pronunciation.
- There is usually no practice in communicative activities.
- Communicative aspects of the language are ignored.
- The skill exercised is reading, and then only in the context of translation.
- The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use language for communication.

Weakness of GTM lies in:

- the lack of using language for communicative purposes
- lack of development of communicative skills
- little, if any, experience of speaking and listening

Topic-029: Grammar Translation Method: Opportunities and Threats

Students and educators alike often describe GTM as “inefficient,” “incompetent” and “tedious.” The consequences are:

- It doesn’t sound very motivating for a learner.
- It doesn’t sound trustworthy for a teacher.
- The mainstay of classroom materials for the grammar–translation method is the textbook.
- Textbooks in the 19th century attempted to codify the grammar of the target language into discrete rules for students to learn and memorize.
- A chapter in a typical grammar–translation textbook would begin with a bilingual vocabulary list, after which there would be grammar rules for students to study and sentences for them to translate.

As an example of a typical sentence from 19th-century textbooks:
The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen.

Grammar:

It is at the forefront of this language learning method. Grammatical analysis, morphology and syntax are closely studied and students are drilled over and over. Classes are conducted in the students' native tongue. Another go-to material of the grammar-translation method is the **vocabulary word list**. We all know what it looks like: one column of words is written in the target language and the second column is in English, with a "=" between them.

Scope:

The method, by definition has a very limited scope. Because speaking or any kind of spontaneous creative output was missing from the curriculum, students would often fail at speaking or even letter writing in the target language. Bahlsen, who was a student of Plötz, a major proponent of this method in the 19th century asserts:

- In commenting about writing letters or speaking, he said he would be overcome with "a veritable forest of paragraphs, and an impenetrable thicket of grammatical rules".
- Grammar–translation has been rejected as a legitimate language teaching method by modern scholars
- Grammar-Translation Method is still widely practiced, and has no advocates.
- It is a method for which there is no theory.
- There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory.
- It would really be very difficult for students to make serious headway with any language, using any technique/method, if they did not at first, at the very least, have a basic vocabulary on which to build.
- Granted, the presentation of vocabulary can do with some major overhauls from the olden days: instead of a dry word list, vocabulary can be presented with pictures of the actual objects in full color.
- The good thing about grammar rules is that they can be applied to a whole array of contexts and situations. So one thing you can do, for example, is **to give your students a "cheat sheet" for grammar rules** (one cheat sheet per grammar topic).
- It supports that all-important reading skill

Opportunities:

It gives students opportunities to read classical literature and have some knowledge of history of the country. Besides, it provides translation practice.
Threats of the approach are first of all in demotivating learners with boring, mechanical exercises where meaning is not important but an accurate form is a must.

Topic-030: Grammar Translation Method in Pakistan

Following are the important aspects of this session:

- What is GTM?
- Origin and current status
- Use of GTM in Pakistani schools
- Medium of instruction
- Streams of education
- Public vs. private
- Matriculation vs. O'levels
- Practices in a typical Pakistani classroom
- Nature of lesson
- Role of the teacher
- Role of the students
- GTM and teacher training
- GTM and examination system
- GMT and writing oriented examination system in Pakistan
- Nature of question papers/ assessment
- Consequent problems faced by students
- Spoken skills of students
- Lack of communicative competence
- Problems at under graduate and graduate levels
- Job market requirements

Lesson-07

THE DIRECT METHOD

Topic-031: What is the Direct Method?

By the end of the 19th century, the GTM as a method had failed to meet the requirements of time and society and the reaction to the failure was the creation of the Direct Method, which more stressed the ability to use rather than to analyze language as the goal of language instruction.

It was established in Germany and France around 1900 and contrasts with GMT and other traditional approaches, as well as with C. J. Dodson's bilingual method. It was adopted by key international language schools such as Berlitz and Inlingua in the 1970s and many of the language departments of the Foreign Service Institute of the U.S. State Department in 2012.

The proponents were opposed to teaching of formal grammar and aware that language learning was more than the learning of rules and the acquisition of translation skills. Spoken word was given primacy. Printed word must be kept away from the learner until s/he has good grasp of speech. Material was first presented orally with actions and pictures and mother tongue was never used. Culture was considered an important aspect of learning the language.

Aims of the Direct Method

- DMT aims to build a direct way into the world of the target language making a relation between experience and language, word and idea, thought and expression, and rule and performance.
- It intends for students to learn how to communicate in the target language.
- DMT believes that learners should experience the new language in the same way as he/she experienced his/her mother tongue without considering the existence of his/her mother tongue.

So DMT believes in:

- No translation
- Concepts are to be taught by means of objects or contexts.
- Oral training helps in reading and writing, listening and speaking simultaneously.
- Grammar is to be taught indirectly.

Ways to achieve all this includes the following:

- Question/answer exercises – the teacher asks questions of any type and the student answers.
- Dictation – the teacher chooses a grade-appropriate passage and reads it aloud.
- Reading aloud – the students take turn reading sections of a passage, play or a dialogue aloud.

- Self-correction – when a student makes a mistake, the teacher offers him/her a second chance by giving a choice.
- Conversation practice – the students are given an opportunity to ask questions to the other students.
- Paragraph writing – the students are asked to write a passage in their own words.

Topic-032: Strengths and Weaknesses of the Direct Method

Practical goals and immersion into foreign environment, together with focus on speaking and listening practice are the major strengths of the Direct Method. The greatest weaknesses are connected with an underestimated role of reading and writing and counterproductive prohibition of using mother tongue.

In the Direct method, there is a:

- Wide use of authentic materials.
- Presenting language items in dialogues rather than in isolation.
- Introducing natural order of skills presentation: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
- Both speech and listening comprehensions are taught.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized.
- Students are taught from inception to ask questions as well as to answer them.

As far as Weaknesses of the method are concerned, they include:

- Underestimated role of reading and writing.
- Counterproductive prohibition of using mother tongue.
- Overestimated role of mechanical drilling where meaning is often irrelevant.
- Lack of flexibility.

Topic-033: The Direct Method: Opportunities and Threats

Learners have opportunities to activate all channels of perception. Moreover, language acquisition is facilitated by enormous authentic input. Further opportunities include the following:

- Facilitates understanding of language
- Understanding of the target language becomes easier due to the inhibition of the linguistic interferences from the mother tongue
- It establishes bond between contexts
- Improves fluency of speech
- Aids reading – reading becomes more pleasant, and it also promotes a habit of critical studying
- Improves the development of language sense
- Full of activities, which make it interesting and exciting
- Emphasizes the target language by helping the pupil express their thoughts and feelings directly in target language

- Develops listening, speaking, reading and writing in a natural sequence
- Increases employment opportunities
- Helps in bringing words from passive vocabulary into active vocabulary
- Makes use of audio-visual aids and also facilitates reading and writing
- Facilitates alertness and participation of students

Threats:

Threats include the following:

- Lack of explicit rules lead to various misinterpretations and problems in creative use of language
- Time consuming drilling
- Ignores systematic written work and reading activities.
- Supports only limited vocabulary.
- Only the clever child can profit by this method.
- Needs skilled teachers
- Does not suit or satisfy the needs of individual students in large classes.
- Inconvenient in a huge class
- Ignores reading and writing aspects of language learning.

Topic-034: Direct Method and Pakistani Context

The direct method was an answer to the dissatisfaction with the older grammar translation method, which teaches students grammar and vocabulary through direct translations and thus focuses on the written language. However, in Pakistan, GMT is still widely used. The Direct Method is used in a very restricted sense. However, we need to consider the nature and degree of practices in different streams of education in Pakistan so the case of the use of DTM is different in public sector and private sector.
As far as the future use or way forward is concerned, possibilities of using Direct Method are there, but there is a need for proper teacher training in this regard.

Topic-035: Direct Method Sample Activities

Here are some samples and key points to do activities:
Key Aspects of this method:

1. **SHOW**
   - Point to Visual Aid or Gestures (for verbs), to ensure student clearly understands what is being taught.

2. **SAY**
   - Teacher verbally introduces Element, with care and enunciation.

3. **TRY**

- Student makes various attempts to pronounce new Element.

4. **MOLD**
   - Teacher corrects student if necessary, pointing to mouth to show proper shaping of lips, tongue and relationship to teeth.

5. **REPEAT**
   - Student repeats each Element 5-20 times.
   - Introducing the correct location of new Element in sentence.

6. **SAY & REPEAT**
   - Teacher states a phrase or sentence to students
   - Student repeats 5-15 times.

7. **ASK & REPLY IN NEGATIVE**
   - Teacher uses Element in negative situations (e.g. "Are you the President of the United States?" or "Are you the teacher?"); Students says "No". If more advanced, may use the negative with "Not".

8. **INTERROGATIVES**
   - Teacher provides intuitive examples using 5 "w"s (Who, What, Where, Why, When) or How".
   - Use of random variations for practice

9. **PRONOUNS WITH VERBS**
   - Using visuals (such as photos or illustrations) or gestures, Teacher covers all pronouns.
   - Use of random variations for practice such as:
   - "Is Sara a woman?" or
   - "Are they from Japan?"

10. **STUDENT-LED LIMITS**
    - Teacher observes student carefully, to know when mental "saturation" point is reached.
    - This indicates students should not be taught more elements until another time.

11. **REVIEW**
    - Teacher keeps random, arbitrary sequencing.
    - If appropriate, teacher uses visuals, pointing quickly to each.
    - Employs different examples of Element that are easy to understand, changing country/city names, people names, and words that the student already knows.

12. **OBSERVATION and Notation**
    - Teacher maintains a student list of words/phrases that are most difficult for that student.
    - The list is called "Special Attention List".

Lesson-08

AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

Topic-036: Background of Audio-lingual Method

The emergence of the Audio-lingual Method resulted from the increased attention given to foreign language teaching in the United States toward the end of the 1950s. The need for a radical change and rethinking of foreign language teaching methodology (most of which was still linked to the Reading Method) was prompted by the launch of the first Russian satellite in 1957.

The U.S. government acknowledged the need for a more intensive effort to teach foreign languages in order to prevent Americans from becoming isolated from scientific advances made in other countries. The National Defense Education Act (1958), among other measures, provided funds for the study and analysis of modern languages, for the development of teaching materials, and for the training of teachers. Teachers were encouraged to attend summer institutes to improve their knowledge of foreign languages and to learn the principles of linguistics and the new linguistically based teaching methods. Language teaching specialists set about developing a method that was applicable to conditions in U.S. colleges and university classrooms. They drew on the earlier experience of the army programs and the Aural-Oral or Structural Approach developed by Fries and his colleagues, adding insights taken from behaviorist psychology. This combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology led to the Audio-lingual Method. Audio-lingualism (the term was coined by Professor Nelson Brooks in 1964) claimed to have transformed language teaching from an art into a science, which would enable learners to achieve mastery of a foreign language effectively and efficiently. The method was widely adopted for teaching foreign languages in North American colleges and universities. It provided the methodological foundation for materials for the teaching of foreign languages at the college and university level in the United States and Canada, and its principles formed the basis of such widely used series as the Lado English Series (Lado 1977) and English 900 (English Language Services 1964). Although the method began to fall from favor in the late 1960s, Audio-lingualism and materials based on audio-lingual principles continue to be used today. Let us examine the features of the Audio-lingual Method at the levels of approach, design, and procedure.

Language teaching methods evolve and improve over time as their merits and demerits become more and more apparent with the accumulation of experience and experimentation, ultimately leading to the development of a new method with a new label. During the transitional time, when dissatisfaction with one method results in the gradual development of another, there will necessarily be overlapping tendencies. Therefore, a method in a later phase of its life may appear to be slightly different from what it was in an earlier phase. But still, in order to fully understand the fundamental characteristics of any given category of method and to differentiate it meaningfully from other categories, it is necessary to go back to the foundational texts that provide what may be called a canonical description of the theoretical principles and classroom procedures of a method that may prototypically represent the category to which it belongs. What is known as audio-lingual method, actually illustrates the essential characteristics of language-centered methods.

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Although audio-lingual method is considered to be "very much an American method" (Ellis, 1990, p. 21), some of its basics can be traced to almost simultaneous developments in Britain and the United States. Toward the second half of the 20th century, British applied linguists such as Hornby, Palmer, and West developed principles and procedures of what came to be called the structural–situational method. It primarily centered on the triple principles of selection, gradation, and presentation. Selection deals with the choice of lexical and grammatical content, gradation with the organization and sequencing of content, and presentation with the aims and activities of classroom teaching. As early as 1936, Palmer, West, and their associates selected and graded a vocabulary list, which was later revised by West and published in 1953 with the title, A General Service List of English Words. The list consisted of a core vocabulary of about 2,000 words selected on the basis of such criteria as frequency, usefulness, and productivity and graded for complexity. Likewise, Palmer and Hornby attempted to classify major grammatical structures into sentence patterns and also sought to introduce them in situational dialogues. Hornby's book, 'A Guide to Patterns and Usage of English', published in 1954 became a standard reference book of basic English sentence patterns for textbook writers and classroom teachers.

As the British applied linguists were engaged in developing the structural–situational method, their American counterparts were called upon by their government, already drawn into World War II, to devise effective, short term, intensive courses to teach conversational skills in German, French, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, and other languages to army personnel who could work as interpreters, code-room assistants, and translators. In response, American applied linguists established what was called Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP), which moved away from the prevailing reading/writing-oriented instruction to one that emphasized listening and speaking. After the war and by the mid-1950s, the program evolved into a full-fledged audiolingual method of teaching, and quickly became the predominant American approach to teaching English as a second language.

A series of foundational texts published in the 1960s by American scholars provided the much needed pedagogic resources for language-centered methods. In an influential book titled 'Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice', Brooks (1960) offered a comprehensive treatment of the audio-lingual method. This was followed by Fries and Fries (1961), whose 'Foundations of English Teaching' presented a corpus of structural and lexical items selected and graded into three proficiency levels—beginning, intermediate, and advanced. The corpus also included suggestions for designing contextual dialogues in which the structural and lexical items could be incorporated. Yet another seminal book, 'Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach', by Lado (1964) provided further impetus for the spread of the audio-lingual method. Appearing in the same year was a widely acclaimed critical commentary on the audio-lingual method titled 'The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher', by Rivers (1964). Although the British structural–situational method focused on the situational context and the functional content of language more than the American audio-lingual method did. Similarities between both methods are quite striking.

Part of the reason is that linguists on both sides of the Atlantic were influenced by the tenets of structural linguistics and behavioral psychology. In view of that common ground, here is a combination of two traditions under one widely used label, audio-lingual method, and its theoretical principles and classroom procedures.

Topic-037: Theoretical Principles Behind Audio-lingual Method

The fundamental principles of language-centered pedagogy are drawn from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology. These two schools of thought from sister disciplines have informed the theory of language, language learning, language teaching, and curricular specifications of language-centered pedagogy. Audio-lingual method is also informed by the same.

Theory of Language

Language-centered pedagogists believed in the theory of language proposed and propagated by the American structural linguists during the 1950s. Structural linguists treated language as a system of systems consisting of several hierarchically linked building blocks: phonemes, morphemes, phrases, clauses, and sentences, each with its own internal structure. These subsystems of language were thought to be linearly connected in a structured, systematic, and rule-governed way; that is, certain phonemes systematically cluster together to form a morpheme, certain morphemes systematically cluster together to form a phrase, and so forth. Secondly, structural linguists viewed language as aural–oral, thus emphasizing listening and speaking. Speech was considered primary, forming the very basis of language. Structure was viewed as being at the heart of speech. Thirdly, every language was looked upon as unique, each having a finite number of structural patterns. Each structure can be analyzed, described, systematized, and graded, and by implication, can be learned and taught by taking a similar discrete path. Structural linguists rejected the views of traditional grammarians, who depended on philosophical and mentalistic approaches to the study of language.

Instead, structuralists claimed to derive their view of language through a positivist and empiricist approach. It was thought that a scientific approach to the study of language would help identify the structural patterns of language in a more rigorous way. Such an emphasis on scientific methods of linguistic analysis dovetailed well with the views of behavioral psychologists whose anti-mentalist views of human learning informed the audio-lingual theory of language learning.

Theory of Language Learning

Language-centered pedagogists (and thus the proponents of Audio-lingual method) derived their theory of language learning from behaviorism, a school of American psychology which was popular during the 1950s and ’60s. Like structural linguists, behavioral psychologists too were skeptical about mentalism and rejected any explanation of human behavior in terms of emotive feelings or mental processes. They sought a scientifically based approach for analyzing and understanding human behavior.

For them, human behavior can be reduced to a series of stimuli that trigger a series of corresponding responses. Consequently, they looked at all learning as a simple mechanism of stimulus, response, and reinforcement.

Experience is the basis of all learning, and all learning outcomes can be observed and measured in the changes that occur in behavior. Given their belief that all learning is governed by stimulus–

response–reinforcement mechanisms, behaviorists did not make any distinction between general learning and language learning. Their theory of language learning can be summed up in a series of assumptions they made:

- First and foremost, learning to speak a language is the same as learning to ride a bicycle or drive a car. Language learning, then, is no different from the learning of other school subjects like math or science. It is no more than a systematic accumulation of consciously collected discrete pieces of knowledge gained through repeated exposure, practice, and application. This is a central belief that logically leads to all other assumptions of varying importance.

- Second, language learning is just a process of mechanical habit formation through repetition. Forming a habit, in the context of language learning, is described as developing the ability to perform a particular linguistic feature such as a sound, a word, or a grammatical item automatically, that is, without paying conscious attention to it. Such a habit can be formed only through repeated practice aided by positive reinforcement. Bloomfield (1942), a prominent structural linguist, in his Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Language, articulated the structuralists' view of language learning very succinctly: "The command of a language is a matter of practice, practice everything until it becomes second nature" (p. 16). He also emphasized that "Language learning is overlearning: Anything else is of no use" (p. 12).

- Third, habit formation takes place by means of analogy rather than analysis. Analysis involves problem solving, whereas analogy involves the perception of similarities and differences. In the context of language learning, this means an inductive approach, in which learners themselves identify the underlying structure of a pattern, is preferable to a deductive approach. Pattern practice, therefore, is an important tool of language learning.

- Fourth, language learning is a linear, incremental, additive process. That is, it entails mastering of one discrete item at a time, moving to the next only after the previous one has been fully mastered. It also involves gradually adding one building block after another, thus accumulating, in due course, all the linguistic elements that are combined to form the totality of a language. Because speech is primary, discrete items of language can be learned effectively if they are presented in spoken form before they are seen in the written form.

- Finally, discrete items of language should be introduced in carefully constructed dialogues embedded in a carefully selected linguistic and cultural context. Language should not be separated from culture, and words should be incorporated in a matrix of references to the culture of the target language community.

These fundamental assumptions about language learning deeply influenced the theory of language teaching adopted by language-centered pedagogists and in turn, Audio-lingua method in language teaching.

Theory of Language Teaching

Audio-lingual theory of language teaching is, in fact, a mirror image of its theory of language learning. Because learning a language is considered to involve forming habits in order to assimilate and use a hierarchical system of systems, language teaching is nothing more than a planned presentation of those (sub) systems combined with provision of opportunities for repetition.

The purpose of teaching, therefore, is two-fold: In the initial stage, the teacher, using a textbook, serves as a model providing samples of linguistic input, and then in the later stage, acts as a skillful manipulator of questions, commands, and other cues in order to elicit correct responses from the learner. Linguistic input is, of course, presented in the form of dialogues because they involve a natural and exclusive use of the audio-lingual skills. All the elements of the sound-system appear repeatedly, including the suprasegmental phonemes, which are often the most difficult for the learner. All that is learned is meaningful, and what is learned in one part of a dialogue often makes meaning clear in another. (Brooks, 1964, p. 145)

Given the preference of analogy over analysis, pattern practice was considered to be the most important aspect of teaching, because it "capitalizes on the mind's capacity to perceive identity of structure where there is difference in content and its quickness to learn by analogy" (Brooks, 1964, p. 146). Besides, teaching the basic patterns help the learner's performance become habitual and automatic. The teacher's major task is to drill the basic patterns. Learners "require drill, drill, and more drill, and only enough vocabulary to make such drills possible" (Hockett, 1959). During the process of drilling, the learners should be carefully guided through a series of carefully designed exercises, thereby eliminating the possibility for making errors. As the learners are helped to perform the drills, they are supposed to inductively learn the grammatical structure being practiced. Language-centered pedagogists drew heavily from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology in order to conceptualize their principles of language teaching. And, in tune with the spirit that prevailed in these two disciplines at that time, they dubbed their approach to language teaching "scientific," as reflected in the title of Lado's 1964 book, mentioned earlier.

Approach - Theory of Language Underlying Audio-lingualism

The theory of language underlying Audio-lingualism was derived from a view proposed by the American linguists in the 1950s - a view that came to be known as structural linguistics. Linguistics had emerged as a flourishing academic discipline in the 1950s, and the structural theory of language constituted its backbone. Structural linguistics had developed in part as a reaction to traditional grammar. Traditional approaches to the study of language had linked the study of language to philosophy and to a mentalist approach to grammar. Grammar was considered a branch of logic, and the grammatical categories of Indo-European languages were thought to represent ideal categories in languages. Many nineteenth-century language scholars had viewed modern European languages as corruption of classical grammar, and languages from other parts of the world were viewed as primitive and underdeveloped.

The reaction against traditional grammar was prompted by the movement toward positivism and empiricism, which Darwin's 'On the Origin of Species' had helped promote, and by an increased

interest in non-European languages on the part of scholars, a more practical interest in language study emerged. As linguists discovered new sound types and new patterns of linguistic invention and organization, a new interest in phonetics, phonology, morphology, and syntax developed. By the 1930s, the scientific approach to the study of language was thought to consist of collecting examples of what speakers said and analyzing them according to different levels of structural organization rather than categories of Latin grammar. A sophisticated methodology for collecting and analyzing data developed, which involved transcribing spoken utterances in a language phonetically and later working out the phonemic, morphological (stems, prefixes, suffixes, etc.), and syntactic (phrases, clauses, sentence types) systems underlying the grammar of the language. Language was viewed as a system of structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning, the elements being phonemes, morphemes, words, structures, and sentence types. The term structural referred to these characteristics: (a) Elements in a language were thought of as being linearly produced in a rule-governed (structured) way; (b) Language samples could be exhaustively described at any structural level of description (phonetic, phonemic, morphological, etc.); (c) Linguistic levels were thought of as systems within systems that is, as being pyramidally structured; phonemic systems led to morphemic systems, and these in turn led to the higher-level systems of phrases, clauses, and sentences. Learning a language, it was assumed, entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence. The phonological system defines those sound elements that contrast meaningfully with one another in the language (phonemes), their phonetic realizations in specific environments (allophones), and their permissible sequences (phonotactics). The phonological and grammatical systems of the language constitute the organization of language and by implication the units of production and comprehension. The grammatical system consists of a listing of grammatical elements and rules for their linear combination into words, phrases, and sentences. Rule-ordered processes involve addition, deletion, and transposition of elements.

An important tenet of structural linguistics was that the primary medium of language is oral: Speech is language. Since many languages do not have a written form and we learn to speak before we learn to read or write, it was argued that language is "primarily what is spoken and only secondarily what is written" (Brooks 1964). Therefore, it was assumed that speech had a priority in language teaching. This was contrary to popular views of the relationship of the spoken and written forms of language, since it had been widely assumed that language existed principally as symbols written on paper, and that spoken language was an imperfect realization of the pure written version.

This scientific approach to language analysis appeared to offer the foundations for a scientific approach to language teaching. In 1961, the American linguist William Moulton, in a report prepared for the 9th International Congress of Linguists, proclaimed the linguistic principles on which language teaching methodology should be based: "Language is speech, not writing. A language is a set of habits.... Teach the language, not about the language.... A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.... Languages are different" (quoted in Rivers 1964: 5). But a method cannot be based simply on a theory of language. It also needs to refer to the psychology of learning and to learning theory. It is to this aspect of Audio-lingualism that we now turn.

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Theory of Learning of Audio-lingualism

The language teaching theoreticians and methodologists who developed Audio-lingualism not only had a convincing and powerful theory of language to draw upon but they were also working in a period when a prominent school of American psychology - known as behavioral psychology - claimed to have tapped the secrets of all human learning, including language learning. Behaviorism, like structural linguistics, is another anti-mentalist, empirically based approach to the study of human behavior. To the behaviorist, the human being is an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviors. The occurrence of these behaviors is dependent on three crucial elements in learning: a stimulus, which serves to elicit behavior; a response triggered by a stimulus; and reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression), of the response in the future (see Skinner 1957; Brown 1980). Reinforcement is a vital element in the learning process, because it increases the likelihood that the behavior will occur again and eventually become a habit. To apply this theory to language learning is to identify the organism as the foreign language learner; the behavior as verbal behavior; the stimulus as what is taught or presented of the foreign language; the response as the learner's reaction to the stimulus; and the reinforcement as the extrinsic approval and praise of the teacher or fellow students or the intrinsic self-satisfaction of target language use. Language mastery is represented as acquiring a set of appropriate language stimulus-response chains.

The descriptive practices of structural linguists suggested a number of hypotheses about language learning, and hence about language teaching as well. For example, since linguists normally described languages beginning with the phonological level and finishing with the sentence level, it was assumed that this was also the appropriate sequence for learning and teaching. Since speech was now held to be primary and writing secondary, it was assumed that language teaching should focus on mastery of speech and that writing or even written prompts should be withheld until reasonably late in the language learning process. Since the structure is, what is important and unique about a language, early practice` should focus on mastery of phonological and grammatical structures rather than on mastery of vocabulary.

Out of these various influences emerged a number of learning principles, which became the psychological foundations of Audio-lingualism and came to shape its methodological practices. Among the more central are the following:

1. Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills, the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behavior - that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.

2. Language skills are learned more effectively if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other language skills.

3. Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalization and discrimination. Explanations of rules are not given, until, students have practiced a pattern in a variety of contexts and are thought to have acquired a perception of the analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence, the approach to the teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.

4. The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language. (Rivers 1964: 19-22)

In advocating these principles, proponents of Audio-lingualism were drawing on the theory of a well-developed school of American psychology - behaviorism. The prominent Harvard behaviorist B. F. Skinner had elaborated a theory of learning applicable to language learning in his influential book 'Verbal Behavior' (1957), in which he stated, "We have no reason to assume that verbal behavior differs in any fundamental respect from non-verbal behavior, or that any new principles must be invoked to account for it" (1957, p. 10). Armed with a powerful theory of the nature of language and of language learning, audio-lingualists could now turn to the design of language teaching courses and materials.

Topic-038: Contents in Audio-lingual Method

Language-centered methods adhere to the synthetic approach to syllabus design in which the content of learning and teaching is defined in terms of discrete items of grammatical and lexical forms of language that are presented to the learners (see chap. 3, this volume, for details). In other words, linguistic forms constitute the organizing principle for syllabus construction.

Drawing from the available inventory of linguistic forms compiled by grammarians through standard linguistic analyses, the syllabus designer selects and sequences the phonological, lexical, and grammatical elements of the language that can be included in graded textbooks used for classroom teaching. The teacher presents the elements of language forms (in terms of nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, relative clauses, subordinate clauses, etc.) one by one to the learners, who are then supposed to put them together to figure out the totality of the language system. The primary task of the learner is to synthesize the discrete items of language in order to develop adequate knowledge/ability in the language.

Selection and gradation, that is, what items to select and in what sequence to present them are two challenges facing the syllabus designer. Language-centered pedagogists implicitly followed the frequency, range, and availability criteria for selection identified by Mackey (1965). Recall that frequency refers to the items that the learners are likely to encounter most, whereas range refers to the spread of an item across texts or contexts. Frequency relates to where the item is used, by whom, and for what purposes. Availability is determined by the degree to which an item is necessary and appropriate. Similarly, for gradation purposes, language centered pedagogists followed the criteria of complexity, regularity, and productivity (cf. chap. 3, this volume). Recall that the first principle deals with a movement from the easy to the difficult, the second from the regular to the irregular, and the

third from the more useful to the less useful. Although the principles of selection and gradation have been found to be useful for organizing language input presented to the learner in a classroom context, critics have been skeptical about the rationale governing the principles. It is difficult to establish usable criteria for selection and gradation that are pedagogically and psychologically sound. As Corder (1973) rightly observed, "we simply do not know to what extent linguistic categories have psychological reality, and therefore, to what extent logical linguistic sequencing of items in a syllabus is psychologically logical, and therefore the optimum ordering from a learning point of view" (p. 308). The paradox, however, is that "in spite of doubts about the feasibility of a sequential arrangement, the grammar of a language cannot be taught all at once. Some sort of selection and sequencing is needed, and therefore, a grammatical syllabus must be provided" (Stern, 1992, pp. 139–140). In order to address this imperative, language-centered pedagogists posited what they considered to be a reasonable and workable set of criteria.

This section on the theoretical principles briefly dealt with the conceptual underpinnings of language, language learning, language teaching, and curricular specifications of language-centered methods. As we will see, these theoretical beliefs are very much reflected in the classroom procedures that practicing teachers are advised to follow.

Topic-039: Objectives, Syllabus and Classroom Procedures in Audio-lingual Method

Objectives

Brooks distinguishes between short-range and long-range objectives of an audio-lingual program. Short-range objectives include training in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, recognition of speech symbols as graphic signs on the printed page, and ability to reproduce these symbols in writing (Brooks 1964, p. 111). "These immediate objectives imply three others: first, control of the structures of sound, form, and order in the new language; second, acquaintance with vocabulary items that bring content into these structures; and third, meaning, in terms of the significance these verbal symbols have for those who speak the language natively" (Brooks 1964: 113). Long-range objectives "must be language as the native speaker uses it.... There must be some knowledge of a second language as it is possessed by a true bilingualist" (Brooks 1964, p. 107).

In practice, this means that the focus in the early stages is on oral skills, with gradual links to other skills as learning develops. Oral proficiency is equated with accurate pronunciation and grammar and the ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations. The teaching of listening comprehension, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary are all related to development of oral fluency. Reading and writing skills may be taught, but they are dependent on prior oral skills. Language is primarily speech in audio-lingual theory, but speaking skills are themselves dependent on the ability to accurately perceive and produce the major phonological features of the target language.

The Syllabus

Audio-lingualism is a linguistic or structure-based approach to language teaching where the starting point is a linguistic syllabus, which contains the key items of phonology, morphology, and syntax of the language arranged according to their order of presentation. These may have been derived in part from a contrastive analysis of the differences between the native language and the target language, since these differences are thought to be the cause of the major difficulties the learner will encounter. In addition, a lexical syllabus of basic vocabulary items is usually specified in advance. In 'Foundations for English Teaching' (Fries and Fries 1961), for example, a corpus of structural and lexical items graded into three levels is proposed, together with suggestions as to the situations that could be used to contextualize them.

The language skills are taught in the order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening is viewed largely as training in aural discrimination of basic sound patterns. The language may be presented entirely orally at first; written representations are usually withheld from learners in early stages.

The learner's activities must at first be confined to the audio-lingual and gestural-visual bands of language behavior. Recognition and discrimination are followed by imitation, repetition and memorization. Only when one is thoroughly familiar with sounds, arrangements, and forms, do they center their attention on enlarging their vocabulary and concentrate upon gaining accuracy before striving for fluency. (Brooks 1964, p. 50)

When reading and writing are introduced, students are taught to read and write what they have already learned to say orally. An attempt is made to minimize the possibilities for making mistakes in both speaking and writing by using a tightly structured approach to the presentation of new language items. At more advanced levels, more complex reading and writing tasks may be introduced.

Procedure

Since Audio-lingualism is primarily an oral approach to language teaching, it is not surprising that the process of teaching involves extensive oral instruction. The focus of instruction is on immediate and accurate speech; there is little provision for grammatical explanation or talking about the language. As far as possible, the target language is used as a medium of instruction, and translation or use of the native language is discouraged. Classes of ten or fewer are considered optimal, although larger classes are often the norm. Brooks enlists the following procedures that the teacher should adopt in using the Audio-lingual Method:

- The modeling of all learning by the teacher.
- The subordination of the mother tongue to the second language by rendering
- English is inactive while the new language is being learned.
- The early and continued training of the ear and tongue without recourse to graphic symbols.

- The learning of structure through the practice of patterns of sound, order, and form, rather than by explanation.
- The gradual substitution of graphic symbols for sounds after sounds is thoroughly known.
- The summarizing of the main principles of structure for the student's use when the structures are already familiar, especially when they differ from those of the mother tongue.

The shortening of the time span between a performance and the pronouncement enhances the factor of reinforcement in learning. It minimizes the vocabulary until all common structures have been learned and it puts the study of vocabulary only in context. Further, he suggests that 'sustained practice in the use of the language only in the molecular form of speaker-hearer-situation' and practice in translation is only used as a literary exercise at an advanced level. (Brooks 1964, p. 142)

In a typical audio-lingual lesson, the following procedures would be observed:

1. Students first hear a model dialogue (either read by the teacher or on tape) containing the key structures that are the focus of the lesson. They repeat each line of the dialogue, individually and in chorus. The teacher pays attention to pronunciation, intonation, and fluency. Correction of mistakes of pronunciation or grammar is direct and immediate. The dialogue is memorized gradually, line by line. A line may be broken down into several phrases if necessary. The dialogue is read aloud in chorus, one half saying one speaker's part and the other half responding. The students do not consult their book throughout this phase.
2. The dialogue is adapted to the students' interest or situation through changing certain key words or phrases. This is acted out by the students.
3. Certain key structures from the dialogue are selected and used as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds. These are first practiced in chorus and then individually. Some grammatical explanation may be offered at this point, but this is kept to an absolute minimum.
4. The students may refer to their textbook and follow-up reading, writing, or vocabulary activities based on the dialogue. At the beginning level, writing is purely imitative and consists of a little more than copying out sentences that have been practiced. As proficiency increases, students may write out variations of structural items they have practiced or write short compositions on given topics with the help of framing questions, which will guide their use of the language.
5. Follow-up activities may take place in the language laboratory, where further dialogue and drill work is carried out.

The aims and activities of any language teaching method can be analyzed and understood, in part, by studying the input and interactional modifications that the teachers are advised to carry out for promoting desired learning outcomes in the classroom (see chap. 3, this volume, for details). In the following sections, we consider the nature and relevance of input and interactional modifications with reference to language-centered methods.

Input Modifications

Audio-lingual method adheres almost exclusively to form-based input modifications. The other two types (i.e., meaning-based and form-and-meaning based input) rarely figure in language-

centered methods including audio-lingual method because linguistic form has been the driving force behind their learning and teaching operations, and the idea of negotiated meaning in a communicative context was not of any considerable importance.

Language-centered pedagogists believe that form-based input modifications are not only necessary but also sufficient for the development of linguistic as well as pragmatic knowledge/ability in the L2. For them, manipulating input entails selecting grammatical items, grading them in a principled fashion, and making them salient for the learner through a predominantly teacher-fronted instruction that explicitly draws the learner's attention to grammar. Such form-focused instruction is coupled with clear explanation and conscious error correction.

The grammatical items of the target language are introduced to the learners mostly through structural patterns. In a popular handbook of the times, Paulston and Bruder (1975) provided a comprehensive, 145-page long index of structural patterns arranged in alphabetical order.

Place and Time of Expressions

For purposes of teaching and testing, linguistic forms such as the two just shown, Paulston and Bruder suggested three types of drills: mechanical, meaningful, and communicative. As the following examples indicate, mechanical drills are automatic manipulative patterns aimed at habit formation.

The learner response is fully controlled and there is only one correct way of responding. Meaningful drills have the same objective of mechanical habit formation, but the responses may be correctly expressed in more than one way. Communicative drills are supposed to help learners transfer structural patterns to appropriate communicative situations; but in reality, it is still "a drill rather than free communication because we are still within the realm of the cue-response pattern" (Paulston & Bruder, 1975, p. 15).

Paulston and Bruder also give examples of what kind of linguistic input that will be provided by the teacher in a classroom context. The linguistic input exposed to the learners in the classroom is all carefully controlled. However, the use of such a carefully engineered and exclusively grammar-oriented language input cannot but limit the nature and scope of interaction in the classroom.

Interactional Activities

The interactional activities of teachers and learners in a typical audio-lingual classroom are characterized in terms of three Ps—presentation, practice, and production. At the presentation stage, the already selected and graded linguistic items are introduced through a carefully constructed dialogue that contains several examples of the new items. The dialogue may also provide, if set in a specific sociocultural context, new insights into the culture of the target language community. Learners hear the tape recording of the model dialogue (or hear a reading of it by their teacher), repeat each line, and sometimes act out the dialogue. They are also encouraged to memorize the dialogue. At this stage, the learners are supposed to begin to grasp, mostly through analogy, how a

particular structure works. Where necessary, the teacher acts as the language informant, providing additional information or explanation about relevant grammatical rules.

At the second stage, the learners practice the new linguistic items through mechanical, meaningful, or communicative drills. The pattern practice consists of isolated, decontextualized sentences, with the same grammatical structure but different lexical items. They are also given substitution tables (see examples to come) which help them see the pattern governing the grammatical structure involved. As Chastain (1971) correctly observed, during this whole process of drilling, the dialogue, the structures, and the students are carefully led in minimal steps through a series of exercises in which the possibility of error is almost eliminated, and the opportunity for practice is expanded to the fullest. The students are not supposed to analyze and search for answers, but to respond immediately to the stimulus of the teacher. (pp. 34–35)

The learners are then sent to language lab (if available) for further drills in sentence patterns as well as in stress, rhythm, and intonation. This is usually followed by exercises in reading and writing, which also involve the use of the grammar and vocabulary already familiarized. Thus, the language skills are presented and practiced in isolation and in rigid sequence: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

At the production stage, the learners are given the opportunity to role-play dialogues similar to the ones introduced in class or in the language lab. They are supposed to modify the language they have memorized in order to vary their production. They are also encouraged to talk about a selected topic in a carefully controlled context. Once all this is done, they are believed to have developed adequate linguistic and pragmatic knowledge/ability to use the newly learned language for communicative purposes outside the classroom. The assumption here is that they will be able to successfully transfer their linguistic knowledge of discrete items of grammar into communicative use in appropriate contexts, a questionable assumption that we revisit shortly.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

Dialogues and drills form the basis of audio-lingual classroom practices. Dialogues provide the means of contextualizing key structures and illustrate situations in which structures might be used as well as some cultural aspects of the target language. Dialogues are used for repetition and memorization. Correct pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation are emphasized. After a dialogue has been presented and memorized, specific grammatical patterns in the dialogue are selected and become the focus of various kinds of drill and pattern-practice exercises.

The use of drills and pattern practice is a distinctive feature of the Audio-lingual Method. Various kinds of drills are used. Brooks (1964, pp. 156-61) includes the following:

1. Repetition. The student repeats an utterance aloud as soon as he has heard it. He does this without looking at a printed text. The utterance must be brief enough to be retained by the ear. Sound is as important as form and order.

Examples

This is the seventh month. -This is the seventh month.
After a student has repeated an utterance, he may repeat it again and add a few words, then repeat that whole utterance and add more words.

Examples

I used to know him. -I used to know him.
I used to know him years ago. -I used to know him years ago when we were in school.

2. Inflection. One word in an utterance appears in another form when repeated.

Examples

I bought the ticket. -I bought the tickets.
He bought the candy. -She bought the candy.
I called the young man. -I called the young men.

3. Replacement. One word in an utterance is replaced by another.

Examples

He bought this house cheap. -He bought it cheap.
Helen left early. -She left early.
They gave their boss a watch. -They gave him a watch.

4. Restatement. The student rephrases an utterance and addresses it to someone else, according to instructions.

Examples

Tell him to wait for you. -Wait for me.
Ask her how old she is. -How old are you?
Ask John when he began. -John, when did you begin?

5. Completion. The student hears an utterance that is complete except for one word, and then repeats the utterance in completed form.

Examples

I'll go my way and you go... -I'll go my way and you go yours.
We all have . . . own troubles. -We all have our own troubles...

6. Transposition. A change in word order is necessary when a word is added.

Examples

I'm hungry. (so). -So am I.
I'll never do it again. (neither). -Neither will I...

7. Expansion. When a word is added it takes a certain place in the sequence.

Examples

I know him. (hardly). -I hardly know him.
I know him. (well). -I know him well...

8. Contraction. A single word stands for a phrase or clause.

Examples

Put your hand on the table. -Put your hand there.
They believe that the earth is flat. -They believe it

9. Transformation. A sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative or through changes in tense, mood, voice, aspect, or modality.

Examples

He knows my address.
He doesn't know my address.
Does he know my address?
He used to know my address.
If he had known my address.

10. Integration. Two separate utterances are integrated into one.

Examples

They must be honest. This is important. -It is important that they be honest.
I know that man. He is looking for you. -I know the man who is looking for you...

11. Rejoinder. The student makes an appropriate rejoinder to a given utterance. He is told in advance to respond in one of the following ways:

Be polite.
Answer the question.

Agree.
Agree emphatically.
Express surprise.
Express regret.
Disagree.
Disagree emphatically.
Question what is said.
Fail to understand.

Examples

Thank you. -You're welcome.
May I take one? -Certainly.
ANSWER THE QUESTION. EXAMPLES
What is your name? -My name is Smith.
Where did it happen? -In the middle of the street.

Agree. Examples

He's following us. -I think you're right.
This is good coffee. -It's very good...

12. Restoration. The student is given a sequence of words that have been culled from a sentence but still bear its basic meaning. He uses these words with a minimum of changes and additions to restore the sentence to its original form. He may be told whether the time is present, past, or future.

Examples

students/waiting/bus -The students are waiting for the bus.
boys/build/house/tree -The boys built a house in a tree...

Learner's Roles

Learners are viewed as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses. In accordance with behaviorist learning theory, teaching focuses on the external manifestations of learning rather than on the internal processes. Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, and thus have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning. They are not encouraged to initiate interaction, because this may lead to mistakes. The fact that in the early stages learners do not always understand the meaning of what they are repeating is not perceived as a drawback, for by listening to the teacher, imitating accurately, and responding to and performing controlled tasks, they are learning a new form of verbal behavior.

Teacher's Role

In Audio-lingualism, as in Situational Language Teaching, the teacher's role is central and active; it is a teacher-dominated method. The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects the learners' performance. The teacher must keep the learners attentive by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practice structures. Language learning is seen to result from active verbal interaction between the teacher and the learners. Brooks argues that the teacher must be trained to do the following:

Introduce, sustain, and harmonize the learning of the four skills in this order:

Hearing, speaking, reading and writing.
Use - and not use - English in the language classroom.

Model the various types of language behavior that the student is to learn. Teach spoken language in dialogue form.

- Direct choral response by all or parts of the class.
- Teach the use of structure through pattern practice.
- Guide the student in choosing and learning vocabulary.
- Show how words relate to meaning in the target language. Get the individual student to talk.
  - Reward trials by the student in such a way that learning is reinforced. Teach a short story and other literary forms.
- Establish and maintain 'a cultural island.

Formalize on the first day the rules according to which the language class is to be conducted, and enforce them. (Brooks 1964, p. 143)

The Role of Instructional Materials

Instructional materials in the Audio-lingual Method assist the teacher to develop language mastery in the learner. They are primarily teacher-oriented. A student textbook is often not used in the elementary phase of a course where students are primarily listening, repeating, and responding. At this stage in learning, exposure to the printed word may not be considered desirable, because it distracts attention from the aural input. The teacher, however, will have access to a teacher's book that contains the structured sequence of lessons to be followed and the dialogues, drills, and other practice activities. When textbooks and printed materials are introduced to the student, they provide the texts of dialogues and cues needed for drills and exercises.

Tape recorders and audiovisual equipment often have central role in an audio-lingual course. If the teacher is not a native speaker of the target language, the tape recorder provides accurate models for dialogues and drills. A language laboratory may also be considered essential. It provides the opportunity for further drill work and to receive controlled error-free practice of basic structures. It also adds variety by providing an alternative to classroom practice. A taped lesson may first present

a dialogue for listening practice, allow the student to repeat the sentences in the dialogue line by line, and provide follow-up fluency drills on grammar or pronunciation.

Topic-040: Decline of Audio-lingual Method: A Critical Assessment

Audio-lingualism reached its period of most widespread use in the 1960s and was applied to both the teaching of foreign languages in the United States and to the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. It led to such widely used courses as English 900 and the Lado English Series, as well as to texts for teaching the major European languages. But then came criticism on two-fronts. On the one hand, the theoretical foundations of Audio-lingualism were attacked as being unsound in terms of both language theory and learning theory. On the other hand, practitioners found that the practical results fell short of expectations. Students were often found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through Audio-lingualism to real communication outside the classroom, and many found the experience of studying through audio-lingual procedures to be boring and unsatisfying.

The theoretical attack on audio-lingual beliefs resulted from changes in American linguistic theory in the 1960s. The MIT linguist, Noam Chomsky rejected the structuralists' approach to language description as well as the behaviorist theory of language learning. "Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences, and patterns in accordance with the rules of great abstractness and intricacy." (Chomsky 1966, p. 153)

Chomsky's theory of transformational grammar proposed that the fundamental properties of language derive from innate aspects of the mind and from how humans process experience through language. His theories were to revolutionize American linguistics and focus the attention of linguists and psychologists on 'the mental properties people bring to bear on language use and language learning. Chomsky also proposed an alternative theory of language learning to that of the behaviorists. Behaviorism regarded language learning as similar in principle to any other kind of learning. It was subject to the same laws of stimulus and response, enforcement and association. Chomsky argued that such a learning theory could not possibly serve as a model of how humans learn language, since much of human language use is not imitated behavior but is created anew from underlying knowledge of abstract rules. Sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition, but "generated" from the learner's underlying "competence."

Suddenly the whole audio-lingual paradigm was called into question: pattern practice, drilling, memorization. These might lead to language- like behaviors, but they were not resulting in competence. This created a crisis in American language teaching circles from which a full recovery has not yet been made. Temporary relief was offered in the form of a theory derived in part from Chomsky - cognitive code learning. In 1966, John B. Carroll, a psychologist who had taken a close interest in foreign language teaching, wrote:

The audio-lingual habit theory which is so prevalent in American foreign language teaching was, perhaps fifteen years ago, in step with the stare of psychological thinking of that time, but it is no longer abreast of recent developments. It is ripe for major revision, particularly in the direction of

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joining it with some of the better elements of the cognitive-code learning theory. (Carroll 1966a, p. 10S)

This referred to a view of learning that allowed for a conscious focus on grammar and that acknowledged the role of abstract mental processes in learning rather than defining learning simply in terms of habit formation. Practice activities should involve meaningful learning and language use. Learners should be encouraged to use their innate and creative abilities to derive and make explicit the underlying grammatical rules of the language. For a time in the early 1970s, there was a considerable interest in the implication of the cognitive-code theory for language teaching (e.g., see Jakobovits 1970; Lugton 1971). But no clear-cut methodological guidelines emerged, nor did any particular method incorporating this view of learning. The term cognitive code is still sometimes invoked to refer to any conscious attempt to organize materials around a grammatical syllabus while allowing for meaningful practice and use of language. The lack of an alternative to Audio-lingualism led in the 1970s and 1980s to a period of adaptation, innovation, experimentation, and some confusion. Several alternative method proposals appeared in the 1970s that made no claims to any links with mainstream language teaching and second language acquisition research. These included Total Physical Response, the Silent Way, and Counseling-Learning. These methods attracted some interest at first but have not continued to attract significant levels of acceptance. Other proposals since then have reflected developments in general education and other fields outside the second language teaching community, such as Whole Language, Multiple Intelligences, Neurolinguistic Programming, Competency-Based Language Teaching, and Cooperative Language Learning. Mainstream language teaching since the 1980s, however, has generally drawn on contemporary theories of language and second language acquisition as a basis for teaching proposals. The Lexical Approach, Communicative Language Teaching, the 'Natural Approach, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Teaching are representative of this last group. The concern for grammatical accuracy that was a focus of Audio-lingualism has not disappeared; however, it continues to provide a challenge for contemporary applied linguistics (see Doughty and Williams 1998).

Conclusion

Audio-lingualism holds that language learning is like other forms of learning. Since language is a formal, rule-governed system, it can be formally organized to maximize teaching and learning efficiency. Audio-lingualism stresses the mechanistic aspects of language learning and language use. There are many similarities between Situational Language Teaching and Audio-lingualism. The order in which the language skills are introduced, and the focus on accuracy through drill and practice in the basic structures and sentence patterns of the target language, might suggest that these methods draw from each other. In fact, Situational Language Teaching was a development of the earlier Direct Method and does not have the strong ties to linguistics and behavioral psychology that characterize Audio-lingualism. The similarities of the two methods reflect similar views about the nature of language and of language learning, though these views were developed from quite different traditions.

Audio-lingual method represents a milestone in the annals of language teaching for one good reason: Unlike earlier methods (such as Grammar-Translation method), it was based on well-

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articulated and well-coordinated theories of language, language learning, and language teaching, prompting its proponents to call it a "scientific" method. Although, the method can hardly be called scientific in the normal sense of the term, there is no doubt that its proponents adhered to a highly rational view of learning and advocated a highly systematic way of teaching, both derived from the linguistic and psychological knowledge-base available at that time.

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Lesson-09

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE METHOD

Topic-041: Background of Total Physical Response Method

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925. In a developmental sense, Asher sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child's first language acquisition. He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. He feels that adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their native language. Asher shares with the school of humanistic psychology a concern for the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning. A method that is undemanding in terms of linguistic production and that involves game-like movements reduces learner stress, he believes, and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning.

Topic-042: Approach & Theory behind Total Physical Response Method

TPR reflects a grammar-based view of language. Asher states that "most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperative by the instructor" 1977, p. 4). He views the verb and particularly the verb in the imperative, as the central linguistic motif around which language use and learning are organized. Asher sees a stimulus-response view as providing the learning theory underlying language teaching pedagogy. TPR can also be linked to the "trace theory" of memory in psychology (e.g., Katona 1940), which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, increase the possibility of successful recall.

In addition, Asher has elaborated an account of what he feels facilitates or inhibits foreign language learning. For this dimension of his learning theory, he draws on three rather influential learning hypotheses:

- There exists a specific innate bio-program for language learning, which defines an optimal path for first and second language development.
- Brain lateralization defines different learning functions in the left- and right-brain hemispheres.
- Stress (an affective filter) intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned; the lower the stress, the greater the learning.

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Let us consider how Asher views each of these in turn.

The Bio-Program

Asher's Total Physical Response is a "Natural Method", in as much as Asher sees first and second language learning as parallel processes. Asher sees three processes as central:

- Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak. At the early stages of first language acquisition, they can understand complex utterances that they cannot spontaneously produce or imitate.
- Children's ability in listening comprehension is acquired because children are required to respond physically to spoken language in the form of parental commands.
- Once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, speech evolves naturally and effortlessly out of it.
- Parallel to the processes of first language learning, the foreign language learner should first internalize a "cognitive map" of the target language through listening exercises. Listening should be accompanied by physical movement. Speech and other productive skills should come later. Asher bases these assumptions on his belief in the existence in the human brain of a bio-program for language, which defines an optimal order for first and second language learning.

A reasonable hypothesis is that the brain and nervous system are biologically programmed to acquire language in a particular sequence and in a particular mode. The sequence is listening before speaking and the mode is to synchronize language with the individual's body. (Asher 1977, p. 4)

Brain lateralization

Right- brain learning: Asher sees Total Physical Response as directed to right-brain learning, whereas most second language teaching methods are directed to left-brain learning. Drawing on the works by jean Piaget, Asher holds that the child language learner acquires language through motor movement - a right hemisphere activity. Right-hemisphere activities must occur before the left hemisphere can process language for production.

Similarly, the adult should proceed to language mastery through right-hemisphere motor activities, while the left hemisphere watches and learns. When a sufficient amount of right-hemisphere learning has taken place, the left hemisphere will be triggered to produce language and to initiate other, more abstract language processes.

Reduction of Stress

An important condition for successful language learning is the absence of stress. First language acquisition takes place in a stress-free environment, according to Asher;

whereas the adult language learning environment often causes considerable stress and anxiety. The key to stress-free learning is to tap into the natural bio-program for language development and thus to recapture the relaxed and pleasurable experiences that accompany first language learning. By focusing on meaning interpreted through movement, rather than on language forms studied in the abstract, the learner is said to be liberated from self-conscious and stressful situations and is able to devote full energy to learning.

Topic-043: Objectives Syllabus and Learning Activities in Total Physical Response Method

Objectives

The general objectives of Total Physical Response are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a means to an end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills. A TPR course aims to produce learners who are capable, of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker. Specific instructional objectives are not elaborated, for these will, depend on the particular needs of the learners. Whatever goals are set, however, must be attainable through the use of action-based drills in the imperative form.

Syllabus

The type of syllabus Asher uses can be inferred from an analysis of the exercise types employed in TPR classes. This analysis reveals the use of a sentence-based syllable with grammatical and lexical criteria being primary in selecting teaching items. Unlike methods that operate from a grammar-based or structural view of the core elements of language, Total Physical Response requires initial attention to meaning rather than to the form of items. Grammar is thus taught inductively.

Asher also suggests that a fixed number of items be introduced at a time, to facilitate ease of differentiation and assimilation. "In an hour, it is possible for students to assimilate 12 to 36 new lexical items depending upon the size of the group and the stage of training." (Asher 1977, p. 42) A course designed around Total Physical Response principles, however, would not be expected to follow a TPR syllabus exclusively.

Imperative drills are the major classroom activity in Total Physical Response. They are typically used to elicit physical actions and activity on the part of the learners. Conversational dialogues are delayed until after about 120 hours of instruction. Other class activities include role plays and slide presentations. Role plays center on everyday situations, such as at the restaurant, supermarket, or gas station.

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Topic-044: Role of Learners Teachers and Material in Total Physical Response Method

Learners in Total Physical Response have the primary roles of listener and performer. They listen attentively and respond physically to commands given by the teacher. Learners are also expected to recognize and respond to novel combinations of previously taught items. They are required to produce novel combinations of their own. Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress. They are encouraged to speak when they feel ready to speak - that is, when a sufficient basis in the language has been internalized. The teacher plays an active and direct role in Total Physical Response. It is the teacher who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use. Asher recommends detailed lesson plans: "It is wise to write out the exact utterances you will be using and especially the novel commands because the action is so fast-moving there is usually not time for you to create spontaneously" (1977, p. 47).

Asher stresses, however, that the teacher's role is not so much to teach as to provide opportunities for learning. The teacher has the responsibility of providing the best kind of exposure to language so that the learner can internalize the basic rules of the target language. Thus the teacher controls the language input the learners receive, providing the raw material for the "cognitive map" that the learners will construct in their own minds. The teacher should also allow speaking abilities to develop in learners at the learners' own natural pace. In giving feedback to learners, the teacher should follow the example of parents giving feedback to their children. At first, parents correct very little, but as the child grows older, parents are said to tolerate fewer mistakes in speech. Similarly, teachers should refrain from too much correction in the early stages and should not interrupt to correct errors, since this will inhibit learners. As time goes on, however, more teacher intervention is expected, as the learners' speech becomes "fine-tuned." There is generally no basic text in a Total Physical Response course.

Materials and realia play an increasing role, however, in later learning stages. For absolute beginners, lessons may not require the use of materials, since the teacher's voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities. Later, the teacher may use common classroom objects, such as books, pens, cups, furniture. As the course develops, the teacher will need to make or collect supporting materials to support teaching points. These may include pictures, realia, slides, and word charts. Asher has developed TPR student kits that focus on specific situations, such as the home, the supermarket, the beach. Students may use the kits to construct scenes (e.g., "Put the stove in the kitchen").

Topic-045: Procedure in Total Physical Response Method

Asher (1977) provides a lesson-by-lesson account of a course taught according to TPR principles, which serves as a source of information on the procedures used in the

TPR classroom. The course was for adult immigrants and consisted of 159 hours of classroom instruction. The sixth class in the course proceeded in the following way:

Review

This was a fast-moving warm-up in which individual students were moved with commands such as:

Pablo, drive your car around Miako and honk your horn.
Jeffe, throw the red flower to Maria.
Maria, scream.
Rita, pick up the knife and spoon and put them in the cup.
Eduardo, take a drink of water and give the cup to Elaine.

New commands: These verbs were introduced.

Wash your hands
Your face
Your hair
Look for a towel
The soap
A comb
Hold the book
The cup
The soap
Comb your hair
Maria's hair
Shirou's hair
Brush your teeth
Your pants
The table

Other items introduced were:

Rectangle Draw a rectangle on the chalkboard.
Pick up a rectangle from the table and give it to me.
Put the rectangle next to the square. –

Triangle Pick up the triangle from the table and give it to .me:
Catch the triangle and put it next to the rectangle-

Quickly Walk quickly to the door. and hit it.
Quickly, run to the table and touch the square.
Sit down quickly and laugh.

Slowly Walk slowly to the window and jump.
Slowly, stand up.
Slowly walk to me and hit me on the arm.

Toothpaste Look for the toothpaste.
Throw the toothpaste to Wing.
Wing, unscrew the top of the toothpaste.

Toothbrush Take out your tooth brush.
Brush your teeth.
Put your toothbrush in your book.

Teeth Touch your teeth.
Show your teeth to Dolores.
Dolores, point to Eduardo's teeth.

Soap Look for the soap. -
Give the soap to Elaine.
Elaine, put the soap in Ramiro's ear.

Towel Put the towel on Juan's arm.
Juan, put the towel on your head and laugh.
Maria, wipe your hands on the towel.
Next, the instructor asked simple questions which the student could answer with- a gesture such as pointing. Examples would be:
Where is the towel? [Eduardo, point to the towel!]
Where is the toothbrush? [Miako, point to the toothbrush!]
Where is Dolores?

Role reversal: Students readily volunteered to utter commands that manipulated the behavior of the instructor and other students.

Reading and writing: The instructor wrote on the chalkboard each new vocabulary item and a sentence to illustrate the item. Then she spoke each item and acted out the sentence. The students listened as she read the material. Some copied the information in their notebooks.

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Lesson-10

THE SILENT WAY METHOD

Topic-046: Background of the Silent Way Method

The Silent Way is the name of a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattegno. It is based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom but the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. Elements of the Silent Way, particularly the use of color charts and the colored Cuisenaire rods, grew out of Gattegno's previous experience as an educational designer of reading and mathematics programs.

The Silent Way shares a great deal with other learning theories and educational philosophies could be stated as follows: Very broadly put, the learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work are:

- Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.
- Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects.
- Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

Let us consider each of these issues in turn.

1. The Silent Way belongs to a tradition that views learning as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity, in which the learner is a principal actor rather than a bench-bound listener (Bruner 1966). Bruner discusses the benefits derived from "discovery learning" as follows:

- the increase in intellectual potency,
- the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards,
- the learning of heuristics by discovering, and
- the aid to conserving memory (Bruner 1966, p. 83).

Gattegno claims similar benefits from learners via the Silent Way.

2. The rods and the color-coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) provide physical foci for student learning and also create memorable images to facilitate student recall. In psychological terms, these visual devices serve as associative mediators for student learning.

3. The Silent Way is also related to a set of premises that we have called "problem-solving approaches to learning."

These premises are succinctly represented in the words of Benjamin Franklin:
“Tell me and 1 forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn.”

Topic-047: Approach & Theory of Language and Learning behind The Silent Way Method

Gattegno takes an openly skeptical view of the role of linguistic theory in language teaching methodology. He feels that linguistic studies "may be a specialization [that] carry with them a narrow opening of one's sensitivity and perhaps serve very little towards the broad end in mind" (Gattegno 1972, p. 84). Considerable discussion is devoted to the importance of grasping the "spirit" of the language, and not just its component forms. By the "spirit" of the language, Gattegno is referring to the way each language is composed of phonological and suprasegmental elements that combine to give the language its unique sound, system and melody. The learner must gain a "feel" for this aspect of the target language as soon as possible.

By looking at the material chosen and the sequence in which it is presented in a Silent Way classroom, it is clear that the Silent Way takes a structural approach to the organization of language to be taught. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching, and the teacher focuses on propositional meaning, rather than communicative value. Students are presented with the structural patterns of the target language and learn the grammar rules of the language through largely inductive processes.

Gattegno sees vocabulary as a central dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary as crucial. The most important vocabulary for the learner deals with the most functional and versatile words of the language, many of which may not have direct equivalents in the learner's native language. This "functional vocabulary" provides a key, says Gattegno, to comprehending the "spirit" of the language.

In elaborating a learning theory to support the principles of Silent Way, like many other method proponents, Gattegno makes extensive use of his understanding of first language learning. He recommends, for example, that the learner needs to "return to the state of mind that characterizes a baby's learning - surrender" (Scott and Page 1982, p. 273).

Having referred to these processes, however, Gattegno states that the processes of learning a second language are "radically different" from those involved in learning a first language: The second language learner is unlike the first language learner and "cannot learn another language in the same way because of what he now knows" (Gattegno 1972, p. 11). The "natural" or direct" approaches to acquiring a second language are thus misguided, says Gattegno, and a successful second language approach will "replace a `natural' approach by one that is very `artificial' and, for some purposes, strictly controlled" (1972, p. 12).

The "artificial approach" that Gatregno proposes is based on the principle that successful learning involves commitment of the self to language acquisition through the use of silent awareness and then active trial.

Gattegno's repeated emphasis on the primacy of learning over teaching places a focus on the self of the learner, on the learner's priorities and commitments. The self, we are told,

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consists of two systems - a learning system and a retaining system. The learning system is activated only by way of intelligent awareness. "The learner must constantly test his powers to abstract, analyze, synthesize and integrate." (Scott and Page 1982, p. 273) Silence is considered the best vehicle for learning, because in silence, students concentrate on the task to be accomplished and the potential means to its accomplishment. Repetition (as opposed to silence) "consumes time and encourages the scattered mind to remain scattered" (Gattegno 1976, p. 80). Silence, as avoidance of repetition, is thus an aid to alertness, concentration, and mental organization.

Awareness is educable. As one learns "in awareness," one's powers of awareness and one's capacity to learn becomes greater. The Silent Way thus claims to facilitate what psychologists call "learning to learn."

Again, the process chain that develops awareness proceeds from attention, production, self-correction, and absorption. Silent Way learners acquire "inner criteria," which play a central role "in one's education throughout one's life." (Gattegno 1976, p. 29) These inner criteria allow learners to monitor and self-correct their own production. It is in the activity of self-correction through self-awareness that the Silent Way claims to differ most notably from other ways of language learning. It is this capacity for self-awareness that the Silent Way calls upon, a capacity said to be little appreciated or exercised by first language learners.

Topic-048: Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in The Silent Way Method

Objectives

The general objective of the Silent Way is to give beginning-level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language. The general goal set for language learning is near-native fluency in the target language, and correct pronunciation and mastery of the prosodic elements of the target language are emphasized. An immediate objective is to provide the learner with a basic practical knowledge of the grammar.

Gattegno discusses the following kinds of objectives as appropriate for dents should be able to a language course at an elementary level (Gattegno 1972, pp. 81-83). Students correctly and easily answer questions about themselves, their education, their family, travel, and daily events; speak with a good accent; give either a written or an oral description of a picture, "including the existing relationships that concern space, time and numbers"; answer general questions about the culture and the literature of the native speakers of the target language; perform adequately in the following areas: spelling, grammar (production rather than explanation), reading comprehension, and writing.

Syllabus

The Silent Way adopts a basic structural syllabus, with lessons planned around

grammatical items and related vocabulary. Gattegno does not, however, provide details as to the precise selection and arrangement of grammatical and lexical items to be covered. But language items are introduced according to their grammatical complexity, their relationship to what has been taught previously, and the ease with which items can be presented visually.

The following is a section of a Peace Corps Silent Way Syllabus for the first 10 hours of instruction in Thai. It was used to teach American Peace Corps volunteers being trained to teach in Thailand. At least I5 minutes of every hour of instruction would be spent on pronunciation. A word that is italicized can be substituted for by another word having the same function.

Lesson	**Vocabulary**
1. Wood color red.	wood, red, green, yellow, brown, pink, white, orange, black, color
2. Using the numbers 1-10.	one, two, ... ten
3. Wood color red two pieces.	
4. Take (pick up) wood color red two pieces.	take (pick up)
S. Take wood color red two pieces give him.	
6. Wood red where? Wood red on table.	give, object pronouns
7. Wood color red on table, is it?	
Yes, on.	where, on, under, near, far, over,
Not on.	next to, here, there
8. Wood color red long.	Question-forming rules.
Wood color green longer.	Yes, No.
Wood color orange longest.	
9. Wood color green taller.	
Wood color red, is it?	adjectives of comparison

Learning Tasks and Activities

Learning tasks and activities in the Silent Way have the function of encouraging and shaping student's oral response without direct oral instruction from or unnecessary modeling by the teacher. Basic to the method are simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models a word, phrase, or sentence and then elicits learner responses. Learners then go on to create their own utterances by putting together old and new information. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher-directed. Responses to commands, questions, and visual cues thus constitute the basis for classroom activities.

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Topic-049: Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in the Silent Way Method

Role of the Learner

Learners are expected to develop independence, autonomy, and responsibility. Independent learners are those who are aware that they must depend on their own resources and realize that they can use "the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in a new language" or that they can "take their knowledge of the first few words in the new language and figure out additional words by using that knowledge" (Stevick 1980: 42). The absence of correction and repeated modeling from the teacher requires the students to develop "inner criteria" and to correct themselves. The absence of explanations requires learners to make generalizations, come to their own conclusions, and formulate whatever rules they themselves feel they need.

Learners have only themselves as individuals and the group to rely on, and so must learn to work cooperatively rather than competitively. They need to feel comfortable both correcting one another and being corrected by one another.

Role of the Teacher

Teacher's silence is, perhaps, the unique and, for many traditionally trained language teachers, the most demanding aspect of the Silent Way. Teachers are exhorted to resist their long-standing commitment to model, remodel, assist, and direct desired student responses. Stevick defines the Silent Way teacher's tasks as (a) to teach, (b) to test, and (c) to get out of the way (Stevick 1980: 56). Although, this may not seem to constitute a radical alternative to standard teaching practice, the details of the steps the teacher is expected to follow are unique to the Silent Way. By "teaching" is meant the presentation of an item once, typically using nonverbal clues to get across meanings. Testing follows immediately and might better be termed elicitation and shaping of student production, which, again, is done in as silent a way as possible. Finally, the teacher silently monitors learners' interactions with each other and may even leave the room while learners struggle with their new linguistic tools.

The teacher uses gestures, charts in order-to elicit and shape students' responses and so must be both facile and creative as a pantomimist and puppeteer. In sum, the Silent Way teacher is like the complete dramatist, who writes the script, chooses the props, sets the mood, models the action, designates the players, and is a critic for the performance.

Materials

Silent Way materials consist mainly of a set of colored rods, color-coded pronunciation and vocabulary, wall charts, a pointer, and reading/writing exercises, all of which are used to illustrate the relationships between sound and meaning in the target language. The materials are designed for manipulation by the students as well as by the teacher, independently and

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cooperatively, in promoting language learning by direct association.

The pronunciation charts, called "Fidels;" have been devised for a number of languages and contain symbols in the target language for all of the vowel and consonant sounds of the language. The symbols are color-coded according to pronunciation; thus, if a language possesses two different symbols for the same sound, they will be colored alike."

Just as the Fidel charts are used to visually illustrate pronunciation, the colored Cuisenaire rods are used to directly link words and structures with their meanings in the target language, thereby avoiding translation into the native language. The rods vary in length from 1 to 10 centimeters, and each length has a specific color. The rods may be used for naming colors, for size comparisons, to represent people, build floor plans, and constitute a road map, and so on. Use of the rods is intended to promote inventiveness, creativity, and interest in forming communicative utterances on the part of the students, as they move from simple to more complex structures.

Topic-050: Procedure in the Silent Way Method

A Silent Way lesson typically follows a standard format. The first part of the lesson focuses on pronunciation. Depending on the student's level, the class might work on sounds, phrases, even sentences designated on the Fidel chart. At the beginning stage, the teacher will model the appropriate sound after pointing to a symbol on the chart. Later, the teacher will silently point to individual symbols and combinations of utterances, and monitor student utterances. The teacher may say a word and have students guess what sequence of symbols compromised the word.

The pointer is used to indicate stress, phrasing, and intonation. Stress can be shown by touching certain symbols more forcibly than others when pointing out a word. Intonation and phrasing can be demonstrated by tapping on the chart to the rhythm of the utterance.

After the sounds of the language, sentence patterns, structure, and vocabulary are practiced, the teacher models an utterance while creating a visual realization of it with the colored rods. After modeling the utterance, the teacher will have a student attempt to produce the utterance and will indicate its acceptability. If a response is incorrect, the teacher will attempt to reshape the utterance or have another student present the correct model. After a structure is introduced and understood, the teacher will create a situation in which the students can practice the structure through the manipulation of the rods. Variations on the structural theme will be elicited from the class using the rods and charts. The sample lesson that follows illustrates a typical lesson format.

The language being taught is Thai, for which this is the first lesson.

- Teacher empties rods onto the table.
- Teacher picks up two or three rods of different colors, and after each rod is picked up says:

[mai].

- Teacher holds up one rod of any color and indicates to a student that a response is required. Student says: [mai]. If response is incorrect, teacher elicits response from another student, who then models for the first student.
  - Teacher next picks up a red rod and says: [mai sii daeng].
  - Teacher picks up a green rod and says: [mai sii khiaw]. -
- Teacher picks up either a red or green rod and elicits response from student. If response is incorrect procedure in step 3 is followed (student modeling).
  - Teacher introduces two or three other colors in the same manner.
- Teacher shows any of the rods whose forms were taught previously and elicits student response.
- Correction technique is through student modeling, or the teacher may help student isolate error and self-correct.
- When mastery is achieved, teacher puts one red rod in plain view and says: [mai sii daeng nung an].
  - Teacher then puts two red rods in plain view and says: [mai sii daeng song an]._
  - Teacher places two green rods in view and says: [mai sii khiaw song an].
  - Teacher holds up two rods of a different color and elicits student response.
- Teacher introduces additional numbers, based on what the class can comfortably retain. Other colors might also be introduced.
- Rods are put in a pile. Teacher indicates, through his or her own actions, that rods should be picked up, and the correct utterance made. All the students in the group pick up rods and make utterances. Peer-group correction is encouraged.
  - Teacher then says: '[kep mai sii daeng song an].
  - Teacher indicates that a student should give the teacher the rods called for.
- Teacher asks other students in the class to give him or her the rods that he or she asks for. This is all done in the target language through unambiguous actions on the part of the teacher.
- Teacher now indicates that the students should give each other command regarding the calling for of rods. Rods are put at the disposal of the class.
- Experimentation is encouraged. Teacher speaks only to correct an incorrect utterance, if no peer-group correction is forthcoming. (Joel Wiskin, personal communication)

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Lesson-11

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING

Topic-051: Background of Community Language Learning Method

Community Language Learning (CLL) is the name of a method developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a professor of psychology at Loyola University, Chicago. His application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as counseling-Learning. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. As the name indicates, CLL derives its primary insights, and indeed its organizing rationale, from Rogerian counseling (Rogers 1951). In lay terms, counseling is one person giving advice, assistance, and support to another who has a problem or is in some way in need. Community Language Learning draws on the counseling metaphor to redefine the roles of the teacher (the counselor) and learners (the clients) in the language class-room. The basic procedures of CLL can thus be seen as derived from the counselor-client relationship.

CLL techniques also belong to a larger set of foreign language teaching practices, sometimes described as humanistic techniques (Moskowitz1978). Moskowitz defines humanistic techniques as those that blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are the ideals that the exercises pursue. The techniques help build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring that far transcend what is already there to help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves, and help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class (Moskowitz 1978, p. 2).

In sum, humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including the emotions and feelings (the affective realm) as well as the linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills.

Another language teaching tradition with which Community Language Learning is linked is a set of practices used in certain kinds of bilingual education programs and is referred to by Mackey (1972) as "language alternation." In language alternation, a message/lesson/class is presented first in the native language and then again in the second language.

Students know the meaning and flow of an L2 message from their recall of the: parallel meaning and flow of an L1 message. They begin to holistically piece together a view of the language out of these message sets. In CLL, a learner presents a message in L1 to the knower. The message is translated into L2 by the knower. The learner then repeats the message in L2, addressing it to another learner with whom he or she wishes to communicate. CLL learners are encouraged to attend to the "overhears" they experience between other learners and their knowers. The result of the "overhear" is that every member of the group can understand what any given learner is trying to communicate (La Forge 1983, p. 4S).

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Topic-052: Approach and Theory of Language and Learning in Community Language Learning Method

Curran himself wrote little about his theory of language. His student, La Forge (1983) has attempted to be more explicit about this dimension of Community Language Learning theory. La Forge accepts that language theory must start, though not end, with criteria for sound features, the sentence, and abstract models of language (La Forge 1983, p. 4). The foreign language learners' tasks are "to apprehend the sound system, assign fundamental meanings, and construct a basic grammar of the foreign language." La Forge goes beyond this structuralist view of language, however, and elaborates an alternative theory of language, which is referred to as 'Language as Social Process': communication is more than just a message being transmitted from a speaker to a listener. The speaker is at the same time both subject and object of his own message. Communication is an exchange which is incomplete without a feedback reaction from the destinee of the message (La Forge 1983, p. 3).

This social-process view of language is then elaborated in terms of six qualities or sub-processes. La Forge also elaborates on the interactional view of language underlying Community Language Learning: "Language is people; language is persons in contact; language is persons in response" (1983, p. 9). CLL interactions are of two distinct and fundamental kinds: interactions between learners and interactions between learners and knowers. Interactions between learners are unpredictable in content but typically are said to involve exchanges of affect. Learner exchanges deepen in intimacy as the class becomes a community of learners. The desire to be part of this growing intimacy pushes learners to keep pace with the learning of their peers.

Interaction between learners and knowers is initially dependent. The learner tells the knower what he or she wishes to say in the target language, and the knower tells the learner how to say it. In later stages, interactions between learner and knower are characterized as self-assertive (stage 2), resentful and indignant (stage 3), tolerant (stage 4), and independent (stage 5), These changes of interactive relationship are paralleled by the five stages of language learning and five stages of affective conflicts (La Forge 1983, p. 50).

Curran's counseling experience led him to conclude that the techniques of counseling could be applied to learning in general (this became Counseling-Learning) and to language reaching in particular (Community Language Learning). The CLL view of learning is a holistic one, since "true" human learning is both cognitive and affective. This is termed whole-person learning. Such learning takes place in a communicative situation where teachers and learners are involved in "an interaction in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness" (Curran 1972, p. 90). Within this, the development of the learner's relationship with the teacher is central. The process is divided into five stages and compared to the ontogenetic development of the child. In the first, "birth" stage, feelings of security and belonging are established. In the second, as the, learner's abilities improve, the learner, as child, begins to achieve a measure of independence from the parent. By the third, the learner "speaks independently" and may need to assert his or her own identity, often rejecting

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unasked for advice. The fourth stage sees the learner as secure enough to take criticism, and by the last stage, the learner merely works on improving style and knowledge of linguistic appropriateness. By the end of the process, the child has become adult. The learner knows everything the teacher does and can become knower for a new learner. The process of learning a new language, then, is like being reborn and developing a new persona, with all the trials and challenges that are associated with birth and maturation.

Curran in many places discusses what he calls "consensual validation," or "convalidation," in which mutual warmth, understanding, and a positive evaluation of the other person's worth develops between the teacher and the learner. A relationship characterized by convalidation is considered essential to the learning process and is a key element of CLL classroom procedures. A group of ideas concerning the psychological requirements for successful learning are collected under the acronym SARD (Curran 1976, p. 6), which can be explained as follows: 'S' stands for security. Unless learners feel secure, they will find it difficult to enter into a successful learning experience.

'A' stands for attention and aggression. CLL recognizes that a loss of attention should be taken as an indication of the learner's lack of involvement in learning; the implication being that variety in the choice of learner tasks will increase attention and therefore promote learning. Aggression applies to the way in which a child, having learned something, seeks an opportunity to show his or her strength by taking over and demonstrating what has been learned, using the new knowledge. R stands for retention and reflection. If the whole person is involved in the learning process, what is retained is internalized and becomes a part of the learner's new persona in the foreign language. Reflection is a consciously identified period of silence within the framework of the lesson for the student "to focus on the learning forces of the last hour, to assess his present stage of development, and to re-evaluate future goals" (La Forge 1983, p. 68). D denotes discrimination. When learners "have retained a body of material, they are ready to sort it out and see how one thing relates to another" (La Forge 1983: 69). This discrimination process becomes more refined and ultimately "enables the students to use the language for purposes of communication outside the classroom" (La Forge 1983, p. 69).

These central aspects of Curran's learning philosophy address not the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in second language acquisition, but rather the personal commitments that learners need to make before language acquisition processes can operate.

Topic-053: Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in Community Language Learning Method

Objectives

Since linguistic or communicative competence is specified only in social terms, explicit linguistic or communicative objectives are not defined in CLL. Most of what has been written about it describes its use in introductory conversation courses in a foreign language.

Syllabus

CLL does not use a conventional language syllabus, which sets out in advance the grammar, vocabulary, and other language items to be taught and the order in which they will be covered. The progression is topic-based, with learners nominating things they wish to talk about and messages they wish to communicate to other learners. The teacher's responsibility is to provide a conveyance for these meanings in a way appropriate to the learners' proficiency level. In this sense, a CLL syllabus emerges from the interaction between the learner's expressed communicative intentions and the teacher's reformulations of these into suitable target-language utterances. Specific grammatical points, lexical patterns, and generalizations will sometimes be isolated by the teacher for more detailed study and analysis, and subsequent specification of these as a retrospective account of what the course covered could be a way of deriving a CLL language syllabus.

Learning Activities

As with most methods, CLL combines innovative learning tasks and activities with conventional ones. They include:

- Translation. Learners form a small circle. A learner whispers a message or meaning he or she wants to express, the teacher translates it into (and may .interpret it in) the target language, and the learner repeats the teacher's translation.
- Group-work: Learners may, engage in various group tasks, such as small-group discussion of a topic, preparing a conversation, preparing a summary of a topic for presentation to another group, preparing a story that will be presented to the teacher and the rest of the class.
- Recording: Students record conversations in the target language.
- Transcription: Students transcribe utterances and conversations they have recorded for practice and analysis of linguistic forms.
- Analysis: Students analyze and study transcriptions of target-language sentences in order to focus on particular lexical usage or on the application of particular grammar rules.
- Reflection and observation: Learners reflect and report on their experience of the class, as a class or in groups. This usually consists of expressions of feelings - sense of one another, reactions to silence, concern for something to say, and so on.
- Listening: Students listen to a monologue by the teacher involving elements they might have elicited or overheard in class interactions.
- "Free conversation: Students engage in free conversation with the teacher or with other learners. This might include discussion of what they learned as well as feelings they had about how they learned.

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Topic-054: Roles of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in Community Language Learning Method

Role of the Learner

Learner roles in CLL are well defined. Learners become members of a community - their fellow learners and the teacher - and learn through interacting with the community. Learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment but as something that is achieved collaboratively. Learners are expected to listen attentively to the knower, to freely provide meanings they wish to express, to repeat target utterances without hesitation, support fellow members of the community, to report deep inner feelings and frustrations as well as joy and pleasure, and to become counselors of other learners. CLL learners are typically grouped in a circle of six to twelve learners, with the number of knowers varying from one per group to one per student.

Learner roles are keyed to the five stages of language learning outlined earlier. The view of the learner is an organic one, with each new role growing developmentally out of the one preceding it. These role changes are not easily or automatically achieved. They are in fact seen as outcomes of affective crises.

When faced with a new cognitive task, the learner must solve an affective crisis. With the solution of the five affective crises, one for each CLL stage, the student progresses from a lower to a higher stage of development. (La Forge1983: 44) The teacher's role derives from the functions of the counselor in Rogerian psychological counseling. The counselor's role is to respond calmly and non-judgmentally, in a supportive manner, and help the client to understand his or her problems better by applying order and analysis to them.

"One of the functions of the counseling response is to relate affect to cognition. Understanding the language of 'feeling', the counselor replies in the language of cognition". (Curran 1976: 26) It was the model of teacher as counselor that Curran attempted to bring to language learning.

Role of the Teacher

There is also room for actual counseling in Community Language Learning: "Personal learning conflicts anger, anxiety and similar psychological disturbance - understood and responded to by the teacher's counseling sensitivity - are indicators of deep personal investment" (J. Rardin, in Curran 1976, p. 103).

More specific teacher roles are, like those of the students, keyed to the five developmental stages. In the early stages of learning, the teacher operates in a supportive role, providing target-language translations and a model for imitation on request of the clients. Later, interaction may be initiated by the students, and the teacher monitors

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learner utterances, providing assistance when requested. As learning progresses, students become increasingly capable of accepting criticism, and the teacher may intervene directly to correct deviant utterances, supply idioms, and advise on usage and fine points of grammar. The teacher's role is initially likened to that of a nurturing parent. The student gradually "grows" in ability and the nature of the relationship changes so that the teacher's position becomes somewhat dependent on the learner. The knower derives a sense of self-worth through requests for the knower's assistance.

Role of Materials

Since a CLL course evolves out of the interactions of the community, a textbook is not considered a necessary component. A textbook would impose a particular body of language content on the learners, thereby impeding their growth and interaction. Materials may be developed by the teacher as the course develops, although these generally consist of little more than summaries on the blackboard or overhead projector of some of the linguistic features of conversations generated by students. Conversations may also be transcribed and distributed for study and analysis, and learners may work in groups to produce their own materials, such as scripts for dialogues and mini-dramas.

Topic-055: Procedure in Community Language Learning Method

Because each Community Language Learning course is in a sense a unique experience, description of typical CLL procedures in a class period is problematic. Stevick (1980) distinguishes between "classical" CLL (based directly on the model proposed by Curran) and personal interpretations of it, such as those discussed by different 'advocates of CLL (e.g., La Forge 1983). The following description attempts to capture some typical activities in CLL classes.

Generally, the observer will see a circle of learners all facing one another. The learners are linked in some way to knowers or a single knower as teacher. The first class (and subsequent classes) may begin with a period of silence, in which learners try to determine what is supposed to happen in their language class. In later classes, learners may sit in silence while they decide what to talk about (La Forge 1983: 72). The observer may note that the awkwardness of silence becomes sufficiently agonizing for someone to volunteer to break the silence. The knower may use the volunteered comment as a way of introducing discussion of classroom contacts or as a stimulus for language interaction regarding how learners felt about the period of silence. The knower may encourage learners to address questions to one another or to the knower. These may be questions on any subject a learner is curious enough to inquire about. The questions and answers may be tape-recorded for later use, as a reminder and review of topics discussed and language used.

The teacher might then form the class into facing lines for 3-minute pair conversations. These are seen as equivalent to the brief wrestling sessions by which judo students

practice. Following this, the class might be re-formed into small groups in which a single topic, chosen by the class or the group, is discussed. The summary of the group discussion may be presented to another group, who in turn try to repeat or paraphrase the summary back to the original group.

In an intermediate or advanced class, a teacher may encourage groups to prepare a paper drama for presentation to the rest of the class. A paper drama group prepares a story that is told or shown to the counselor. The counselor provides or corrects target-language statements and suggests improvements to the story sequence. Students are then given materials with which they prepare large picture cards to accompany their story.

After practicing the story dialogue and preparing the accompanying pictures, each group presents its paper drama to the rest of the class. The students accompany their story with music, puppets, and drums as well as with their pictures (La Forge 1983: 81-82).

Finally, the teacher asks learners to reflect on the language class, as a class or in groups. Reflection provides the basis for discussion of contracts (written or oral contracts that learners and teachers have agreed upon and that specify what they agree to accomplish within the course), personal interaction, feelings toward the knower and learner, and the sense of progress and frustration.

Dieter Strbinigg (in Stevick 1980: 185-186) presents a protocol of what a first day's CLL class covered, which is outlined here:

1. Informal greetings and self-introductions were made.
2. The teacher made a statement of the goals and guidelines for the course.
3. A conversation in the foreign language took place.

4. A circle was formed so that everyone had visual contact with each other.
5. One student initiated conversation with another student by giving a message in the L1 (English).
6. The instructor, standing behind the student, whispered a close equivalent of the message in the L2 (German).
7. The student then repeated the L2 message to its addressee and into the tape recorder as well.
8. Each student had a chance to compose and record a few messages.
9. The tape recorder was rewound and replayed at intervals. Each student repeated the meaning in English of what he or she had said in the L2 and helped to refresh the memory of others.
10. Students then participated in a reflection period, in which they were asked to express their feelings about the previous experience with total frankness.
11. From the materials just recorded, the instructor chose sentences to write on the blackboard that highlighted elements of grammar, spelling, and peculiarities of

capitalization in the L2.

12. Students were encouraged to ask questions about any of the items above.

13. Students were encouraged to copy sentences from the board with notes on meaning and usage. This became their "textbook" for home study.

Conclusion

Community Language Learning places unusual demands on language teachers. They must be highly proficient and sensitive to nuance in both Ll and L2. They must be familiar with and sympathetic to the role of counselors in psychological counseling. They must resist the pressure "to teach" in the traditional senses. The teacher must also be relatively non-directive and must be prepared to accept and even encourage the "adolescent" aggression of the learner as he or she strives for independence. The teacher must operate without conventional materials, depending on student topics to shape and motivate the class. Special training in Community Language Learning techniques is usually required.

Critics of Community Language Learning question the appropriateness of the counseling metaphor on which it is predicated. Questions also arise about whether teachers should attempt counseling without special training. Other concerns have been expressed regarding the lack of a syllabus, which makes objectives unclear and evaluation difficult to accomplish, and the focus on fluency rather than accuracy, which may lead to inadequate control of the grammatical system of the target language.

Supporters of CLL, on the other hand, emphasize the positive benefits of a method that centers on the learner and stresses the humanistic side of language learning, and not merely its linguistic dimensions.

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Lesson-12

SUGGESTOPEDIA

Topic-056: Background of Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia, also known as Desuggestopedia, is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov. Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestology, which Lozanov describes as a "science concerned with the systematic study of the non-rational and/or non-conscious influences" that human beings are constantly responding to (Stevick 1976, p. 42). Suggestopedia tries to harness these influences and redirect them so as to optimize learning. The most conspicuous characteristics of Suggestopedia are the decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the classroom, the use of music, and the authoritative behavior of the teacher. The claims for suggestopedic learning are dramatic. "There is no sector of public life where suggestology would not be useful" (Lozanov 1978, p. 2). "Memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method seems to be accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods." (Lozanov 1978, p. 27) Lozanov acknowledges ties in tradition to yoga and Soviet psychology. From raja-yoga, Lozanov has borrowed and modified techniques for altering states of consciousness and concentration, and the use of rhythmic breathing. From Soviet psychology, Lozanov has taken the notion that all students can be taught a given subject matter at the same level of skill.

Lozanov claims that his method works equally well whether or not students spend time on outside study. He promises success through Suggestopedia to the academically gifted and the ungifted alike. (For an overview of the tenets of Soviet psychology and how these differ from those of Western psychology, see Bancroft 1978.). A most conspicuous feature of Suggestopedia is the centrality of music and musical rhythm to learning. Suggestopedia thus has a kinship with other functional uses of music, particularly therapy. Gaston (1968) defines three functions of music in therapy: to facilitate the establishment and maintenance of personal relations; to bring about increased self-esteem through increased self-satisfaction in musical performance; and to use the unique potential of rhythm to energize and bring order. This last function seems to be the one that Lozanov calls upon in his use of music to relax learners as well as to structure pace, and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material.

Topic-057: Approach and Theory of Language and Learning in Suggestopedia

Lozanov does not articulate a theory of language, nor does it seem that he is much concerned with any particular assumptions regarding language elements and their organization. The emphasis on memorization of vocabulary pairs - a target-language item and its native language translation - suggests a view of language in which lexis is central and in which lexical translation rather than contextualization is stressed. However, Lozanov does occasionally refer to the importance of experiencing language material in

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"whole meaningful texts," (Lozanov 1978, p. 268) and notes that the suggestopedic course directs "the student not to vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but to acts of communication" (1978, p. 109).

In describing course work and text organization, Lozanov refers most often to the language to be learned as "the material" (e.g., "The new material that is to be learned is read or recited by a well-trained teacher") (Lozanov 1978, p. 270). The sample protocol given for an Italian lesson (Lozanov 1978) does not suggest a theory of language markedly different from that which holds a language to be its vocabulary and the grammar rules for organizing vocabulary.

Suggestion is at the heart of the theory of learning underlying Suggestopedia. Lozonov distinguishes his theory of suggestion from the "narrow clinical concept of hypnosis as a kind of static, sleeplike, altered state of consciousness" (1978, p. 3). Lozanov further claims that what distinguishes his method from hypnosis and other forms of mind control is that these other forms lack "a desuggestive-suggestive sense" and "fail to create a constant set-up access reserves through concentrative psycho-relaxation" (1978, p. 267). There are six principal theoretical components through which desuggestion and suggestion operate and that set-up access to reserves. We will describe these briefly following Bancroft (1972).

Authority

People remember best and are most influenced by information coming from an authoritative source. Lozanov appears to believe that scientific sounding language, highly positive experimental data, and true-believer teachers constitute a ritual placebo system that is authoritatively appealing to most learners. Well-publicized accounts of learning success lend the method and the institution authority, and commitment to the method; self-confidence, personal distance, acting ability, and a highly positive attitude give an authoritative air to the teacher.

Infantilization

Authority is also used to suggest a teacher-student relation like that, of parent to child. In the child's role, the learner takes part in role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercises that help "the older students regain the self-confidence, spontaneity and receptivity of the child" (Bancroft 1972, p. 19).

Double-Planedness

The learner learns not only from the effect of direct instruction, but from the environment in which the instruction takes place. The bright decor of the classroom, the musical background, the shape of the chairs, and the personality of the teacher are considered as important instruction as the form of the instructional material itself.

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Intonation, Rhythm, and Concert Pseudo-Passiveness

Varying the tone and rhythm of presented material helps to avoid boredom through monotony of repetition and to dramatize, emotionalize, and give meaning to linguistic material. In the first presentation of linguistic material, three phrases are read together, each with a different voice level and rhythm. In the second presentation, the linguistic material is given a proper dramatic reading, which helps learners visualize a context for the material and aids in memorization. (Bancroft1972, p. 19)

Both intonation and rhythm are coordinated with a musical background. The musical background helps to induce a relaxed attitude, which Lozanov refers to as concert pseudo-passiveness. This state is felt to be optimal for learning, in that anxieties and tensions are relieved and power of concentration for new material is raised.

Topic-058: Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in Suggestopedia

Objectives

The objectives of Suggestopedia are to deliver advanced conversational proficiency quickly. It bases its learning claims on student mastery of prodigious lists of vocabulary pairs and, suggests to the students that it is appropriate that they set such goals for themselves. Lozanov emphasizes that increased memory power is not an isolated skill but is result of "positive, comprehensive stimulation of personality" (Lozanov 1978, p. 253).

Syllabus

A Suggestopedia course lasts 30 days and consists of ten units of study. Classes are held 4 hours a day, 6 days a week. The central focus of each unit is a dialogue consisting of 1,200 words or so, with an accompanying vocabulary list and grammatical commentary. The dialogues are graded by lexis and grammar.

There is a pattern of work within each unit and a pattern of work for the whole course. Unit study is organized around 3 days: day 1-half a day, day 2-full day, day 3-half a day. On the first day of work on a new unit, the teacher discusses the general content (not structure) of the unit dialogue. The learners then receive the printed dialogue with a native language translation in a parallel column. The teacher answers any questions of interest or concern about the dialogue. The dialogue then is read a second and third time in ways to be discussed subsequently. This is the work for day 1. Days 2 and 3 are spent in primary and secondary elaboration of the text. Primary elaboration consists of imitation, question and answer, reading, and so on, of the dialogue and of working with the 150 new vocabulary items presented in the unit. The secondary elaboration involves encouraging students to make new combinations and productions based on the dialogues. A story or essay paralleling the dialogue is also read. The students engage in conversation and take small roles in response to the text read.

During the course, there are two opportunities for generalization of the material. In the middle of the course, students are encouraged to practice the target language in a setting where it might be used, such as hotels or restaurants. The last day of the course is devoted to a performance in which every student participates. The students construct a play built on the material of the course. Rules and parts are planned, but students are expected to speak extempore rather than from memorized lines. Written tests are also given throughout the course, and these and the performance are reviewed on the final day of the course.

Learning Activities

Learning activities used in the method include imitation, question and answer, and role play, which are not activities "that other language teachers would consider being out of the ordinary" (Stevick 1976, p. 157). The types of activities that are more original to Suggestopedia are the listening activities, which concern the text and text vocabulary of each unit. These activities are typically part of the "pre-session phase," which takes place on the first day of a new unit. The students first look at and discuss a new text with the teacher. In the second reading, students relax comfortably in reclining chairs and listen to the teacher read the text in a certain way.

Topic-059: Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Suggestopedia

Role of the Learner

Learners' roles are carefully prescribed. The mental state of the learner is critical to success, which is why learners must forgo' mind-altering substances and other distractions and immerse themselves in the procedures of the method. Learners must not try to figure out, manipulate, or study the material presented, but they must maintain a pseudo-passive state, in which the material rolls over and through them. Students are expected to tolerate and encourage their own "infantilization." In part, this is accomplished by knowledging the absolute authority of the teacher and in part by giving themselves over to the activities and techniques designed to help them regain the self-confidence, spontaneity, and receptivity of the child. Such activities include, role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercises (Bancroft 1972, p. 19).

Groups of learners are ideally socially homogeneous, twelve in number, and divided equally between men and women. Learners sit in a circle, which encourages face-to-face exchange and activity participation.

Role of the Teacher

The primary role of the teacher is to create situations in which the learner is most suggestible and then to present linguistic material in a way most likely to encourage positive reception and retention by the learner.

Lozanov lists several expected teacher behaviors that contribute to these presentations.

1. Show absolute confidence in the method.
2. Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress.
3. Organize properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process - this includes choice and play of music, as well as punctuality.
4. Maintain a solemn attitude toward the session.
S. Give tests and respond tactfully to poor papers (if any).
6. Stress global rather than analytical attitudes toward material.
7. Maintain a modest enthusiasm.

Materials

Materials consist of direct support materials, primarily text and tape, and indirect support materials, including classroom fixtures and music. The text is organized around the ten units described earlier. The text book should have emotional force, literary quality, and interesting characters. Language problems should be introduced in a way that does not worry or distract students from the content. "Traumatic themes and distasteful lexical material should be avoided." (Lozanov 1978, p. 278) Each unit should be governed by a single idea featuring a variety-of subthemes, "the way is in life" (p. 278).

The learning environment plays a central role in Suggestopedia, such that the important elements of the environment need to be briefly enumerated. The environment (the indirect support materials) comprises the appearance of the classroom (bright and cheery), the furniture (reclining chairs arranged in a circle), and the music (Baroque largo).

Topic-060: Procedure in Suggestopedia

As with the other methods we have examined, there are variants of both historical and individual in the actual conduct of Suggestopedia classes. Adaptations such as those we witnessed in Toronto by Jane Bancroft and her colleagues at Scarborough College, University of Toronto, showed a wide and diversified range of techniques unattested to in Lozanov's writings.

We have tried here to characterize a class as described` in the Suggestopedia literature while pointing out where the actual classes we have observed varied considerably from the description. Bancroft (1972) notes that the 4-hour language class has three distinct parts. The first part we might call an ‘oral review section’. Previously learned material is used as the basis for discussion by the teacher and twelve students in the class. All participants sit in a circle in their specially designed chairs, and the discussion proceeds like a seminar. This session may involve what are called micro-studies and macro-studies. In micro-studies, specific attention is given to grammar, vocabulary, and precise questions and answers. A question from a micro-study might be, "What should one do in a hotel room if the bathroom taps are not working?" In the macro-studies, emphasis is on role

playing and wider-ranging, innovative language constructions. "Describe to someone the Boyana church" (one of Bulgaria's most well-known medieval churches) would be an example of a request for information from the macro-studies.

In the second part of the class, new material is presented and discussed. This consists of looking over a new dialogue and its native language translation and discussing any issues of grammar, vocabulary, or content that the teacher feels important or that students are curious about. Bancroft notes that this section is typically conducted in the target language, although student questions or comments will be in whatever language the student feels he or she can handle. Students are led to view the experience of dealing with the new material as interesting and undemanding of any special effort or anxiety. The teacher's attitude and authority are considered critical to preparing students for success in the learning to come. The pattern of learning and use is noted (i.e., fixation, reproduction, and new creative production), so that students will know what is expected.

The third part - the seance or concert session - is the one by which Suggestopedia is best known. Since this constitutes the heart of the method, we will quote Lozanov as to how this session proceeds.

At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listens to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or, recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher's reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they attended. Instead, they are instructed to read it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning. (Lozanov 1978, p. 272)

Conclusion

Suggestopedia received a rave review in Parade magazine of March 12, 1978. Suggestopedia also received a scathing review by a leading applied linguist (Scovel 1979). Having acknowledged that "there are techniques and procedures in Suggestopedy that may prove useful in a foreign language classroom," Scovel notes that Lozanov is unequivocally opposed to any eclectic use of the techniques outside the full panoply of suggestopedic science. Of suggestopedic science, Scovel comments, "If we have learnt anything at all in the seventies, it is that the art of language teaching will benefit very little from the pseudo-science of suggestology" (Scovel 1979, p. 265).

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And yet, from Lozanov's point of view, this air of science (rather than its substance) is what gives Suggestopedia its authority in the eyes of students and prepares them to expect success. Lozanov makes no bones about the fact that Suggestopedia is introduced to students in the context of a "suggestive-desuggestive ritual placebo-system" (Lozanov 1978, p. 267), and that one of the tasks of the suggestopedic leader is to determine which current ritual placebo system carries most authority with students.

Just as doctors tell patients that the placebo is a pill that will cure them, teachers tell students that Suggestology is a science that will teach them. And Lozanov maintains that placebos do both cure and teach when the patient or pupil credits them with the power to do so. Perhaps, then, it is not productive to further be-labor the science/nonscience, data/double-talk issues and instead, as Bancroft and Stevick have done, try to identify and validate those techniques from Suggestopedia that appear effective and that harmonize with other successful techniques in the language teaching inventory.

Lesson-13

WHOLE LANGUAGE METHOD

Topic-061: Background of Whole Language Method

The term Whole Language was created in the 1980s by a group of U.S. educators concerned with the teaching of language arts, that is, reading and writing in the native language. The teaching of reading and writing in the first language (often termed the teaching of literacy) is a very active educational enterprise worldwide, and, like the field of second language teaching, has led to a number of different and at times competing approaches and methodologies. One widespread approach to both the teaching of reading and writing has focused on a "decoding" approach to language. By this, is meant, a focus on teaching the separate components of language such as grammar, vocabulary, and word recognition, and in particular, the teaching of phonics. Phonics is based on the theory that reading involves identifying letters and turning them into sounds. Other reading theories approach reading through skills. The Whole Language movement is strongly opposed to these approaches to teaching reading and writing and argues that language should be taught as a "whole." "If language isn't kept whole, it isn't language anymore." (Rigg 1991, p. 522) Whole Language instruction is a theory of language instruction that was developed to help young children learn to read, and has also been extended to middle and secondary levels and to the teaching of ESL. "What began as a holistic way to teach reading has become a movement for change, key aspects of which are respect for each student as a member of a culture and as a creator of knowledge, and respect for each teacher as a professional" (Rigg 1991, p. 521).

The Whole Language Approach emphasizes learning to read and write naturally with a focus on real communication and reading and writing for pleasure. In the 1990s, it became popular in the United States as a motivating and innovative way of teaching language arts skills to primary school children. In language teaching, it shares a philosophical and instructional perspective with Communicative Language Teaching since it emphasizes the importance of meaning and meaning making in teaching and learning. It also relates to natural approaches to language learning since it is designed to help children and adults learn a second language in the same way that children learn their first language. Considerable discussion has been devoted to whether Whole Language is an approach, a method, a philosophy, or a belief. In a survey of sixty-four articles on Whole Language, Bergeron (1990) found Whole Language treated as an approach (34.4 percent of the articles), as a philosophy (23.4 percent), as a belief (14.1 percent), or as a method (6.3 percent). We see it as an approach based on key principles about language (language is whole) and learning (writing, reading, listening, and speaking should be integrated in learning). Each Whole Language teacher implements the theories of Whole Language as he or she interprets them and according to the kinds of classes and learners he or she is teaching.

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Topic-062: Approach and Theory of Language and of Learning in Whole Language Method

Whole language views language organization from what we have earlier called an interactional perspective. This perspective is most obviously a social one that views language as a vehicle for human communication and in which there is an interactional relationship between readers and writers. "Language use is always in a social context and this applies to both oral and written language, to both first and second language use." (Rigg 1991, p. 523) Heavy emphasis in Whole Language is placed on "authenticity," on engagement with the authors of written texts, and also on conversation. For example, in mastering the sociolinguistic signals for "apologizing," "a whole language perspective requires an authentic, `real' situation in which one truly needs to apologize to another." (Rigg 1991, p. 524)

Whole Language also views language psycholinguistically as a vehicle for internal "interaction," for egocentric speech, for thinking. "We use language to think: In order to discover what we know, we sometimes write, perhaps talk to a friend, or mutter to ourselves silently" (Rigg 1991, p. 323). A functional model of language is also referred to in many articles on Whole Language. Language is always seen as something that is used for meaningful purposes and to carry out authentic functions. The learning theory underlying Whole Language is in the humanistic and constructivist schools. The descriptions of whole language classrooms recall terms familiar to humanistic approaches to education and to language learning: Whole Language is said to be authentic, personalized, self-directed, collaborative, and pluralistic. Such characteristics are believed to focus learner attention and to motivate mastery. Constructivist learning theory holds that knowledge is socially constructed, rather than received or discovered. Thus, constructivist learners "create meaning," "learn by doing," and work collaboratively in mixed groups on "common projects". Rather than transmitting knowledge to students, teachers collaborate with them to create knowledge and understanding in their mutual social context. Rather than seeking to "cover the curriculum," learning focuses on the learners' experience, needs, interests, and aspirations.

Topic-063: Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities in Whole Language Method

Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities

The major principles underlying the design of Whole Language instruction are as follows:

- the use of authentic literature rather than artificial, specially prepared texts and exercises designed to practice individual reading skills
- a focus on real and natural events rather than on specially written stories that do not relate to the students' experience
- the reading of real texts of high-interest, particularly literature
- reading for the sake of comprehension and for a real purpose
- writing for a real audience and not simply to practice writing skills

- writing as a process through which learners explore and discover meaning
- the use of student-produced texts rather than teacher-generated or other generated texts
- integration of reading, writing, and other skills
- student-centered learning: students have choice over what they read and write, giving them power and understanding of their world
- reading and writing in partnership with other learners
- encouragement of risk taking and exploration and the acceptance of errors as signs of learning rather than of failure

Topic-064: Role of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in Whole Language Method

Role of the Teacher

The teacher is seen as a facilitator and an active participant in the learning community rather than an expert passing on knowledge. The teacher teaches students, not the subject matter and looks for the occurrence of teachable moments rather than following a preplanned lesson plan or script. The teacher creates a climate that will support collaborative learning. The teacher has the responsibility of negotiating a plan of work with the learners.

Role of the Learner

The learner is a collaborator, collaborating with fellow students, with the teacher, and with writers of texts. Students are also evaluators, evaluating their own and others' learning, with the help of the teacher. The learner is self-directed; his or her own learning experiences are used as resources for learning. Students are also selectors of learning materials and activities. "Choice is vital in a whole language class, because without the ability to select activities, materials, and conversational partners, the students cannot use language for their own purposes" (Rigg 1991, p. 526).

Materials

Whole Language instruction advocates the use of real-world materials rather than commercial texts. A piece of literature is an example of "real-world" materials in that its creation was not instructionally motivated but resulted from the author's wish to communicate with the reader.

Other real-world materials are brought to class by the students in the form of newspapers, signs, handbills, storybooks, and printed materials from the workplace in the case of adults. Students also produce their own materials. Rather than purchasing pedagogically prepared textbooks and "basal readers," schools make use of class sets of literature, both fictional and nonfictional.

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Topic-065: Procedure in Whole Language Method

The issue of what instructional characteristics are specific to Whole Language is somewhat problematic. Bergeron (1990) found that Whole Language was described differently in each article of the sixty-four articles she surveyed (except those written by the same author). She found only four classroom features mentioned in more than SO percent of the articles. These included:

- the use of literature
- the use of process writing
- encouragement of cooperative learning among students
- concern for students' attitude
- Activities that are often used in Whole Language instruction are:
- individual and small group reading and writing
- ungraded dialogue journals
- writing portfolios
- writing conferences
- student-made books
- story writing

Many of these activities are also common in other instructional approaches, such as Communicative Language Teaching, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Language Teaching. Perhaps the only feature of Whole Language that does not appear centrally in discussions of communicative approaches to language teaching is the focus on literature. Although this has obviously been of concern to other writers on ELT methodology, suggestions for exploitation of literary resources in the Whole Language classroom will be familiar to language teachers with a similar interest in the use of literature in support of second language learning. What differs in Whole Language teaching is not the incidental use of such activities based on the topic of the lesson or an item in the syllabus, but their use as part of an overall philosophy of teaching and learning that gives a new meaning and purpose to such activities.

The following is an example of the use of literary pieces in a Whole Language workshop and involves activities built around the use of "Parallel Texts." Two English translations of the same short story is an example of Parallel Texts. Study of the two translations highlights the range of linguistic choices open to the writer (and translator) in the contrast of linguistic choices made by the translators and the responses made to these choices by the students as readers. In pairs, one student acts as presenter/ interpreter of one of the two short-story translations and a partner acts as presenter/interpreter of the other. Parallel Texts: Opening sentences from two translations of a Korean short story.

la. "Cranes" by Hwang-Sun-Won (translated by Kevin O'Rourke)

"The village on the northern side of the 38th parallel frontier was ever so quiet and desolate beneath the high, clear autumn sky. White gourds leaned on white gourds as they swayed in the yard of an empty house."

lb. "The Crane" by Hwang Sun-Won (translated by Kim Se-young)

"The northern village at the border of the 38th Parallel was ever so snug under the bright high autumn sky. In the space between the two main rooms of the empty farm house a white empty gourd was lying against another white empty gourd."

Examples of student activities based on parallel texts:

- Think of the village as described in la and lb as two different villages. Which one would you choose to live in? Why?
- Do the contrasting opening sentences set up any different expectations in the reader as to what kind of story will follow and what the tone of the story will be?
- On a map of Korea, each partner should indicate where he/she thinks the village is located. Are the locations the same? If not, why not?
- Write an opening sentence of a short story in which you briefly introduce the village of la as it might appear in winter rather than autumn.
- Write two parallel text opening sentences in which you describe in different words a village you know. Ask a partner which village he/she prefers.
- Discuss what different kinds of stories might follow on the basis of the opening sentences. Write an original first sentence of this story thinking of yourself as "translator" and drawing on both translations as your resources. (Rodgers 1993)

Lesson-14

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES METHOD

Topic-066: Background of Multiple Intelligences Method

(MI) refers to a learner-based philosophy that characterizes human intelligence as having multiple dimensions that must be acknowledged and developed in education. Traditional IQ or intelligence tests are based on a test called the Stanford-Binet, founded on the idea that intelligence is a single, unchanged, inborn capacity. However, traditional IQ tests, while still given to most schoolchildren, are increasingly being challenged by the MI movement. MI is based on the work of Howard Gardner of the Harvard Graduate School of Education (Gardner1993). Gardner notes that traditional IQ tests measure only logic and language, yet the brain has other equally important types of intelligence. Gardner argues that all humans have these intelligences, but people differ in the strengths and combinations of intelligences. He believes that all of them can be enhanced through training and practice. MI thus belongs to a group of instructional perspectives that focus on differences between learners and the need to recognize learner differences in teaching. Learners are viewed as possessing individual learning styles, preferences, or intelligences.

Pedagogy is most successful when these learner differences are acknowledged, analyzed for particular groups of learners, and accommodated in teaching. In both general education and language teaching, a focus on individual differences has been a recurring theme in the last 30 or so years, as seen in such movements or approaches as Individualized Instruction, Autonomous Learning, Learner Training, and Learner Strategies. The Multiple Intelligences model shares a number of commonalities with these earlier proposals.

Gardner (1993) proposed a view of natural human talents that is labeled the "Multiple Intelligences Model." This model is one of a variety of learning style models that have been proposed in general education and have subsequently been applied to language education (see, e.g., Christison 1998). Gardner claims that his view of intelligence(s) is culture-free and avoids the conceptual narrowness usually associated with traditional models of intelligence (e.g., the Intelligent Quotient [IQ] testing model). Gardner posits eight native intelligences," which are described as follows:

- Linguistic: the ability to use language in special and creative ways, which is something lawyers, writers, editors, and interpreters are strong in.
- Logical/mathematical: the ability to think rationally, often found with doctors, engineers, programmers, and scientists.
- Spatial: the ability to form mental models of the world, something architects, decorators, sculptors, and painters are good at.
- Musical: a good ear for music, as is strong in singers and composers.
- Bodily/kinesthetic: having a well-coordinated body, something found in

athletes and craftspersons.

- Interpersonal: the ability to be able to work well with people, which is strong in salespeople, politicians, and teachers.
- Intrapersonal: the ability to understand oneself and apply one's talent successfully, which leads to happy and well-adjusted people in all areas of life.
- Naturalist: the ability to understand and organize the patterns of nature.

The idea of Multiple Intelligences has attracted the interest of many educators as well as the general public. Schools that use MI theory encourage learning that goes beyond traditional books, pens, and pencils. Teachers and parents who recognize their learners'/children's particular gifts and talents can provide learning activities that build on those inherent gifts. As a result of strengthening such differences, individuals are free to be intelligent in their own ways.

Other "intelligences" have been proposed, such as Emotional Intelligence, Mechanical Intelligence, and Practical Intelligence, but Gardner defends his eight-dimensional model of intelligence by claiming that the particular intelligences he has nominated are verified by eight data-based "signs."

Signs include such clues as an intelligence having a distinct developmental and a distinct evolutionary history; that is, within individuals there is a similar sequence of development of an intelligence beginning in early childhood and continuing into maturity. This sequence will be universal for individuals but unique to each intelligence. Similarly, each intelligence is deeply embedded in evolutionary history. Human tool using, for example, has such an evidential evolutionary history and is an example, Gardner says, of bodily/kinesthetic intelligence.

Topic-067: Approach and Theory of Language and Language Learning behind Multiple Intelligences Method

MI theory was originally proposed by Gardner (1993) as a contribution to cognitive science. Fairly early on, it was interpreted by some general educators, such as Armstrong (1994), as a framework for rethinking school education. Some schools in the United States have indeed remade their educational programs around the MI model. Applications of MI in language teaching have been more recent, so it is not surprising that MI theory lacks some of the basic elements that might link it more directly to language education. One lack is a concrete view of how MI theory relates to any existing language and/or language learning theories, though attempts have been made to establish such links (e.g., Reid 1997; Christison 1998). It certainly is fair to say that MI proposals look at the language of an individual, including one or more second languages, not as an "added on" and somewhat peripheral skill but as central to the whole life of the language learner and user. In this sense, language is held to be integrated with music, bodily activity, interpersonal relationships, and so on. Language is not seen as limited to a "linguistics" perspective, but encompasses all aspects of communication.

Language learning and use are obviously closely linked to what MI theorists label "Linguistic Intelligence." However, MI proponents believe there is more to language than what is usually subsumed under the rubric linguistics. There are aspects of language such as rhythm, tone, volume, and pitch that are more closely linked, say, to a theory of music than to a theory of linguistics. Other intelligences enrich the tapestry of communication we call "language." In addition, language has its ties to life through the senses. The senses provide the accompaniment and context for the linguistic message that give it meaning and purpose. A multisensory view of language is necessary, it seems, to construct an adequate theory of language as well as an effective design for language learning. A widely accepted view of intelligence is that intelligence – however measured and in whatever circumstance - comprises a single factor, usually called the "g" factor. From this point of view, "Intelligence (g) can be described as the ability to deal with cognitive complexity. The vast majority of intelligence researchers take these findings for granted." (Gottfredson 1998, p. 24) One popular explication of this view sees intelligence as a hierarchy with 'g' at the apex of the hierarchy: more specific aptitudes are arrayed at successively lower levels: the so-called group factors, such as verbal ability, mathematical reasoning, spatial visualization and -memory, are just below g, and below these are skills that are more dependent on knowledge or experience, such as the principles and practices of a particular job or profession. (Gottfredson 1998, p. 3)

The view of Gardner (and some other cognitive scientists) "contrasts markedly with the view that intelligence is based on a unitary or 'general' ability for problem solving" (Teele 2000, p. 27). In Gardrier view, there exists a cluster of mental abilities that are separate but equal and that share the pinnacle at the top of the hierarchy called intelligence - thus, the eight Multiple Intelligences that Gardner has described. One way of looking at the learning theoretical argument is to apply the logic of the single factor (g) model to the multiple Intelligences model. The single factor model correlates higher intelligence (+g) with greater speed and efficiency of neural processing; that is, the higher the g factor in the individual, the greater the speed and efficiency of that individual's brain in performing cognitive operations (Gottfredson 1998, p. 3). If there is not one I but several I's, then one can assume that the speed and efficiency of neural processing will be greatest when a particular I is most fully exercised; that is, if a language learner has a high musical intelligence, that person will learn most quickly (e.g., a new language) when that content is embedded in a musical frame.

Topic-068: Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Multiple Intelligences Method

Objectives

There are no goals stated for MI instruction in linguistic terms. MI pedagogy focuses on the language class as the setting for a series of educational support systems aimed at making the language learner a better designer of his/her own learning experiences. Such a learner is both, better empowered and more fulfilled than a learner in traditional classrooms. A more goal-directed learner and happier person is held to be a likely

candidate for being a better second language learner and user.

Syllabus

Also, there is no syllabus as such, either prescribed or recommended, in respect to MI based language teaching. However, there is a basic developmental sequence that has been proposed (Lazear 1991) as an alternative to what we have elsewhere considered as a type of "syllabus" design. The sequence consists of four stages:

Stage 1: Awaken the Intelligence. Through multisensory experiences like touching, smelling, tasting, seeing, and so on - learners can be sensitized to the many-faceted properties of objects and events in the world that surrounds them.

Stage 2: Amplify the Intelligence. Students strengthen and improve the intelligence by volunteering objects and events of their own choosing and defining with others the properties and contexts of experience of these objects and events.

Stage 3: Teach with/for the Intelligence. At this stage the intelligence is linked to the focus of the class, that is, to some aspect of language learning. This is done via worksheets and small-group projects and discussion.

Stage 4: Transfer of the Intelligence. Students reflect on the learning experiences of the previous three stages and relate these to issues and challenges in the out-of-class world. MI has been applied in many different types of classrooms. In some, there are eight self-access activity corners, each corner built around one of the eight intelligences. Students work alone or in pairs on intelligence foci of their own choosing.

Nicholson-Nelson (1998, p. 73) describes how MI can be used to individualize learning through project work. She lists four types of learning activities.

Learning Activities

- Multiple intelligence projects: These are based on one or more of the intelligences and are designed to stimulate particular intelligences.
- Curriculum-based projects: These are based on curriculum content are make use of as but are categorized according to the particular intelligences they
- Thematic-based projects: These are based on a theme from the curriculum or classroom but are divided into different intelligences. 4. Resource-based projects: These are designed to provide students with opportunities to research a topic using multiple intelligences.
- Student-choice projects: These are designed by students and draw on particular intelligences.

In other more fully teacher-fronted classrooms, the students move through a cycle of

activities highlighting use of different intelligences in the activities that the teacher has chosen and orchestrated.

The following list summarizes several of the alternative views as to how the MI model can be used to serve the needs of language learners within a classroom setting:

1. **Play to strength**: If you want an athlete or a musician (or a student having some of these talents) to be an involved and be a successful language learner, structure the learning material for each individual (or similar group of individuals) around these strengths.

2. **Variety is the spice:** Providing a teacher-directed rich mix of learning activities variously calling upon the eight different intelligences makes for an interesting, lively, and effective classroom for all students. Pick a tool to suit the job. Language has a variety of dimensions, levels, and functions. These different facets of language are best served instructionally by linking their learning to the most appropriate kind of MI activity.

3. **All sizes fit one:** Every individual exercises all intelligences even though some of these may be out of awareness or undervalued. Pedagogy that appeals to all the intelligences speaks to the "whole person" in ways that more uninfected approaches do not. An MI approach helps to develop the Whole Person within each learner, which best serves the person's language learning requirements as well.

4. **Me and my people:** IQ testing is held to be badly biased in favor of Western views of intelligence. Other cultures may value other intelligences more than the one measured in IQ testing. Since language learning involves culture learning as well, it is useful for the language learner to study language in a context that recognizes and honors a range of diversely valued intelligences.

Each of these views has strengths and weaknesses, some of a theoretical, some of a pedagogical, and some of a practical nature. It seems that potential MI teachers need to consider each of these possible applications of MI theory in light of their individual teaching situations.

Topic-069: Roles of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in Multiple Intelligences Method

Campbell notes that the MI theory "is not prescriptive. Rather, it gives teachers a complex mental model from which to construct curriculum and improve themselves as educators" (Campbell 1997: 19). In this view, teachers are expected to understand, master, and be committed to the MI model. Teachers are encouraged to administer an MI inventory on themselves and thereby be able to "connect one's life's experiences to their concept of Multiple Intelligences" (Christison 1997, p. 7). (The MI inventory is a short checklist that enables users to create their own MI profiles and use these as a guide to

designing and reflecting upon their learning experiences. [Christison 1997) Teachers then become curriculum developers, lesson designers and analysts, activity finders or inventors, and, most critically orchestrators of a rich array of multisensory activities within the realistic constraints of time, space, and resources of the classroom. Teachers are encouraged not to think of themselves merely as language teachers. They have a role that is not only to improve the second language abilities of their students but to become major "contributors to the overall development of students' intelligences" (Christison 1999, p. 12). Like teachers, learners need to see themselves engaged in a process of personality development above and beyond that of being successful language learners. The MI classroom is one designed to support development of the "whole person," and the environment and its activities are intended to enable students to become more well-rounded individuals and more successful learners in general. Learners are encouraged to see their goals in these broader terms. Learners are typically expected to take an MI inventory and develop their own MI profiles based on the inventory. "The more awareness students have of their own intelligences and how they work, the more they will know how to use that intelligence to access the necessary information and knowledge from a lesson" (Christison 1997, p. 9). All of this is to enable learners to benefit from instructional approaches by reflecting on their own learning.

MI is richest in proposals for lesson organization, multisensory activity planning, and in using realia. There are also a number of reports of actual teaching experiences from an MI perspective that are both teacher-friendly and candid in their reportage.

Topic-070: Procedure in Multiple Intelligences Method

Christison describes a low-level language lesson dealing with description of physical objects. The lesson plan recapitulates the sequence described earlier in the "Design" section.

Stage 1: Awaken the Intelligence. The teacher brings many different objects to class. Students experience feeling things that are soft, rough, cold, smooth, and so on. They might taste things that are sweet, salty, sour, spicy, and so on. Experiences like this help activate and make learners aware of the sensory bases of experience.

Stage 2: Amplify the Intelligence. Students are asked to bring objects to class or to use something in their possession. Teams of students describe each object attending to the five physical senses. They complete a worksheet including the information they have observed and discussed (Table 2).

Stage 3: Teach with/for the Intelligence. At this stage, the teacher structures larger sections of lesson(s) so as to re-enforce and emphasize sensory experiences and the language that accompanies these experiences. Students work in groups, perhaps completing a worksheet such as that shown in Table 3.

Stage 4: Transfer of the Intelligence. This stage is concerned with application of the intelligence to daily living. Students are asked to reflect on both the content of the lesson and its operational procedures (working in groups, completing tables, etc.).

The Sensory Handout

Name of team
Team members
Sight
Sound
Feel
Smell
Size
What it's used for -
Name of the object
What am I describing?
Directions: Work with your group. Listen as the teacher reads the description of the object. Discuss what you hear with your group. Together, decide which object in the class is being described.

Name of the Object

Object 1
Object 2
Object 3
Object 4
Object 5

Next, have each group describe an object in the classroom using the formula given in Stage 2. Then, collect the papers and read them, one at a time. Ask each group to work together to write down the name of the object in the classroom that you are describing.

This particular lesson on describing objects is seen as giving students opportunities to "develop their linguistic intelligence (for example, describing objects), logical intelligence (for example, determining which object is being described), visual/spatial intelligence (for example, determining how to describe things), interpersonal intelligence (for example, working in groups), and intrapersonal intelligence (for example, reflecting on one's own involvement in the lesson)" (Christison 1997, p. 10-12).

Conclusion

Multiple Intelligences is an increasingly popular approach to characterizing the ways in which learners are unique and to developing instruction to respond to this uniqueness. MI is one of a set of such perspectives dealing with learner differences and borrows heavily from these in its recommendations and designs for lesson planning. The literature on MI

provides a rich source of classroom ideas regardless of one's theoretical perspective, and can help teachers think about instruction in their classes in unique ways. Some teachers may see the assumptions of identifying and responding to the variety of ways in which students differ to be unrealistic in their own settings and antithetical to the expectations of their students and administrators. There are entire schools as well as language programs being restructured around the MI perspective. Evaluation of how successful these innovations are will be needed to more fully evaluate the claims of MI in education and in second language teaching.

Lesson-15

NEUROLINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

Topic-071: Background, Approach and Theory behind Neurolinguistic Programming

Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) refers to a training philosophy and a set of training techniques first developed by John Grindler and Richard Bandler in the mid-1970s as an alternative form of therapy. Grindler (a psychologist) and Bandler (a student of linguistics) were interested in how people influence each other and how the behaviors of very effective people could be duplicated. They were essentially interested in discovering how successful communicators achieved their success. They studied successful therapists and concluded that they "followed similar patterns in relating to their clients and in the language they used, and that they all held similar beliefs about themselves and what they were doing" (Revell and Norman 1997, p. 14). Grindler and Bandler developed NLP as a system of techniques that therapists could use in building rapport with clients, gathering information about their internal and external views of the world, and helping them achieve goals and bring about personal change. They sought to fill what they perceived to be a gap in psychological thinking and practice of the early 1970s by developing a series of step-by-step procedures that would enable people to improve themselves.

NLP is a collection of techniques, patterns, and strategies for assisting effective communication, personal growth and change, and learning. It is based on a series of underlying assumptions about how the mind works and how people act and interact (Revell and Norman 1997, p. 14).

The NLP model provides a theoretical framework and a set of working principles for directing or guiding therapeutic change, but the principles of NLP have been applied in a variety of other fields, including management training, sports training, communications sales and marketing, and language teaching. Since NLP is a set of general communication techniques, NLP practitioners generally are required to take training in how to use the techniques in their respective fields. NLP was not developed with any applications to language teaching in mind. However, because the assumptions of NLP refer to attitudes to life, to people, and to self-discovery and awareness, it has some appeal within language teaching to those interested in what we have called humanistic approaches - that is, approaches that focus on developing one's sense of self-actualization and self-awareness, as well as to those drawn to what has been referred to as New Age Humanism.

Approach and Theory of Language and Learning for Neurolinguistic Programming

The name "Neurolinguistic Programming" might lead one to expect that it is based on the science of neurolinguistics and that it also draws on behaviorist theories of learning. However, in NLP, neuro refers to beliefs about the brain and how it functions. The

literature on NLP does not refer to theory or research in neurolinguistics. In fact, research plays virtually no role in the NLP. Linguistic has nothing to do with the field of linguistics but refers to a theory of communication, one that tries to explain both verbal and nonverbal information processing. Programming refers to observable patterns (referred to as "programs") of thought and behavior. NLP practitioners claim to be able to deprogram and program clients' behaviors with a precision close to computer programming. Learning effective behaviors is viewed as a problem of skill learning. It is dependent on moving from stages of controlled to automatic processing (O'Connor and McDermott 1996, p. 6). Modeling is also central to NLP views on learning.

Modeling a skill means finding out about it, and the beliefs and values that enable them to do it. You can also model emotions, experiences, beliefs and values. Modeling successful performance leads to excellence. If one person can do something, it is possible to model and teach others how to do it. (O'Connor and McDermott 1996, p. 71)

Revell and Norman offer the following explanation of the name:

The neuro part of NLP is concerned with how we experience the world through our five senses and represent it in our minds through our neurological processes. The linguistic part of NLP is concerned with the way the language we use shapes, as well as reflects, our experience of the world. We use language - in thought as well as in speech - to represent the world to ourselves and to embody our beliefs about the world and about life. If we change the way we speak and think about things, we can change our behavior. We can also use language to help other people who want to change.

The programming part of NLP is concerned with training ourselves to think, speak, and act in new and positive ways in order to release our potential and reach those heights of achievement which we previously only dreamt of. (Revell and Norman 1997, p. 14)

Topic-072: Objectives and Presuppositions that Guide the Application of Neurolinguistic Programming

Objectives

Four key principles lie at the heart of NLP (O'Connor and McDermott 1996; Revell and Norman 1997).

- Outcomes: the goals or ends. NLP claims that knowing precisely what you want helps you achieve it. This principle can be expressed as "know what you want."
- Rapport: a factor that is essential for effective communication maximizing similarities and minimizing differences between people at a non-conscious level. This principle can be expressed as "Establish rapport with yourself and then with others."
- Sensory acuity: noticing what another person is communicating, consciously and nonverbally. This can be expressed as "Use your senses. Look at, listen to, and feel

what is actually happening."

- Flexibility: doing things differently if what you are doing is not working: having a range of skills to do something else or something different. This can be expressed as "Keep changing what you do until you get what you want."

Presuppositions that Guide the Application

Revell and Norman (1997) present thirteen presuppositions that guide the application of NLP in language learning and other fields. The idea is that these principles become part of the belief system of the teacher and shape the way teaching is conducted no matter what method the teacher is using.

1. Mind and body are interconnected: They are parts of the same system, and each affects the other.
2. The map is not the territory: We all have different maps of the world.
3. There is no failure, only feedback and a renewed opportunity for success.
4. The map becomes the territory: What you believe to be true either is true or becomes true.
5. Knowing what you want helps you get it.

Topic-073: Role of Teacher and Learner in Neurolinguistic Programming

Revell and Norman's book (1997) on NLP in English-language teaching seeks to relate each of these principles to language teaching. For example, in discussing principle - "Communication is nonverbal as well as verbal" - they discuss the kinds of nonverbal messages teachers consciously or unconsciously communicate to learners in the classroom. As noted earlier, modeling is also central to NLP practice. Just as Bandler and Grinder modeled NLP on the practices of successful therapists, so teachers are expected to model their teaching on expert teachers they most admire. Similarly, learners are expected to find successful models for that person they themselves are striving to become.

If you want to be an excellent teacher, model excellent teachers, look at what they do, how they act, what sort of relationship they have with their students and colleagues. Ask them how they feel about what they do. What are their beliefs? Second, position them. Imagine what it is like to be them. As you learn techniques and strategies, put them into practice. Share modeling strategies with students. Set the project of modeling good learners. Encourage them to share and try out strategies they learn. (Revell and Norman 1997, p. 116)

What do NLP language teachers do that makes them different from other language teachers? According to NLP, they seek to apply the principles in their teaching and this leads to different responses to many classroom events and processes. For example, one of the four central principles of NLP centers on the need for "rapport":

Rapport is meeting others in their world, trying to understand their needs, their values and their culture and communicating in ways that are congruent with those values. You don't necessarily have to agree with their values, simply recognize that they have a right to them and work within their framework, not against it. (Rylatt and Lohan 1995, p. 121)

Rylatt and Lohan give the following example of how a teacher might apply rapport in responding to the following statements from students:

- I hate this stuff. It's such a waste of time.
- Everyone says that. It makes me sick.
- I can't do it.
- This is all theory.

In establishing rapport, the teacher could respond:

- Is a part of you saying that you want to be sure your time is well spent today?
- Who says that?
- What, specifically, can't you do?
- Are you saying you want practical suggestions?

Likewise, the principle - "All behavior has a positive intention" - would lead the teacher to seek for a positive intent in the following situations:

- A learner disagrees strongly with the teacher.
- A student frequently comes late to class.
- A student seeks to dominate discussions.

The possible positive intents here could be:

- wanting to have expertise acknowledged
- having other important priorities
- needing to vocalize thoughts in order to internalize them

Topic-074: Procedure of Neurolinguistic Programming

NLP principles can be applied to the teaching of all aspects of language, according to Revell and Norman. For example, the following suggested lesson sequence is "to help students become aware at a feeling level of the conceptual meaning of a grammatical structure." The primary focus of the sequence is awareness (and, indeed, production) of instances of the present perfect in English. The lesson begins with a guided fantasy of eating a food item and then reflecting on the experience.

1. Students are told that they are going on an "inner grammatical experience as you eat a

biscuit."
2. Check that they understand vocabulary of the experience (smell, taste, chew, swallow, bite, lick, etc.).
3. Students 'are asked to relax, close their eyes, and "go inside." Once "inside," they listen to the teacher-produced fantasy, which is given as the following:
4. (An abbreviated version of the teacher text) "Imagine a biscuit. A delicious biscuit. The sort you really like. Pick it up and look at it closely. Notice how crisp and fresh it is. Smell it. Notice how your mouth is beginning to water. In a moment you are going to eat the biscuit. Say the words to yourself: 'I am going to eat this biscuit.'

"Slowly chew the biscuit and notice how delicious it tastes on your tongue and in your mouth.... Say the words to yourself, `I'm really enjoying eating this biscuit.'

"Take another bite. Chew it. Taste it. Enjoy it... . And then swallow. Lick your lips, move your tongue all around the inside of your mouth to catch any last bits of biscuit, and swallow them.
"Notice how you feel now. Notice the taste in your mouth. Notice how your stomach feels with a biscuit inside it. Notice how you feel emotionally. You have eaten a biscuit. Say the words to yourself, `I've eaten a biscuit.

"How are you feeling now? Think of the words to describe how you are feeling now. Take a deep breath and gently come back to the room, bringing the' feeling with you. Open your eyes."

5. Ask the students to describe how they are feeling now - "the feeling of the present perfect." Listen for any statements that link the past experience of eating the biscuit with their present feelings (e.g., "I feel full," "I'm not hungry anymore," "I've got a nice taste in my mouth," "I feel fat").
6. Ask them to say again the sentence that describes the cause of the way they feel ("I've eaten a biscuit").
7. Put a large piece of paper on the wall with the words "I've eaten a biscuit" at the top. Have students write how they feel underneath.
8. On other pieces of paper, write sentences such as: I've painted a picture. I've had a row with my boy/girlfriend. I've finished my homework. I've cleaned my teeth.
9. Ask students to stand in front of each sentence, close their eyes, and strongly imagine what they have done in order to be saying that sentence now.
10. Students write on the paper how they feel now about these sentences.
11. Leave the papers on the wall as a reminder of the feeling link to the grammatical structure.
12. As follow-up, contrast the feeling of the present perfect with the feeling of the simple past. Ask students to remember the things they did in the last lesson ("I ate a biscuit"). Ask them to close their eyes and notice how they are feeling now. Contrast this feeling with the feeling they remember from the last lesson and which they wrote down on the papers.

13. Ask them to say the sentence "Yesterday, I ate a biscuit."
14. Discuss the comparison between the feelings ("I remember the taste, but I can't actually taste it").
15. You can do similar exercises to exemplify other tenses using different tastes and sensory experiences.

Topic-075: Critical Comments on Neurolinguistic Programming

NLP is not a language teaching method. It does not consist of a set of techniques for teaching a language based on theories and assumptions at the level of an approach and a design. Rather, it is a humanistic philosophy and a set of beliefs and suggestions based on popular psychology, designed to convince people that they have the power to control their own and other people's lives for the better and practical prescriptions on how to do so. NLP practitioners believe that if language teachers adopt and use the principles of NLP, they will become more effective teachers. Workshops on NLP are hence typically short on theory and research to justify its claims and strong on creating positive expectations, bonding, and enthusiasm. As Revell and Norman comment, the assumptions on which NLP are based "need not be accepted as the absolute truth, but acting as if they were true can make a world of difference in your life and in your teaching" (1997, p. 15). In language teaching, the appeal of NLP to some teachers stems from the fact that it offers a set of humanistic principles that provide either a new justification for well-known techniques from the communicative or humanistic repertoire or a different interpretation of the role of the teacher and the learner, one in harmony with many learner-centered, person-centered views.

Lesson-16

THE LEXICAL APPROACH

Topic-076: Background of the Lexical Approach

Central to an approach or method in language teaching is a view of the nature of language, and this shapes teaching goals, the type of syllabus that is adopted, and the emphasis given in classroom teaching. A lexical approach in language teaching refers to one derived from the belief that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is, words and word combinations. Lexical approaches in language teaching reflect a belief in the centrality of the lexicon to language structure, second language learning, and language use, and in particular to multiword lexical units or "chunks" that are learned and used as single items. Linguistic theory has also recognized a more central role for vocabulary in linguistic description. Formal transformational/generative linguistics, which previously took syntax as the primary focus, now gives more central attention to the lexicon and how the lexicon is formatted, coded, and organized. Chomsky, the father of contemporary studies in syntax, has recently adopted a "lexicon-is-prime" position in his Minimalist Linguistic theory.

The role of lexical units has been stressed in both first and second language acquisition research. These have been referred to by many different labels, including "holophrases" (Corder 1973), "prefabricated patterns" (Hakuta 1974), "gambits" (Keller 1979), "speech formulae" (Peters 1983), and "lexicalized stems" (Pawley and Syder 1983). Several approaches to language learning have been proposed that view vocabulary and lexical units as central in learning and teaching. These include The Lexical Syllabus (Willis 1990), Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992), and The Lexical Approach (Lewis 1993). Advances in computer-based studies of language (referred to as corpus linguistics) have also provided a huge, classroom-accessible database for lexically based inquiry and instruction. These studies have focused on collocations of lexical items and multiple word units. A number of lexically based texts and computer resources have become available to assist in organizing and teaching the lexicon.

Lexical approaches in language teaching seek to develop proposals for syllabus design and language teaching founded on a view of language in which lexis plays the central role.

Topic-077: Approach and Theory of Language and Learning of the Lexical Approach

Chomsky's influential theory of language emphasized the capacity of speakers to create and interpret sentences that are unique and have never been produced or heard previously. In contrast, the lexical view holds that only a minority of spoken sentences is entirely novel creations and that multiword units functioning as "chunks" or memorized patterns

form a high proportion of the fluent stretches of speech heard in everyday conversation (Pawley and Syder 1983). The role of collocation is also important in lexically based theories of language. Collocation refers to the regular occurrence together of words. For example, compare the following collocations of verbs with nouns:
do my hair/the cooking/the laundry/my work
make my bed/a promise/coffee/a meal

Many other lexical units also occur in language. For example:

Binomials: clean and tidy, back to front
Trinomials: cool, calm, and collected
Idioms:. dead drunk, to run up a bill
Similes: as old as the hills
Connectives: finally, to conclude
Conversational gambits: Guess what!

These and other types of lexical units are thought to play a central role in learning and in communication. Studies based on large-scale computer databases of language corpora have examined patterns of phrase and clause sequences as they appear in samples of various kinds of texts, including spoken samples. Three important UK-based corpora are the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus, and the British National Corpus, the latter of which contains more than 300 million words. These and other corpora are important sources of information about collocations and other multiword units in English.

Lexis is also believed to play a central role in language learning. Natringer commented: Perhaps we should base our teaching on the assumption that, for a great deal of the time anyway, language production consists of piecing together the ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation and that comprehension relies on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these situations. Our teaching, therefore, would center on these patterns and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur (Nattinger 1980, p. 341).

However, if as Pawley and Syder estimate, native speakers have hundreds of thousands of prepackaged phrases in their lexical inventory, the implications for second language learning are uncertain. How might second language learners, lacking the language experiential base of native speakers, approach the daunting task of internalizing this massive inventory of lexical usage?

Krashen suggests that massive amounts of "language input" especially through reading are the only effective approach to such learning. Others propose making the language class a laboratory in which learners can explore, via computer concordance databases, the contexts of lexical use that occur in different kinds of texts and language data. A third approach to learning lexical chunks has been "contrastive". Some applied linguists have

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suggested that for a number of languages, there is an appreciable degree of overlap in the form and meaning of lexical collocations. Bahns (1993, p. 58) suggests that "the teaching of lexical collocations in EFL should concentrate on items for which there is no direct translational equivalence in English and in the learners' respective mother tongues." Regardless of the learning route taken, a massive learning load seems an unavoidable consequence of a lexical approach in second language instruction.

Lewis (2000) acknowledges that the lexical approach has lacked a coherent learning theory and attempts to rectify this with the following assumptions about learning theory in the lexical approach (Lewis 2000, p. 184):

- Encountering new learning items on several occasions is necessary, but requires sufficient conditions for learning to occur.
- Noticing lexical chunks or collocations is necessary but does not have sufficient condition for "input" to become "intake."
- Noticing similarities, differences, restrictions, and examples contributes to turning input into intake, although formal description of rules probably do not help.

Acquisition is based not on the application of formal rules but on an accumulation of examples from which learners make provisional generalizations. Language production is the product of previously met examples, not formal rules. No linear syllabus can adequately reflect the nonlinear nature of acquisition.

Topic-078: Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in the Lexical Approach

Objectives

The rationale and design for lexically based language teaching described in The Lexical Syllabus (Willis 1990) and the application of it in the Collins COBUILD English Course represent the most ambitious attempt to realize a syllabus and accompanying materials based on lexical rather than grammatical principles.

Syllabus and Learning Activities

Willis notes that the COBUILD computer analyses of texts indicate that the 700 most frequent words of English account for around 70% of all English text. This "fact" led to the decision that word frequency would determine the contents of our course. Level I would aim to cover the most frequent 700 words together with their common patterns and uses" (Willis 1990: vi). In one respect, this work resembled the earlier frequency-based analyses of vocabulary by West (1953) and Thorndike and Longe (1944). The difference in the COBUILD course was the attention to word patterns derived from the computer analysis. Willis stresses, however, that "the lexical syllabus not only subsumes a structural syllabus, it also indicates how the structures which make up syllabus should be

exemplified" since the computer corpus reveals the commonest structural patterns in which words are used (Willis 1990, p. vi). Other proposals have been put forward as to how lexical material might be organized for instruction. Nation (1999) reviews a variety of criteria for classifying collocations and chunks and suggests approaches to instructional sequencing and treatment for different types of collocations. Nattinger and DeCarrico propose using a functional schema for organizing instruction

Distinguishing lexical phrases as social interactions, necessary topics, and discourse devices seems to us the most effective distinction for pedagogical purposes, but that is not to say that a more effective way of grouping might not be found necessary in the wake of further research. (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992, p. 185) Nattinger and DeCarrico provide exemplification of the lexical phrases that exemplify these categories for English and several other languages.

Topic-079: Role of Learners, Teachers, and Materials in the Lexical Approach

Role of the Teacher

Specific roles for teachers and learners are also assumed in a lexical approach. Lewis supports Krashen's Natural Approach procedures and suggests that teacher talk is a major source of learner input in demonstrating how lexical phrases are used for different functional purposes. Willis proposes that teachers need to understand and manage a classroom methodology based on stages composed of Task, Planning, and Report. In general terms, Willis views the teacher's role as one of creating an environment in which learners can operate effectively and then helping learners manage their own learning. This requires that teachers "abandon the idea of the teacher as `knower' and concentrate instead on the idea of the ‘learner’ as ‘discoverer’” (Willis 1990, p. 131).

Role of the Learner

Others propose that learners make use of computers to analyze text data previously collected or made available "free-form" on the Internet. Here the learner assumes the role of data analyst constructing his or her own linguistic generalizations based on examination of large corpora of language samples taken from "real life." In such schemes, teachers have a major responsibility for organizing the technological system and providing scaffolding to help learners build autonomy in use of the system. The most popular computer-based applications using corpora are built on the presentation of concordance lines to the learner that illustrates the contexts of use of some words or structures. However, learners need training in how to use the concordance effectively. Teaching assistance will be necessary in leading the learner, by example, through the different stages of lexical analysis such as observation, classification, and generalization.

Materials

Materials and teaching resources to support lexical approaches in language teaching are of at least four types. Type 1 consists of complete course packages including texts, tapes, teacher's manuals, such as the Collins COBUILD English Course and so on (Willis and Willis 1989). Type 2 is represented by collections of vocabulary teaching activities, such as those that appear in Lewis's Implementing the Lexical Approach (Lewis 1997). Type 3 consists of "printout" versions of computer corpora collections packaged in text format. Tribble and Jones (1990) include such materials with accompanying student exercises based on the corpora printouts. Type 4 materials are computer concordancing programs and attached data sets to allow students to set up and carry out their own analyses. These are typically packaged in CD-ROM form, such as Oxford's Micro Concord, or can be downloaded from sites on the Internet. An example of the kinds of displays that appear in text materials and in the concordancing displays from which the printout materials derived is illustrated below. The difference between how the vocabulary items "predict" and "forecast" are used and how they collocate is not easy to explain. However, access to these items in context in the computer corpus allows students (and their teachers) to see how these words actually behave in authentic textual use. Corpus samples are usually presented in the limited context form exemplified here.

Some contexts of Predict

1. involved in copper binding. Our findings predict that examples of selective editing of mitocho
2. the stratosphere. The present models predict that a cooling of the winter polar vortex by
3. analysis of this DNA we are able to predict the complete amino-acid sequence of the polyp
4. or this problem use the survey data to predict values on the vertical profile; by contrast,
S. the calcium-voltage hypothesis would predict an increase in release, locked in time to the

Some contexts of Forecast

1. calculations a second. The center makes forecasts 10 days ahead for 18 national meteorological
2. any action whose success hinges on a forecast being right. They might end up doing a lot
3. stands up in the House of Commons to forecast Britain's economic performance for the next
4. vice labor of its people. This gloomy forecast can be better understood by looking closely
5. but three months earlier the secret forecast carried out by Treasury economists suggested

Topic-080: Procedure of the Lexical Approach

Procedural sequences for lexically based language teaching vary depending on which of the four types of materials and activities outlined in the preceding section are employed. However, all designers, to some degree, assume that the learner must take on the role of "discourse analyst," with the discourse being either packaged data or data "found" via one of the text search computer programs. Classroom procedures typically involve the use of activities that draw students' attention to lexical collocations and seek to enhance their retention and use of collocations. Woolard (2000) suggests that teachers should reexamine their course books for collocations, adding exercises that focus explicitly on lexical phrases. They should also develop activities that enable learners to discover collocations themselves, both in the classroom and in the language they encounter outside of the classroom. Woolard (2000, p. 3S) comments: The learning of collocations is one aspect of language development which is ideally suited to independent language learning. In a very real sense, we can teach students to teach themselves. Collocation is mostly a matter of noticing and recording, and trained students should be able to explore texts for them- selves. Not only should they notice common collocations in the texts they meet, but more importantly, they should select those collocations which are crucial to their particular needs.

Hill (2000) suggests that classroom procedures involve (a) teaching individual collocations, (b) making students aware of collocation, (c) extending what students already know by adding knowledge of collocation restrictions to known vocabulary; and (d) storing collocations through encouraging students to keep a lexical notebook. Lewis (2000, pp. 20-21) gives the following example of how a teacher extends learners' knowledge of collocations while giving feedback on a learner's error.

S: I have to make an exam in the summer.
(T indicates mistake by facial expression.)
S: I have to make an exam.
T. (Writes `exam' on the board.)
What verb do we usually use with "exam"?
S2: Take.
T. Yes, that's right. (Writes "take" on the board.)
What other verbs do we use with "exam"? -
S2: Pass.
T: Yes. And the opposite?
5: Fail.
Mites "pass" and "fail" on the board.)
And if you fail an exam, sometimes you can do it again.
What's the verb for that? (Waits for response.)
No? OK, retake. You can retake an exam.
(Writes "retake" on the board.)

If you pass an exam with no problems, what can you say? I ..: passed.
S2: Easily.
T. Yes, or we often say "comfortably." I passed comfortably.
What about if you get Si and the pass mark is S0?
What can you say? I ... (Waits for response.)
No? I just passed. You can also just fail.

Lesson-17

COMPETENCY-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic-081: Background of Competency-Based Language Teaching

A general assumption is that by improving syllabuses, materials, and activities or by changing the role of learners and teachers, more effective language learning will take place. Competency-Based Education (CBE) by comparison is an educational movement that focuses on the outcomes or outputs of learning in the development of language programs. CBE addresses what the learners are expected to do with the language, however they learned to do it. The focus on outputs rather than on inputs to learning is central to the competencies perspective. CBE emerged in the United States in the 1970s and refers to an educational movement that advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of the knowledge, skills, and behaviors students should possess at the end of a course of study. The characteristics of CBE are described by Schenck (1978, p. vi): Competency-based education has much in common with such approaches to learning as performance-based instruction, mastery learning and individualized instruction. It is outcome-based and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community. Competencies differ from other student goals and objectives in that they describe the student's ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Thus CBE is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in real-life situations.

Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) is an application of the principles of Competency-Based Education to language teaching. Such an approach had been widely adopted by the end of the 1970s, particularly as the basis for the design of work-related and survival-oriented language teaching programs for adults. It has recently reemerged in some parts of the world (e.g., Australia) as a major approach to the planning of language programs. The Center for Applied Linguistics called competency- based ESL curricula "the most important breakthrough in adult ESL" (1983). By the 1990s, CBLT had come to be accepted as "the state-of-the-art approach to adult ESL by national policymakers and leaders in curriculum development as well" (Auerbach 1986, p. 411). By 1986, any refugee in the United States who wished to receive federal assistance had to be enrolled in a competency-based program (Auerbach 1986, p. 412). Typically, such programs were based on a performance outline of language tasks that lead to a demonstrated mastery of language associated with specific skills that are necessary for individuals to function proficiently in the society in which they live (Grognet and Crandall 1982, p. 3). Advocates of CBLT see it as a powerful and positive agent of change.

Competency-based approaches to teaching and assessment offer teachers an opportunity to revitalize their education and training programs. Not only will the quality of assessment improve, but the quality of teaching and student learning will be enhanced by the clear specification of expected outcomes and the continuous feedback that

competency-based assessment can offer. These beneficial effects have been observed at all levels and kinds of education and training, from primary school to university, and from academic studies to workplace training. (Docking 1994, p. 15)

The most recent realization of a competency perspective in the United States is found in the "standards" movement, which has dominated educational discussions since the 1990s. As Glaser and Linn note:

In the recounting of our nation's drive toward educational reform, the last decade of this century will undoubtedly be identified as the time when a concentrated press for national educational standards emerged. The press for standards was evidenced by the efforts of federal and state legislators, presidential and gubernatorial candidates, teacher and subject-matter specialists, councils, governmental agencies, and private foundations. (Glaser and Linn 1993, p. xiii)

Second language teaching, especially ESL in the United States, was a late entry in the standards movement. As the ESL project director for ESL standards development noted in 1997: It quickly became apparent to ESL educators in the United States at that time (1991) that the students we serve were not being included in the standards- setting movement that was sweeping the country. (Short 1997, p. 1)

The Washington, D.C. based Center for Applied Linguistics under contract to the TESOL organization, undertook to develop the K-12 "school" standards for ESL. These were completed in 1997. The ESL standards are framed around three goals and nine standards. Each standard is further explicated by descriptors, sample progress indicators, and classroom vignettes with discussions. The standards section is organized into grade-level clusters: pre-K-3, 4-8, and 9-12. Each cluster addresses all goals and standards with descriptors, progress indicators, and vignettes specific to that grade range.

CBLT also shares features of the graded objectives movement that was proposed as a framework for organizing foreign language teaching in Britain in the 1980s.

Graded objectives means the definition of a series of short-term goals, each building upon the one before, so that the learner advances in knowledge and skill. The setting up of graded objectives schemes in United Kingdom secondary schools has been one of the most remarkable phenomena in modern language learning over the last five years. (Page 1983, 292)

Topic-082: Approach and Theory of Language and Learning of Competency-Based Language Teaching

CBLT is based on a functional and interactional perspective on the nature of language. It seeks to teach language in relation to the social contexts in which it is used. Language always occurs as a medium of interaction and communication between people for the achievement of specific goals and purposes. CBLT has for this reason most often been

used as a framework for language teaching in situations where learners have specific needs and are in particular roles and where the language skills they need can be fairly accurately predicted or determined. It also shares with behaviorist views of learning, the notion that language form can be inferred from language function; that is, certain life encounters call for certain kinds of language. This assumes that designers of CBLT competencies can accurately predict the vocabulary and structures likely to be encountered in those particular situations that are central to the life of the learner and can state these in ways that can be used to organize teaching/learning units. Central to both language and learning theory is the view that language can be functionally analyzed into appropriate parts and subparts: that such parts and subparts can be taught (and tested) incrementally. CBLT thus takes a "mosaic" approach to language learning in that the "whole" (communicative competence) is constructed from smaller components correctly assembled. CBLT is also built around the notion of communicative competence and seeks to develop functional communication skills in learners. These skills are generally described in only the most general terms, rather than being linked to the performance of specific real-world tasks. CBLT thus shares some features with Communicative Language Teaching.

Topic-083: Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Competency-Based Language Teaching

Objectives

Docking (1994) points out that the traditional approach to developing a syllabus involves using one's understanding of subject matter as the basis for syllabus planning. One starts with the field of knowledge that one is going to teach (e.g., contemporary European history, marketing, listening comprehension, or French literature) and then selects concepts, knowledge, and skills that constitute that field of knowledge.

Syllabus

A syllabus and the course content are then developed around the subject. Objectives may also be specified, but these usually have little role in the teaching or assessing of the subject. Assessment of students is usually based on norm referencing, that is, students will be graded on a single scale with the expectation either that they are spread across a wide range of scores or that they conform to a preset distribution. A student receives a set of marks for his or her performance relative to other students, from which it is very difficult to make any form of judgment about the specific knowledge or skills a student has acquired. Indeed, two students may receive the same marks on a test but in fact have widely different capacities and knowledge in the subject.

CBT, by comparison is designed not around the notion of subject knowledge but around the notion of competency. The focus moves from what students know about language to what they can do with it. The focus on competencies or learning outcomes

underpins the curriculum framework and syllabus specification, teaching strategies, assessment and reporting. Instead of norm-referenced assessment, criterion-based assessment procedures are used in which learners are assessed according to how well they can perform on specific learning tasks. (Docking 1994, p. 16)

Learning Activities

Competencies consist of a description of the essential skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors required for effective performance of a real-world task or activity. These activities may be related to any domain of life, though have typically been linked to the field of work and to social survival in a new environment. For example, areas for which competencies have been developed in a vocationally oriented ESL curriculum for immigrants and refugees include:

- Task Performance
- Safety
- General Word-Related
- Work Schedules, Time Sheers, Paychecks
- Social Language
- Job Application
- Job Interview

For the area of "Retaining a Job", the following competencies are described:

- Follow instructions to carry out a simple task.
- Respond appropriately to supervisor's comments about quality of work on the job, including mistakes, working too slowly, and incomplete work.
- Request supervisor to check work.
- Report completion of task to supervisor.
- Request supplies.
- Ask where object is located: Follow oral directions to locate an object.
- Follow simple oral directions to locate a place.
- Read charts, labels, forms, or written instructions to perform a task.
- State problem and ask for help if necessary.
- Respond to inquiry as to nature or progress of current task. State amount and type of work already competed.
- Respond appropriately to work interruption or modification.

Docking (1994, p. 11) points out the relationship between competencies and job performance. A qualification or a job can be described as a collection of units of competency, each of which is composed on a number of elements of competency. A unit of competency might be a task, a role, a function, or a learning module. These will change over time, and will vary from context to context. An element of competency can be

defined as any attribute of an individual that contributes to the successful performance of a task, job, function, or activity in an academic setting and/or a work setting. This includes specific knowledge, thinking processes, attitudes, and perceptual and physical skills. Nothing is excluded that can be shown to contribute to performance. An element of competency has meaning independent of context and time. It is the building block for competency specifications for education, training, assessment, qualifications, tasks, and jobs.

Tollefson (1986) observes that the analysis of jobs into their constituent functional competencies in order to develop teaching objectives goes back to the mid-nineteenth century. In the 1860s, Spencer "outlined the major areas of human activity he believed should be the basis for curricular objectives." Similarly, in 1926, Bobbitt developed curricular objectives according to his analysis of the functional competencies required for adults living in America. This approach has been picked up and refined as the basis for the development of CBLT since the 1960s. Northrup (1977) reports on a study commissioned by the U.S. Office of Education in which a wide variety of tasks performed by adults in American society were analyzed and the behaviors needed to carry out the tasks classified into five knowledge areas and four basic skill areas. From this analysis, sixty-five competencies were identified. Docking (1994) describes how he was involved in a project in Australia in 1968 that involved specifying the competencies of more than a hundred trades.

Topic-084: Factors involved in the Implementation of Competency-Based Language Teaching Programs

Auerbach (1986) provides a useful review of factors involved in the implementation of CBE programs in ESL, and identifies eight key features:

1. A focus on successful functioning in society: The goal is to enable students to become autonomous individuals capable of coping with the demands of the world.
2. A focus on life skills rather than teaching language in isolation: CBLT teaches language as a function of communication about concrete tasks. Students are taught just those language forms/skills required by the situations in which they will function. These forms are determined by "empirical assessment of language required" (Findley and Nathan 1980, p. 224).
3. Task or performance-centered orientation: What counts is what students can do as a result of instruction. The emphasis is on overt behaviors rather than on knowledge or the ability to talk about language and skills.
4. Modularized instruction: "Language learning is broken down into manageable and immediately meaningful chunks" (Center for Applied Linguistics 1983, p. 2). Objectives are broken into narrowly focused sub-objectives so that both teachers and students can get a clear sense of progress.
5. Outcomes that are made explicit are a priority: Outcomes are public knowledge, known and agreed upon by both learner and teacher. They are specified in terms of

behavioral objectives so that students know exactly what behaviors are expected of them.

6 Continuous and ongoing assessment: Students are pretested to determine what skills they lack and post-tested after instruction in that skill. If they do not achieve the desired level of mastery, they continue to work on the objective and are retested. Program evaluation is based on test results and is considered objectively quantifiable.

7. Demonstrated mastery of performance objectives: Rather than the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, assessment are based on the ability to demonstrate pre-specified behaviors.

8. Individualized, student-centered instruction: In content, level, and pace, objectives are defined in terms of individual needs; prior learning and achievement are taken into account in developing curricula. Instruction is not time-based; students' progress at their own rates and concentrates on just those areas in which they lack competence (Auerbach 1986, pp. 414-415).

There are said to be several advantages of a competencies approach from the learner's point of view:

- The competencies are specific and practical and can be seen to relate to the learner's needs and interests.
- The learner can judge whether the competencies seem relevant and useful.
- The competencies that will be taught and tested are specific and public - hence the learner knows exactly what needs to be learned.
- Competences can be mastered one at a time so the learner can see what has been learned and what still remains to be learned.

Topic-085: Procedure and Criticism on Competency-Based Language Teaching

Procedure

Examples of how many of the principles apply in practice are seen in the works of the Australian Migrant Education Program, one of the largest providers of language training to immigrants in the world. The program has undergone a number of philosophical reorientations since the mid-1970s, moving from "centralized curriculum planning with its content-based and structural curriculum in the late 1970s, to decentralized learner-centred, needs-based planning with its multiplicity of methodologies and materials in the 1980s and yet more recently, to the introduction of competency-based curriculum frameworks" (Burns and Hood 1994, p. 76). In 1993, a competency-based curriculum, the Certificate in Spoken and Written English, was introduced as the framework for its programs. Learning outcomes are specified at three stages in the framework, leading to an Advanced Certificate in Spoken and Written English at Stage 4 of the framework. Hagan (1994, p. 22) describes how the framework operates:

After an initial assessment, students are placed within the framework on the basis of

their current English proficiency level, their learning pace, their needs, and their social goals for learning English. The twelve core competencies at Stages 1 and 2 relate to general language development. At stage 3, learners are more often grouped according to their goal focus, and competencies are defined according to the three syllabus strands of Further Study, Vocational English, and Community Access. The competency descriptions at each stage are divided into four domains:

- Knowledge and learning competencies
- Oral competencies
- Reading competencies
- Writing competencies

All competencies are described in terms of:

• Elements that break down the competency into smaller components and refer to the essential linguistic features of the text,
• Performance criteria that specify the minimal performance required to achieve a competency,
• Range of variables that sets limits for the performance of the competency - sample texts and assessment tasks that provide examples of texts and assessment tasks that relate to the competency.

Criticism on CBLT

Although CBLT has been embraced with enthusiasm by large sections of the ESL profession, it is not without its critics. These criticisms are both practical and philosophical. Tollefson (1986) argues that there are in fact no valid procedures available to develop competency lists for most programs. Many of the areas for which competencies are needed, such as "adult living," "survival," and "functioning proficiently in the community," are impossible to operationalize. Others have pointed out that dividing activities up into sets of competencies is a reductionist approach, and that the sum of the parts does not equal the complexity of the whole. Auerbach, summarizing the work of Paolo Friere and others, points out that CBLT reflects what Friere has characterized as a "banking" model of education. This assumes the following:

There is a structure of socially prescribed knowledge to be mastered by students. Here, the function of education is to transmit the knowledge and to socialise learners according to the values of the dominant socio-economic group. The teacher's job is to devise more and more effective ways to transmit skills: what counts is success in delivery. Educational progress is defined in terms of "improving" delivery systems. (Auerbach 1986, pp. 416-417)

CBLT is therefore seen as prescriptivist in that it prepares students to fit into the status

quo and maintain class relationships. In addition, teaching typically focuses on behavior and performance rather than on the development of thinking skills.

Because competencies are designed to enable learners to participate effectively in society, Tollefson and others have pointed out that they typically represent value judgments about what such participation involves. Competencies for refugee settlement programs in the United States, for example, attempt to inculcate attitudes and values that will make refugees passive citizens who accept the status quo rather than challenge it. Despite these criticisms, CBLT appears to be gaining strength internationally. Such outcomes-based approaches have, in particular, attracted a large political following from those seeking "accountability" for educational investment. As Rylatt and Lohan (1997, p. 18) conclude: "It can confidently be said, as we enter a new millennium, that the business of improving learning competencies and skills will remain one of the world's fastest growing industries and priorities."

Lesson-18
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACH

Topic-086: Background of Communicative Language Teaching Approach

The theoretical principles and classroom procedures of the language centered pedagogy shaped language teaching and teacher education for nearly a quarter century. However, by the late 1960s and early 1970s, researchers and teachers became increasingly skeptical about the effectiveness of the pedagogy to realize its stated goal of fostering communicative capability in the learner. The skepticism was grounded in the growing realization that the knowledge/ability required to correctly manipulate the structures of the target language is only a part of what is involved in learning and using it.

Although several applied linguists wrote about the state of language teaching, it was perhaps Newmark's seminal paper, "How Not to Interfere with Language Learning," published in 1966 that epitomized the doubts that prevailed among language teaching professionals, and opened up new avenues of pedagogic thought. He doubted whether language learning can be additive and linear as was steadfastly maintained by language-centered pedagogists. He asserted that if each phonological and syntactic rule, each complex of lexical features, each semantic value and stylistic nuance—in short, if each item which the linguist's analysis leads to identify had to be acquired one at a time, proceeding from the simplest item to the most complex, and had to be connected to specified stimuli or stimulus sets, the child learner would be old before he could say a single appropriate thing and the adult learner would be dead. (Newmark, 1966, p. 79)

So arguing, Newmark (1966) adopted the view that complex bits of language are learned a whole chunk at a time rather than learned as an assemblage of constituent items. He declared that language-centered pedagogy with its emphasis on sequential presentation, practice, and production of isolated linguistic items "constitutes serious interference with the language learning process" (p. 81). In making such a bold declaration, he was clearly ahead of his time. Although his provocative thoughts had to wait for full deployment until the advent of learning-centered methods, they certainly highlighted the inadequacy of language-centered methods, and prompted the search for an alternative method.

The search was accelerated by a congruence of important developments in social sciences and humanities. Interestingly, almost all of the developments either occurred or became prominent in the 1960s, precisely when dissatisfaction with language-centered pedagogy was growing.

In linguistics, Chomsky demonstrated the generative nature of the language system and hypothesized about the innate ability of the human mind to acquire it. Halliday provided a different perspective to language, highlighting its functional properties. In

sociolinguistics, Hymes proposed a theory of communicative competence incorporating sociocultural norms governing language communication. Austin's speech act theory elaborated on how language users perform speech acts such as requesting, informing, apologizing, and so forth. In psychology, behaviorism was yielding its preeminence to cognitivism, which believed in the role of human cognition as a mediator between stimulus and response. Sociologists were developing communication models to explain how language is used to construct social networks.

A development that was unrelated to the academic disciplines just mentioned, but one that hastened the search for an alternative method was the formation of European Economic Community (EEC), a common market of Western European countries, a precursor to the current European Union (EU). By deliberate policy, the EEC eased trade and travel restrictions within multilingual Europe, which in turn provided an impetus for greater interaction among the people of the Western European countries and, consequently, provided a raison d'etre for developing a function-oriented language teaching pedagogy in order to meet their specific communicative needs. In 1971, the Council of Europe, a wing of EEC, commissioned a group of European applied linguists and entrusted them with the task of designing a new way to teach foreign languages.

Learning from the shortcomings of language-centered pedagogy and drawing from the newly available psychological and linguistic insights, Wilkins, a British applied linguist who was a member of the group commissioned by the Council of Europe, proposed a set of syllabuses for language teaching. Originally published as a monograph in 1972, a revised and expanded version of his proposals appeared in 1976 as a book titled Notional Syllabuses. Instead of merely a grammatical core, the new syllabus consisted of categories of notions such as time, sequence, quantity, location, and frequency, and categories of communicative functions such as informing, requesting, and instructing. The notional/functional syllabus, as it was known, provided a new way of exploiting the situational dialogue inherited from the past by indicating that formal and functional properties can after all be integrated. Thus began a language teaching movement which later became known as communicative method or communicative approach or simply communicative language teaching. It should be kept in mind that communicative language teaching is not a monolithic entity; different teachers and teacher educators offered different interpretations of the method within a set of broadly accepted theoretical principles, so much so that it makes sense to talk about not one but several communicative methods. In what follows, we will look at, in detail, the theoretical principles and classroom procedures associated with communicative language teaching, treating it as a prototypical example of a learner centered pedagogy.

Topic-087: Theory behind Communicative Language Teaching Approach

The conceptual underpinnings of learner-centered pedagogy are truly multidisciplinary in the sense that its theory of language, language learning, and language teaching came not only from the feeder disciplines of linguistics and psychology, but also from anthropology and sociology as well as from other sub disciplines such as ethnography, ethnomethodology, pragmatics, and discourse analysis. The influence of all these areas of inquiry is very much reflected in the theory of language communication adopted by learner-centered pedagogists.

Theory of Language

In order to derive their theory of language, learner-centered pedagogists drew heavily from Chomskyan formal linguistics, Hallidayan functional linguistics, Hymsian sociolinguistics, and Austinian speech act theory.

Let us briefly recall some of the salient features of how these developments contributed to our understanding of the nature of language.

Criticizing the basic tenets of structural linguistics, Chomsky pointed out that language constitutes not a hierarchical structure of structures as viewed by structuralists, but a network of transformations. He demonstrated the inadequacy of structuralism to account for the fundamental characteristics of language and language acquisition, particularly their creativity and uniqueness. Whereas structuralists focused on "surface" features of phonology and morphology, Chomsky was concerned with "deep" structures, and the way in which sentences are produced. Chomskyan linguistics fundamentally transformed the way we look at language as system.

However, preoccupied narrowly with syntactic abstraction, it paid very little attention to meaning in a communicative context. Going beyond the narrowness of syntactic abstraction, Halliday emphasized the triple macro functions of language—textual, interpersonal, and ideational. The textual function deals with the phonological, syntactic, and semantic signals that enable language users to understand and transmit messages. The interpersonal function deals with sociolinguistic features of language required to establish roles, relationships, and responsibilities in a communicative situation. The ideational function deals with the concepts and processes underlying natural, physical, and social phenomena. In highlighting the importance of the interplay between these three macro-functions of language, Halliday invoked the "meaning potential" of language, that is, sets of options or alternatives that are available to the speaker- hearer.

It was this concern with communicative meaning that led Hymes to question the adequacy of the notion of grammatical competence proposed by Chomsky. Unlike Chomsky who focused on the "ideal" native speaker-hearer and an abstract body of syntactic structures, Hymes focused on the "real" speaker–hearer who operates in the concrete world of interpersonal communication. In order to operate successfully within a speech community, a person has to be not just grammatically correct but communicatively appropriate as well, that is, a person has to learn what to say, how to say it, when to say it, and to whom to say it.

In addition to Hallidayan and Hymsian perspectives, learner-centered pedagogists benefited immensely from Austin's work. As we know, he looked at language as a series of speech acts we perform rather than as a collection of linguistic items we accumulate; an idea that fitted in perfectly with the concept of language as communication. We use language, Austin argued, to perform a large number of speech acts: to command, to describe, to agree, to inform, to instruct, and so forth. The function of a particular speech act can be understood only when the utterance is placed in a communicative context governed by commonly shared norms of interpretation.

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What is crucial here is the illocutionary force, or the intended meaning, of an utterance rather than the grammatical form an utterance may take. By basing themselves on speech-act theory and discourse analysis, and by introducing perspectives of sociolinguistics, learner-centered pedagogists attempted to get closer to the concreteness of language use. Accordingly, they operated on the basis of the following broad principles:

- Language is a system for expressing meaning;
- The linguistic structures of language reflect its functional as well as communicative import;
- Basic units of language are not merely grammatical and structural, but also notional and functional;
- The central purpose of language is communication; and
- Communication is based on sociocultural norms of interpretation shared by a speech community.

In short, unlike language-centered pedagogists who treated language largely as system, learner-centered pedagogists treated it both as system and as discourse, at least some of the features of the latter (cf. chap. 1, this volume).

Theory of Language Learning

Learner-centered pedagogists derived their language learning theories mainly from cognitive psychologists, who dismissed the importance given to habit formation by behaviorists, and instead focused on insight formation.

They maintained that, in the context of language learning, the learner's cognitive capacity mediates between teacher input (stimulus) and learner output (response). The learner, based on the data provided, is capable of forming, testing, and confirming hypotheses, a sequence of psychological processes that ultimately contribute to language development.

Thus, for cognitive psychologists, mental processes underlying response is important, not the response itself. They also believed in developmental stages of language learning and, therefore, partial learning on the part of the learner is natural and inevitable. Because of the active involvement of the learner in the learning process, only meaningful learning, not rote learning, can lead to internalization of language systems (for more details, see the section on intake processes in chap. 2, this volume).

Consistent with the theory of language just discussed, learner-centered pedagogists looked at language communication as a synthesis of textual, interpersonal, and ideational functions. These functions, according to Breen and Candlin (1980), involve the abilities of interpretation, expression, and negotiation, all of which are intricately interconnected with one another during communicative performance. They suggest that language learning is most appropriately seen as communicative interaction involving all the participants in learning and including the various material resources on which the learning is exercised. Therefore, language learning may be seen as a process which grows out of the interaction between learners, teachers, texts and activities (p. 95).

It must not be overlooked that in foregrounding the communicative abilities of interpretation, expression, and negotiation, learner-centered pedagogists did not neglect the importance of grammar learning. As Widdowson (2003) recently lamented, the concern for communicative function was misconstrued by some as a justification for disregarding grammar. "But such a view runs directly counter to Halliday's concept of function where there can be no such disjunction since it has to do with semantically encoded meaning in form. This concept of function would lead to a renewed emphasis on grammar, not to its neglect." (p. 88, emphasis in original)

As a matter of fact, learner-centered pedagogists insisted that language learning entails the development of both accuracy and fluency, where accuracy activity involves conscious learning of grammar and fluency activity focuses on communicative potential (Brumfit, 1984).

In a recent interpretation of the learning objectives of communicative language teaching, Savignon (2002, pp. 114–115) considers the five goal areas, (known as Five Cs: communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities) agreed upon as National Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the United States as representing a holistic, communicative approach to language learning:

- The communication goal area addresses the learner's ability to use the target language to communicate thoughts, feelings, and opinions in a variety of settings;
- The cultures goal area addresses the learner's understanding of how the products and practices of a culture are reflected in the language;
- The connections goal area addresses the necessity for learners to learn to use the language as a tool to access and process information in a diversity of contexts beyond the classroom;
- The comparisons goal area are designed to foster learner insight and understanding of the nature of language and culture through a comparison of the target language and culture with the languages and cultures already familiar to them; and
- The communities goal area describes learners' lifelong use of the language, in communities and contexts both within and beyond the school setting itself.

These learning goals, Savignon rightly asserts, move the communicative language teaching toward a serious consideration of the discoursal and sociocultural features of language use.

Theory of Language Teaching

As can be expected, learner-centered pedagogists took their pedagogic bearings from the theories of language and language learning outlined above. Consequently, they recognized that it is the responsibility of the language teacher to help learners (a) develop the knowledge/ability necessary to manipulate the linguistic system and use it spontaneously and flexibly in order to express their intended message; (b) understand the distinction, and the connection between the linguistic forms they have mastered and the communicative functions they need to perform; (c) develop styles and strategies required to communicate meanings as effectively as possible in concrete situations; and (d) become aware of the sociocultural norms governing the use of language appropriate to different social circumstances (Littlewood, 1981, p. 6).

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In order to carry out the above responsibilities, it was argued, language teachers must foster meaningful communication in the classroom by

- Designing and using information-gap activities where when one learner in a pair-work exchange knows something the other learner does not;
- Offering choice of response to the learner, that is, open-ended tasks and exercises where the learner determines what to say and how to say it;
- Emphasizing contextualization rather than decontextualized drills and pattern practices;
- Using authentic language as a vehicle for communication in class;
- Introducing language at discourse (and not sentential) level;
- Tolerating errors as a natural outcome of language development; and
- Developing activities that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

These and other related measures recognize the importance of communicative abilities of negotiation, interpretation, and expression that are considered to be the essence of a learner-centered pedagogy.

Such recognition also entailed a reconsideration of the role played by teachers and learners in a communicative classroom. Breen and Candlin (1980) identified two main roles for the "communicative" teacher. The first role is to facilitate the communicative process between all participants in the classroom, and between those participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an interdependent participant within the learning-teaching group. This latter role is closely related to the objective of the first role and it arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher: first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource itself and second, as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities. In this role the teacher endeavors to make clear to the learners what they need to do in order to achieve some specific activity or task, if they indicate that such guidance is necessary (p. 99) The learners have to take an active role too. Instead of merely repeating after the teacher or mindlessly memorizing dialogues, they have to learn to navigate the self, the learning process, and the learning objectives.

Topic-088: Contents in Communicative Language Teaching Approach

In order to meet the requirements of the learning and teaching principles they believed in, learner-centered pedagogists opted for a product-oriented syllabus design just as their language-centered counterparts did before them, but with one important distinction: whereas the language-centered pedagogists sought to select and sequence grammatical items, learner-centered pedagogists sought to select and sequence grammatical as well as notional/functional categories of language. Besides, they put a greater premium on the communicative needs of their learners. It is, therefore, only natural that a learner-centered curriculum is expected to provide a framework for identifying, classifying, and organizing language features that are needed by the learners for their specific communicative purposes. One way of constructing a profile of the communicative needs of the learners is "to ask the question: Who is communicating with whom, why, where, when, how, at what level, about what, and in what way?" (Munby, 1978, p. 115)

The 1970s witnessed several frameworks for content specifications geared toward a learner-centered pedagogy. As mentioned earlier, Wilkins (1972) proposed a notional/functional syllabus containing an inventory of semanticogrammatical notions such as duration, frequency, quantity, dimension, and location, and communicative functions such as greeting, warning, inviting, requesting, agreeing, and disagreeing. His syllabus was further expanded by another member of the Council of Europe, van Ek (1975) who, based on a detailed needs analysis, identified the basic communicative needs of European adult learners, and produced an inventory of notions, functions and topics as well as grammatical items required to express them. Munby's (1978) book titled Communicative Syllabus Design contains an elaborate taxonomy of specifications of communicative functions, discourse features and textual operations along with micro and macro-planning.

Any textbook writer or language teacher can easily draw from such inventories and taxonomies to design a syllabus that addresses the specific needs and wants of a given group of learners. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) in their well-known book, The Functional-Notional Approach: From Theory to Practice provided detailed guidelines for teachers.

The focus on the learner's communicative needs, which is the hallmark of a learner-centered pedagogy, has positive as well as problematic aspects to it. There is no doubt that identifying and meeting the language needs of specific groups of learners will be of great assistance in creating and sustaining learner motivation, and in making the entire learning/teaching operation a worthwhile endeavor. Besides, a need-based, learner-centered curriculum will give the classroom teachers a clear pathway to follow in their effort to maximize learning opportunities for their learners. Such a curriculum easily facilitates the designing of specific purpose courses geared to the needs of groups of learners having the same needs (such as office secretaries, air traffic controllers, lawyers, or engineers). However, as Johnson (1982) correctly pointed out, if we are dealing with, as we most often do, groups of learners each of whom wishes to use the language for different purposes, then, it may be difficult to derive a manageable list of notions and functions. The Council of Europe attempted to tackle this practical problem by identifying a "common core" of functions such as greeting, introducing, inviting, and so forth associated with the general area of social life alongside other specialized, work-related units meant for specific groups of learners.

Yet another serious concern about specifying the content for a learner-centered class is that there are no criteria for selecting and sequencing language input to the learner. Johnson (1982), for instance, raised a few possibilities and dismissed all of them as inadequate. The criterion of simplicity, which was widely followed by language-centered pedagogists, is of little use here because whether a communicative function or a speech act is simple or complex does not depend on the grammatical and discoursal features of a function but on the purpose and context of communication. A second possible criterion—priority of needs—is equally problematic because, as Johnson (1982) observed, "questions like 'Do the students need to learn how to apologize before learning how to interrupt?' have no clear answer" (p. 71). Practical difficulties such as these notwithstanding, the learner-centered syllabus provided a clear statement of learning/teaching objectives for classroom teachers to pursue in their classroom.

Topic-089: Classroom Procedures in Communicative Language Teaching Approach

The content specifications of learner-centered pedagogy are a clear and qualitative extension of those pertaining to language-centered pedagogy, an extension that can make a huge difference in the instructional design.

But from a classroom procedural point of view, there is no fundamental difference between language-centered pedagogy and learner-centered pedagogy. The rationale behind this rather brisk observation will become apparent as we take a closer look at the input modifications and interactional activities recommended by learner-centered pedagogists.

Input Modifications

Unlike the language-centered pedagogists, who adopted an almost exclusive form-based approach to input modifications, learner-centered pedagogists pursued a form- and meaning-based approach. Recognizing that successful communication entails more than structures, they attempted to connect form and meaning. In a sense, this connection is indeed the underlying practice of any method of language teaching for, as Brumfit and Johnson (1979) correctly pointed out, no teacher introduces "shall" and "will" (for example) without relating recourse to the concepts of countableness and uncountableness. (p. 1)

What learner-centered pedagogists did, and did successfully, was to make this connection explicit at the levels of syllabus design, textbook production, and classroom input and interaction. Notice how, for example, the mini curriculum cited (section 6.1.4) focuses on the communicative function of "apologizing," while at the same time, identifying grammatical structures and vocabulary items needed to perform that function.

In trying to make the form-function connection explicit, language centered pedagogists assumed that contextual meaning can be analyzed sufficiently and language input can be modified suitably so as to present the learner with a useable and useful set of form- and meaning-based learning materials. Such an assumption would have been beneficial if there is a one-to-one correspondence between grammatical forms and communicative functions. We know that a single form can express several functions just as a single function can be expressed through several forms. To use an example given by Littlewood (1981) the speaker who wants somebody to close the door has many linguistic options, including "Close the door, please," "Could you please close the door?," "Would you mind closing the door?," or "Excuse me, could I trouble you to close the door?" Some forms might only perform this directive function in the context of certain social relationships—for example, "You've left the door open!" could serve as a directive from teacher to pupil, but not from teacher to principal. Other forms would depend strongly on shared situational knowledge for their correct interpretation, and could easily be misunderstood (e.g. "Brrr! its cold, isn't it?"). (p. 2)

Similarly, a single expression, "I've got a headache" can perform the functions of a warning, a request, or an apology depending on the communicative context.

Language input in learner-centered pedagogy, then, can only provide the learner with standardized functions embedded in stereotypical contexts. It is almost impossible to present language functions in a wide range of contexts in which they usually occur. It is, therefore, left to the learner to figure out how the sample utterances are actually realized and reformulated to meet interpretive norms governing effective communication in a given situation. Whether the learner is able to meet this challenge or not depends to a large extent on the way in which interactional activities are carried out in the classroom.

Interactional Activities

To operationalize their input modifications in the classroom, learner-centered pedagogists followed the same presentation–practice–production sequence popularized by language-centered pedagogists but with one important distinction: Whereas the language-centered pedagogists presented and helped learners practice and produce grammatical items, learner-centered pedagogists presented and helped learners practice and produce grammatical as well as notional/functional categories of language. It must, however, be acknowledged that learner-centered pedagogists came out with a wide variety of innovative classroom procedures such as pair work, group work, role-play, simulation games, scenarios and debates that ensured a communicative flavor to their interactional activities.

One of the sources of communicative activities widely used by English language teachers during the1980s is Communicative Language Teaching—An Introduction, by Littlewood (1981). In it, he presents what he calls a "methodological framework," consisting of pre-communicative activities and communicative activities diagrammatically represented as:

Pre-communicative Activities:

- Structural activities
- Quasi-communicative activities

Communicative Activities:

- Functional communicative activities
- Social interaction activities

Stating that these categories and subcategories represent differences of emphasis and orientation rather than distinct divisions, Littlewood explains that through pre-communicative activities, the teacher provides the learners with specific knowledge of linguistic forms, and gives them opportunities to practice. Through communicative activities, the learner is helped to activate and integrate those forms for meaningful communication. The teacher also provides corrective feedback at all stages of activities, because error correction, unlike in the language-centered pedagogy, is not frowned upon. Littlewood suggests several classroom activities that are typical of a learner-centered pedagogy. For example, consider the following activity: **Discovering Missing Information**

Learner A has information represented in tabular form. For example, he may have a table showing distances between various towns or a football league table showing a summary of each

team's results so far (how many games they have played/won/lost/drawn, how many goals they have scored, etc.). However, some items of information have been deleted from the table. Learner B has an identical table except that different items of information have been deleted. Each learner can therefore complete his own tale by asking his partner for the information that he lacks.

As with several previous activities, the teacher may (if he wishes) specify what language forms are to be used. For example, the distances table would require forms such as "How far is . . . from . . . ?" "Which town is . . . miles from . . . ?," while the league table would require forms such as "How many games have . . . played?" and "How many goals have . . . scored?." (Littlewood, 1981, p. 26)

Pooling Information to Solve a Problem

Learner A has a train timetable showing the times of trains from X to Y. Learner B has a timetable of trains from Y to Z. For example:

Learner A's information:

Newtown dep. : 11.34 13.31 15.18 16.45
Shrewsbury arr. : 12.22 14.18 16.08 18.25

Learner B's information:

Shrewsbury dep. : 13.02 15.41 16.39 18.46
Swansea arr. : 17.02 19.19 20.37 22.32

Together, the learners must work out the quickest possible journey from Newtown to Swansea. Again, of course, it is important that they should not be able to see each other's information. (Littlewood, 1981, pp. 34–35)

These two examples illustrate functional communication activities. The idea behind them is that "the teacher structures the situation so that learners have to overcome an information gap or solve a problem. Both the stimulus for communication and the yardstick for success are thus contained within the situation itself: learners must work towards a definite solution or decision" (Littlewood, 1981, p. 22). The activities are intended to help the learner find the language necessary to convey an intended message effectively in a specific context. The two sample activities show how two learners in a paired-activity are required to interact with each other, ask questions, seek information, and pool the information together in order to carry out the activities successfully.

Topic-090: A Critical Assessment & Conclusion of Communicative Language Teaching Approach

Perhaps the greatest achievement of learner-centered pedagogists is that they successfully directed the attention of the language-teaching profession to aspects of language other than grammatical structures. By treating language as discourse, not merely as system, they tried to move classroom teaching away from a largely systemic orientation that relied upon a mechanical rendering of pattern practices and more toward a largely communicative orientation that relied upon a partial simulation of meaningful exchanges that take place outside the classroom. By considering the

characteristics of language communication with all earnestness, they bestowed legitimacy to the basic concepts of negotiation, interpretation, and expression. They highlighted the fact that language is a means of conveying and receiving ideas and information as well as a tool for expressing personal needs, wants, beliefs, and desires. They also underscored the creative, unpredictable, and purposeful character of language communication.

Of course, the nature of communication that learner-centered pedagogists assiduously espoused is nothing new. It has long been practiced in other disciplines in social sciences such as communication studies. But what is noteworthy is that learner-centered pedagogists explored and exploited it seriously and systematically for the specific purpose of learning and teaching second and foreign languages. It is to their credit that, although being critical of language-centered pedagogy, they did not do away with its explicit focus on grammar but actually extended it to include functional features as well. In doing so, they anticipated some of the later research findings in second-language acquisition, which generally supported the view that form-focused instruction and corrective feedback provided within the context of a communicative program are more effective in promoting second language learning than programs which are limited to an exclusive emphasis on accuracy on the one hand or an exclusive emphasis on fluency on the other. (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 105)

The explicit focus on grammar is not the only teaching principle that learner-centered pedagogists retained from the discredited tradition of audio-lingualism. They also retained, this time to ill-effect, its cardinal belief in a linear and additive way of language learning as well as its presentation– practice–production sequence of language teaching. In spite of their interest in the cognitive–psychological principles of holistic learning, learner-centered pedagogists preselected and pre-sequenced grammatical, lexical, and functional items, and presented to the learners one cluster of items at a time hoping that the learners would learn the discrete items in a linear and additive manner, and then put them together in some logical fashion in order get at the totality of the language as communication.

As Widdowson (2003) recently reiterated, although there are differences of view about the language learning process, there is a general acceptance that whatever else it might be, it is not simply additive.

The acquisition of competence is not accumulative but adaptive: learners proceed not by adding items of knowledge or ability, but by a process of continual revision and reconstruction. In other words, learning is necessarily a process of recurrent unlearning and relearning, whereby encoding rules and conventions for their use are modified, extended, realigned, or abandoned altogether to accommodate new language data." (pp. 140–141)

As mentioned earlier, from a classroom methodological point of view, there are no fundamental differences between language-centered and learning-centered pedagogies. They adhere to different versions of the familiar linear and additive view of language learning and the equally familiar presentation–practice–production vision of language teaching. For some, this is too difficult and disappointing an interpretation to digest because for a considerable length of time, it has been propagated with almost evangelical zeal and clock-work regularity that communicative Language

teaching marked a revolutionary step in the methodological aspects of language teaching. The term, communicative revolution, one often comes across in the professional literature is clearly an overstatement.

Those who make such a claim do so based more on the array of innovative classroom procedures recommended to be followed in the communicative classroom (and they indeed are innovative and impressive) than on their conceptual underpinnings.

Here, we use the phrase, "recommended to be followed," advisedly because a communicative learning/teaching agenda, however well-conceived, cannot by itself guarantee a communicative classroom because communication "is what may or may not be achieved through classroom activity; it cannot be embodied in an abstract specification" (Widdowson, 1990, p. 130). Data- based classroom-oriented investigations conducted in various contexts by various researchers such as Kumaravadivelu (1993a), Legutke and Thomas (1991), Nunan (1987), and Thornbury (1996) revealed without any doubt that the so-called communicative classrooms are anything but communicative. Nunan observed that, in the classes he studied, form was more prominent in that function and grammatical accuracy activities dominated communicative fluency ones. He concluded, "there is growing evidence that, in communicative class, interactions may, in fact, not be very communicative after all" (p. 144). Legutke and Thomas (1991) were even more forthright:

"In spite of trendy jargon in textbooks and teachers' manuals, very little is actually communicated in the L2 classroom. The way it is structured does not seem to stimulate the wish of learners to say something, nor does it tap what they might have to say . . ." (pp. 8–9). The research confirmed these findings, when they analyzed lessons taught by those claiming to follow communicative language teaching, and reached the conclusion: "Even teachers who are committed to CLT can fail to create opportunities for genuine interaction in their classroom" (Kumaravadivelu, 1993a, p. 113).

Yet another serious drawback that deserves mention is what Swan (1985) dubbed the "tabula rasa attitude" of the learner-centered pedagogists. That is, they firmly and falsely believed that adult L2 learners do not possess normal pragmatic skills, nor can they transfer them, from their mother tongue.

They summarily dismissed the L1 pragmatic knowledge/ability L2 learners bring with them to the L2 classroom. Swan (1985) draws attention to the fact that adult second-language learners know how to negotiate meaning, convey information, and perform speech acts. "What they do not know" he declares rightly, "is what words are used to do it in a foreign language. They need lexical items, not skills . . ." (p. 9) In other words, L2 learners, by virtue of being members of their L1 speech community, know the basic rules of communicative use. All we need to do is to tap the linguistic and cultural resources they bring with them. This view has been very well supported by research. Summarizing nearly two decades of studies on pragmatics in second language learning and teaching, Rose and Kasper (2001) stated unequivocally, "adult learners get a considerable amount of L2 pragmatic knowledge for free. This is because some pragmatic knowledge is universal . . . and other aspects may be successfully transferred from the learners' L1." (p. 4) In a similar vein, focusing

generally on the non-useage of L1 in the L2 classroom, Vivian Cook (2002) has all along questioned the belief that learners would fare better if they kept to the second language, and has recently recommended that teachers "develop the systematic use of the L1 in the classroom alongside the L2 as a reflection of the realities of the classroom situation, as an aid to learning and as a model for the world outside" (p. 332).

Lesson-19

THE NATURAL APPROACH

Topic-091: Background of the Natural Approach

In 1977, Tracy Terrell, a teacher of Spanish in California, outlined "a proposal for a `new' philosophy of language teaching which [he] called the Natural Approach" (Terrell 1977; 1982, p. 121). This was an attempt to develop a language teaching proposal that incorporated the "naturalistic" principles researchers had identified in studies of second language acquisition. The Natural Approach grew out of Terrell's experiences teaching Spanish classes, although it has also been used in elementary-to advanced-level classes and with several other languages. At the same time, he joined forces with Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California, in elaborating a theoretical rationale for the Natural Approach, drawing on Krashen's influential theory of second language acquisition. Krashen and Terrell's combined statement of the principles and practices of the Natural Approach appeared in their book The Natural Approach, published in 1983. The Natural Approach attracted a wider interest than some of the other innovative language teaching proposals, largely because of its support by Krashen. Krashen and Terrell's book contains theoretical sections prepared by Krashen that outline his views on second language acquisition (Krashen 1981, p. 1982), and sections on implementation and classroom procedures, prepared largely by Terrell.

Krashen and Terrell identified the Natural Approach with what they call "traditional" approaches to language teaching. Traditional approaches are defined as "based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language" and, perhaps, needless to say, without reference to grammatical analysis, grammatical drilling, or a particular theory of grammar. Krashen and Terrell noted that such "approaches have been called natural, psychological, phonetic, new, reform, direct, analytic, and imitative and so forth" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 9). The fact that the authors of the Natural Approach relate their approach to the Natural Method has led some people to assume that Natural Approach and Natural Method are synonymous terms. Although the tradition is a common one, there are important differences between the Natural Approach and the older Natural Method, which it will be useful to consider at the outset.

The Natural Method is another term for what by 1900 had become known as the Direct Method. It is described in a report on the state of the art in language teaching commissioned by the Modern Language Association in 1901 (the report of the "Committee of 12"): In its extreme form, the method consisted of a series of monologues by the teacher interspersed with exchanges of question and answer between the instructor and the pupil - all in the foreign language. A great deal of pantomime accompanied the talk. With the aid of this gesticulation, by attentive listening and by dint of much repetition, the learner came to associate certain acts and objects with certain combinations of the sounds and finally reached the point of reproducing the foreign words or phrases. Not until a considerable familiarity with the spoken word was attained was the scholar

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allowed to see the foreign language in print. The study of grammar was reserved for a still later period. (Cole 1931, p. S8)

The term natural, used in reference to the Direct Method, merely emphasized that the principles underlying the method were believed to conform to the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Similarly, the Natural Approach, as defined by Krashen and Terrell, is believed to conform to the naturalistic principles found in successful second language acquisition. Unlike the Direct Method, it places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of target-language sentences. In the Natural Approach, there is an emphasis on exposure, or input, rather than practice; optimizing emotional preparedness for learning; a prolonged period of attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language; and a willingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input. The emphasis on the central role of comprehension in the Natural Approach links it to other comprehension-based approaches in language teaching.

Topic-092: Approach and Theory of Language behind the Natural Approach

Krashen and Terrell see communication as the primary function of language, and since their approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities, they refer to the Natural Approach as an example of a communicative approach. The Natural Approach "is similar to other communicative approaches being developed today" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 17).

They reject earlier methods of language teaching, such as the Audio-lingual Method, which viewed grammar as the central component of language. According to Krashen and Terrell, the major problem with these methods was, that they were built not around "actual theories of language acquisition, but theories of something else; for example, the structure of language" (1983, p. 1). Unlike proponents of Communicative Language Teaching, Krashen and Terrell give little attention to a theory of language. Indeed, a critic of Krashen suggested that he has no theory of language at all (Gregg 1984). What Krashen and Terrell do describe about the nature of language emphasizes the primacy of meaning. The importance of the vocabulary is stressed, for example, suggesting the view that a language is essentially its lexicon and only inconsequently the grammar that determines how the lexicon is exploited to produce messages. Terrell quotes Dwight Bolinger to support this view:

The quantity of information in the lexicon far outweighs that in any other part of the language, and if there is anything to the notion of redundancy, it should be easier to reconstruct a message containing just words than one containing just the syntactic relations. The significant fact is the subordinate role of grammar. The most important thing is to get the words in. (Bolinger, in Terrell 1977, p. 333) Language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. Hence, Krashen and Terrell stated that "acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target

language" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 19). Yet despite their avowed communicative approach to language, they view language learning, as do audio-lingualists, as mastery of structures by stages. "The input hypothesis states that in order for acquirers to progress to the next stage in the acquisition of the target language, they need to understand input language that includes a structure that is part of the next stage" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 32).

Krashen refers to this with the formula "I + 1" (i.e., input that contains structures slightly above the learner's present level). We assume that Krashen means by structures something at least in the tradition of what such linguists as Leonard Bloomfield and Charles Fries meant by structures. The Natural Approach thus assumes a linguistic hierarchy of structural complexity that one masters through encounters with "input" containing structures at the "I + 1" level.

We are left, then, with a view of language that consists of lexical items, structures, and messages. Obviously, there is no particular novelty in this view as such, except that messages are considered of primary importance in the Natural Approach. The lexicon for both perception and production is considered critical in the construction and interpretation of messages. Lexical items in messages are necessarily grammatically structured, and more complex messages involve more complex grammatical structure. Although they acknowledge such grammatical structuring, Krashen and Terrell feel that grammatical structure does not require explicit analysis or attention by the language teacher, by the language learner, or language teaching materials.

Kraslien and Terrell make continuing reference to the theoretical and research base claimed to underlie the Natural Approach and to the fact that the method is unique in having such a base. "It is based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition, which has been supported by a large number of scientific studies in a wide variety of language acquisition and learning contexts" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 1). The theory and research are grounded on Krashen's views of language acquisition, which we will collectively refer to as Krashen's language acquisition theory. Krashen's views have been presented and discussed extensively elsewhere (e.g., Krashen 1982), so we will not try to present or critique Krashen's arguments here. It is necessary, however, to present in outline form the principal tenets of the theory; since it is on these that the design and procedures in the Natural Approach are based.

The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis

The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis claims that there are two distinctive ways of developing competence in a second or foreign language. Acquisition is the "natural" way, paralleling first language development in children. Acquisition refers to an unconscious process that involves the naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language and through using language for meaningful communication. Learning, by contrast, refers to a process in which conscious rules about a language are developed. It results in explicit knowledge' about the forms of a language and the ability

to verbalize this knowledge. Formal teaching is necessary for "learning" to occur, and correction of errors helps with the development of learned rules. Learning, according to the theory, cannot lead to acquisition.

The Monitor Hypothesis

The acquired linguistic system is said to initiate utterances when we communicate in a second or foreign language. Conscious learning can function only as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system. The Monitor Hypothesis claims that we may call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate, but that conscious learning (i.e., the learned system) has only this function. Three conditions limit the successful use of the monitor:

- Time: There must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule.
- Focus on form: The language user must be focused on correctness or on the form of the output.
- Knowledge of rules: The performer must know the rules. The monitor does best with rules that are simple in two ways. They must be simple to describe and they must not require complex movements and rearrangements.

The Natural Order Hypothesis

According to the Natural Order Hypothesis, the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order. Research is said to have shown that certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in first language acquisition of English, and a similar natural order is found in second language acquisition. Errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes, and during acquisition (but not during learning), similar developmental errors occur in learners no matter what their native language is.

The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis claims to explain the relationship between what the learner is exposed to (the input) of a language and language acquisition. It involves four main issues.

First, the hypothesis relates to acquisition, and not to learning. Second, people acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence:

An acquirer can "move" from a stage I (where I is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage I + 1 (where I + I is the stage immediately following I along some natural order) by understanding language containing I + 1. (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 32) Clues based on the situation and the context, extra linguistic information, and knowledge of the

world make comprehension possible.

Third, the ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly; rather, it "emerges" independently in time, after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding input.

Fourth, if there is a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input, I + 1 will usually be provided automatically. Comprehensible input refers to utterances that the learner understands based on the context in which they are used as well as the language in which they are phrased. When a speaker uses language so that the acquirer understands the message, the speaker "casts a net" of structure around the acquirer's current level of competence, and this will include many instances of I + 1. Thus, input need not be finely tuned to a learner's current level of linguistic competence, and in fact, cannot be so finely tuned in a language class, where learners will be at many different levels of competence.

Just as child acquirers of a first language are provided with samples of "caretaker speech," rough-tuned to their present level of understanding, so adult acquirers of a second language are provided with simple codes that facilitate second language comprehension. One such code is "foreigner talk," which refers to the speech native speakers use to simplify communication with foreigners. Foreigner talk is characterized by a slower rate of speech, repetition, restating, use of yes/no instead of 'Wh' questions, and other changes that make messages more comprehensible to persons of limited language proficiency.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Krashen sees the learner's emotional state or attitudes as an adjustable filter that freely passes, impedes, or blocks input necessary to acquisition. A low affective filter is desirable, since it impedes or blocks less of this necessary input. The hypothesis is built on research in second language acquisition, which has identified three kinds of affective or attitudinal variables related to second language acquisition:

- Motivation. Learners with high motivation generally do better.
- Self-confidence. Learner's with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to be more successful.
- Anxiety. Low personal anxiety and low classroom anxiety are more conducive to second language acquisition.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis states that acquirers with a low affective filter seek and receive more input, interact with confidence, and are more receptive to the input they receive. Anxious acquirers have a high affective filter, which prevents acquisition from taking place. It is believed that the affective filter (e.g., fear or embarrassment) rises in early adolescence, and this may account for children's apparent superiority to older acquirers of a second language.

These hypotheses have obvious implications for language teaching. In sum, these are:

- As much comprehensible input as possible must be presented.
- Whatever helps comprehension is important. Visual aids are useful, as is exposure to a wide range of vocabulary rather than study of syntactic structure.
- The focus in the classroom should be on listening and reading; speaking should be allowed to "emerge."
- In order to lower the affective filter, student work should center on meaningful communication rather than on form; input' should be interesting and so contribute to a relaxed classroom atmosphere.

Topic-093: Objectives, Syllabus and Learning & Teaching Activities in the Natural Approach

Objectives

The Natural Approach "is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates." It has the expectation that students will be able to function adequately in the target situation. They will understand the speaker of the target language (perhaps with requests for clarification), and will be able to convey (in a non-insulting. manner) their requests and ideas. They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless, but their production does need to be understood. They should be able to make the meaning clear but not necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar. (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 71) However, since the Natural Approach is offered as a general set of principles applicable to a wide variety of situations, as in Communicative Language Teaching, specific objectives depend on learner needs and the skill (reading, writing, listening, or speaking) and level being taught. Krashen and Terrell believe that it is important to communicate to learners what they can expect of a course as well as what they should not expect. They offer as an example, a possible goal and non-goal statement for a beginning Natural Approach Spanish class:

After 100-150 hours of Natural Approach Spanish, you will be able to: "get around" in Spanish; you will be able to communicate with a monolingual native speaker of Spanish without difficulty; read most ordinary texts in Spanish with some use of a dictionary; know enough Spanish to continue to improve on your own.

After 100-150 hours of Natural Approach Spanish you will not be able to: pass for a native speaker; use Spanish as easily as you use English; understand native speakers when they talk to each other (you will probably not be able to eavesdrop successfully); use Spanish on the telephone with great comfort; participate easily in a conversation with several other native speakers on unfamiliar topics. (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 74)

The Syllabus

Krashen and Terrell (1983) approach course organization from two points of view. First, they list some typical goals for language courses and suggest which of these goals are the ones at which the Natural Approach aims. They list such goals under four areas:

- Basic personal communication skills: oral (e.g., listening to announcements in public places)
- Basic personal communication skills: written (e.g., reading and writing personal letters)
- Academic learning skills: oral (e.g., listening to a lecture)
- Academic learning skills: written (e.g., taking notes in class).

Of these, they note that the Natural Approach is primarily "designed to develop basic communication skills - both oral and written" (1983, p. 67). They then observe that communication goals "may be expressed in terms of situations, functions and topics" and proceed to order four pages of topics and situations "which are likely to be most useful to beginning students" (1983, p. 67). The functions are not specified or suggested but are felt to derive naturally from the topics and situations. This approach to syllabus design would appear to derive to some extent from threshold level specifications.

The second point of view holds that "the purpose of a language course will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests" (Krashen and Terrell (1983, p. 65): The goals of a Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they will use the target language and the sort of topics they will have to communicate the information about. In setting communication goals, we do not expect the students at the end of a particular course to have acquired a certain group of structures or forms. Instead, we expect them to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus. (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 71) From this point of view; it is difficult to specify communicative goals that necessarily fit the needs of all students. Thus, any list of topics and situations must be understood as syllabus suggestions rather than as specifications.

As well as fitting the needs and interests of students, content selection should aim to create a low affective filter by being interesting and fostering a friendly, relaxed atmosphere, and should provide a wide exposure to vocabulary that may be useful to basic personal communication, and should resist any focus on grammatical structures, since if input is pro- vided "over a wider variety of topics while pursuing communicative goals, the necessary grammatical structures are automatically provided in the input" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 71).

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Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

From the beginning of a class taught according to the Natural Approach, emphasis is on presenting comprehensible input in the target language. Teacher talk focuses on objects in the classroom and on the content of pictures, as with the Direct Method. To minimize stress, learners are not required to say anything until they feel ready, but they are expected to respond to teacher commands and questions in other ways.

When learners are ready to begin talking in the new language, the teacher provides comprehensible language and simple response opportunities. The teacher talks slowly and distinctly, asking questions and eliciting one-word answers. There is a gradual progression from Yes/No questions, through either-or questions, to questions that students can answer using words they have heard the teacher use. Students are not expected to use a word actively until they have heard it many times. Charts, pictures, advertisements, and other realia serve as the focal point for questions, and when the students' competence permits, talk moves to class members. "Acquisition activities" - those that focus on meaningful communication rather than language form - are emphasized. Pair or group work may be employed, followed by whole-class discussion led by the teacher.

Techniques recommended by Krashen and Terrell are often borrowed from other methods and adapted to meet the requirements of Natural Approach theory. These include command-based activities from Total Physical Response; Direct Method activities in which mime, gesture, and context are used to elicit questions and answers; and even situation-based practice of structures and patterns. Group-work activities are often identical to those used in Communicative Language Teaching, where sharing information in order to complete a task is emphasized. There is nothing novel about the procedures and techniques advocated for the use with the Natural Approach. A casual observer might not be aware of the philosophy underlying the classroom techniques he or she observes. What characterizes the Natural Approach is the use of familiar techniques within the framework of a method that focuses on providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximizes learner self-confidence.

Topic-094: Role of Leaners, Teachers and Materials in the Natural Approach

Learner Roles

There is a basic assumption in the Natural Approach that learners should not try to learn a language in the usual sense. The extent to which they can lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication will determine the amount and kind of acquisition they will experience and the fluency they will ultimately demonstrate. The language acquirer is seen as a processor of comprehensible input. The acquirer is challenged by input that is slightly beyond his or her current level of competence and is able to assign meaning to this input through active use of context and extra linguistic

information.

Learners' roles are seen to change according to their stage of linguistic development. Central to these changing roles are learner decisions on when to speak, what to speak about, and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking.

In the pre-production stage, students "participate in the language activity without having to respond in the target language" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 76). For example, students can act out physical commands; identify student colleagues from teacher description, point to pictures, and so forth. In the early-production stage, students respond to either-or questions, use single words and short phrases, fill in charts, and use fixed conversational patterns (e.g., How are you? What's your name?).

In the speech-emergent phase, students involve themselves in role play and games, contribute personal information and opinions, and participate in group problem solving.

Learners have four kinds of responsibilities in the Natural Approach classroom:

- Provide information about their specific goals so that acquisition activities can focus on the topics and situations most relevant to their needs.
- Take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input. They should learn and use conversational management techniques to regulate input.
- Decide when to start producing speech and when to upgrade it.
- Where learning exercises (i.e., grammar study) are to be a part of the program, decide with the teacher the relative amount of time to be devoted to them and perhaps even complete and correct them independently.

Learners are expected to participate in communication activities with other learners. Although communication activities are seen to provide naturalistic practice and to create a sense of camaraderie, which lowers the affective filter, they may fail to provide learners with well-formed and comprehensible input at the I + 1 level. Krashen and Terrell warn of these shortcomings but do not suggest means for their amelioration.

Teacher Roles

The Natural Approach teacher has three central roles. First, the teacher is the primary source of comprehensible input in the target language. "Class time is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition," and the teacher is the primary generator of that input. In this role, the teacher is required to generate a constant flow of language input while providing a multiplicity of nonlinguistic clues to assist students in interpreting the input. The Natural Approach demands a much more center-stage role for the teacher than do many contemporary communicative methods. Second, the Natural Approach teacher creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there is a low affective filter for learning. This is achieved in part, through such Natural Approach

techniques as not demanding speech from the students before they are ready for it, not correcting student errors, and providing subject matter of high interest to students.

Finally, the teacher must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. The teacher is seen as responsible for collecting materials and designing their use. These materials, according to Krashen and Terrell, are based not just on teacher perceptions but on elicited student needs and interests. As with other non-orthodox teaching systems, the Natural Approach teacher has a particular responsibility to communicate clearly and compellingly to students the assumptions, organization, and expectations of the method, since in many cases these will violate student views of what language learning and teaching are supposed to be.

The Role of Instructional Materials

The primary goal of materials in the Natural Approach is to make classroom activities as meaningful as possible by supplying "the extra linguistic context that helps the acquirer to understand and thereby to acquire" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 55), by relating classroom activities to the real world, and by fostering real communication among the learners. Materials come from the world of realia rather than from textbooks. The primary aim of materials is to promote comprehension and communication. Pictures and other visual aids are essential, because they supply the content for communication. They facilitate the acquisition of a large vocabulary within the classroom. Other recommended materials include schedules, brochures, advertisements, maps, and books at levels appropriate to the students, if a reading component is included in the course. Games, in general, are seen as useful classroom materials, since "games by their very nature, focus the students on what it is they are doing and use the language as a tool for reaching the goal rather than as a goal in itself" (Terrell 1982, p. 121). The selection, reproduction, and collection of materials places a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher. Since Krashen and Terrell suggest a syllabus of topics and situations, it is likely that at some point collections of materials to supplement teacher presentations will be published, built around the "syllabus" of topics and situations recommended by the Natural Approach.

Topic-095: Procedure in the Natural Approach

The Natural Approach adopts techniques and activities freely from various method sources and can be regarded as innovative only with respect to the purposes for which they are recommended and the ways they are used. Krashen and Terrell (1983) provide suggestions for the use of a wide range of activities, all of which are familiar components of Situational Language Teaching, Communicative Language Teaching, and other methods. To illustrate procedural aspects of the Natural Approach, we will cite examples of how such activities are to be used in the Natural Approach classroom to provide comprehensible input, without requiring production of responses or minimal responses in

the target language.

1. Start with TPR [Total Physical Response] commands. At first, the commands are quite simple: "Stand up. Turn around. Raise your right hand."

2. Use TPR to teach names of body parts and to introduce numbers and sequence. "Lay your right hand on your head, put both hands on your shoulder, first touch your nose, then stand up and turn to the right three times" and so forth.

3. Introduce classroom terms and props into commands. "Pick up a pencil and put it under the book, touch a wall, go to the door and knock three times." Any item which can be brought to the class can be incorporated.
"Pick up the record and place it in the tray. Take the green blanket to Larry. Pick up the soap and take it to the woman wearing the green blouse."

4. Use names of physical characteristics and clothing to identify members of the class by name. The instructor uses context and the items themselves to make the meanings of the key words clear: hair, long, short, etc. Then a student is described. "What is your name?" (Selecting a student). "Class. Look at Barbara. She has long brown hair. Her hair is long and brown. Her hair is not short. It is long." (Using mime, pointing and context to ensure comprehension.) "What's the name of the student with long brown hair?" (Barbara). Questions such as "What is the name of the woman with the short blond hair?" or "What is the name of the student sitting next to the man with short brown hair and glasses?" are very simple to understand by attending to key words, gestures and context. And they require the students only to remember and produce the name of a fellow student. The same can be done with articles of clothing and colors. "Who is wearing a yellow shirt? Who is wearing a brown dress?"

5. Use visuals, typically magazine pictures, to introduce new vocabulary and to continue with activities requiring only student names as response. The instructor introduces the pictures to the entire class one at a time focusing usually on one single item or activity in the picture. He may introduce one to five new words while talking about the picture. He then passes the picture to a particular student in the class. The students' task is to remember the name of the student with a particular picture. For example, "Tom has the picture of the sailboat. Joan has the picture of the family watching television" and so forth. The instructor will ask questions like "Who has the picture with the sailboat? Does Susan or Tom have the picture of the people on the beach?" Again the students need only produce a name in response.

6. Combine use of pictures with TPR. "Jim, find the picture of the little girl with her dog and give it to the woman with the pink blouse."

7. Combine observations about the pictures with commands and conditionals. "If there is a woman in your picture, stand up. If there is something blue in your picture, touch

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your right shoulder."

8. Using several pictures, ask students to point to the picture being described. Picture1. "There are several people in this picture. One appears to be a father, the other a daughter. What are they doing? Cooking. They are cooking a hamburger." Picture 2. "There are two men in this picture. They are young. They are boxing." Picture 3. (Krashen and Terrell 19S3: 75-77)

In all these activities, the instructor maintains a constant flow of "comprehensible input," using key vocabulary items, appropriate gestures, context, repetition, and paraphrase to ensure the comprehensibility of the input.

Lesson-20

COOPERATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING

Topic-096: Background of Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) is part of a more general instructional approach also known as Collaborative Learning (CL). Cooperative Learning is an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom. It has been defined as follows:

Cooperative learning is a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others (Olsen and Kagan 1992, p. 8).

Cooperative Learning has antecedents in proposals for peer-tutoring and peer-monitoring that go back hundreds of years and longer. The early twentieth century U.S. educator John Dewey is usually credited with promoting the idea of building cooperation in learning into regular classrooms on a regular and systematic basis (Rodgers 1988). It was more generally promoted and developed in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s as a response to the forced integration of public schools and has been substantially refined and developed since then. Educators were concerned that traditional models of classroom learning were teacher-fronted, fostered competition rather than cooperation, and favored majority students. They believed that minority students might fall behind higher-achieving students in this kind of learning environment. Cooperative Learning in this context sought to do the following:

- raise the achievement of all students, including those who are gifted or academically handicapped
- help the teacher build positive relationships among students
- give students the experiences they need for healthy social, psychological, and cognitive development
- replace the competitive organizational structure of most classrooms and schools with a team-based, high-performance organizational structure (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec 1994: 2).

In second language teaching, CL (where it is often referred to as Cooperative Language Learning - CLL) has been embraced as a way of promoting communicative interaction in the classroom and is seen as an extension of the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. It is viewed as a learner-centered approach to teaching held to offer advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods. In language teaching, its goals are:

- to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through the use of interactive pair and group activities

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• to provide teachers with a methodology to enable them to achieve this goal and one that can be applied in a variety of curriculum settings (e.g., content-based, foreign language classrooms; mainstreaming)
• to enable focused attention to particular lexical items, language structures, and communicative functions through the use of interactive tasks
• to provide opportunities for learners to develop successful learning and communication strategies
• to enhance learner motivation and reduce learner stress and to create a positive affective classroom climate

CLL is thus an approach that crosses both mainstream education and second and foreign language teaching.

Topic-097: Approach and Theory of Language and Learning behind Cooperative Language Learning

Theory of Language

Cooperative Language Learning is founded on some basic premises about the interactive/cooperative nature of language and language learning and builds on these premises in several ways.

- Premise 1 mirror the title of a book on child language titled Born to Talk (Weeks 1979). The author holds (along with many others) that "all normal children growing up in a normal environment learn to talk. We are born to talk ...we may think of ourselves as having been programmed to talk communication is generally considered to be the primary purpose of language" (Weeks 1979, p. 1).
- Premise 2 is that most talk/speech is organized as conversation. "Human beings spend a large part of their lives engaging in conversation and for most of them conversation is among their most significant and engrossing activities" (Richards and Schmidt 1983, p. 117).
- Premise 3 is that conversation operates according to a certain agreed upon set of cooperative rules or "maxims" (Grice 1975).
- Premise 4 is that one learns how these cooperative maxims are realized in one's native language through casual, everyday conversational interaction.
- Premise 5 is that one learns how the maxims are realized in a second language through participation in cooperatively structured interactional activities. This involves using a progressive format or sequencing of strategies in the conversation class which carefully prepares students, systematically breaks down stereotypes of classroom procedure and allows them to begin interacting democratically and independently. Through this approach, students learn step-by-step, functional interaction techniques at the same time the group spirit or trust is being built (Christison and Bassano 1981, p. xvi).

Practices that attempt to organize second language learning according to these

premises, explicitly or implicitly, are jointly labeled Cooperative Language Learning. In its applications, CLL is used to support both structural and functional models as well as interactional models of language, since CLL activities may be used to focus on language form as well as to practice particular language functions.

Theory of Learning

Cooperative learning advocates draw heavily on the theoretical work of developmental -psychologists Jean Piaget (e.g., 1965) and Lev Vygotsky (e.g., 1962), both of whom stress the central role of social interaction in learning. As we have indicated, a central premise of CLL is that learners develop communicative competence in a language by conversing in socially or pedagogically structured situations. CLL advocates have proposed certain interactive structures that are considered optimal for learning the appropriate rules and practices in conversing in a new language.

CLL also seeks to develop learners' critical thinking skills, which are seen as central to learning of any sort. Some authors have even elevated critical thinking to the same level of focus as that of the basic language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Kagan 1992). One approach to integrating the teaching of critical thinking adopted by CLL advocates is called the Question Matrix (Wiederhold 1995). Wiederhold has developed a battery of cooperative activities built on the matrix that encourages learners to ask and respond to a deeper array of alternative question types. Activities of this kind are believed to foster the development of critical thinking. (The matrix is based on the well-known Taxonomy of Educational Objectives devised by Bloom [1956], which assumes a hierarchy of learning objectives ranging from simple recall of information to forming conceptual judgments.) Kagan and other CL theorists have adopted this framework as an underlying learning theory for Cooperative Learning.

The word cooperative in Cooperative Learning emphasizes another important dimension of CLL: It seeks to develop classrooms that foster cooperation rather than competition in learning. Advocates of CLL, in general education, stress the benefits of cooperation in promoting learning:

Cooperation is working together to accomplish shared goals. Within cooperative situations, individuals seek outcomes beneficial to themselves and all other group members. Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. It may be contrasted with competitive learning in which students work against each other to achieve an academic goal such as a grade of "A." (Johnson et al., 1994, p. 4)

From the perspective of second language teaching, McGroarty (1989) offers six learning advantages for ESL students in CLL classrooms:

- increased frequency and variety of second language practice through different types of

interaction

- possibility for development or use of language in ways that support cognitive development and increased language skills
- opportunities to integrate language with content-based instruction
- opportunities to include a greater variety of curricular materials to stimulate language as well as concept learning
- freedom for teachers to master new professional skills, particularly those emphasizing communication
- opportunities for students to act as resources for each other, thus assuming a more active role in their learning

Topic-098: Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Cooperative Language Learning

Since CLL 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. More specific objectives will derive from the context in which it is used.

The Syllabus

CLL does not assume any particular form of language syllabus, since activities from a wide variety of curriculum orientations can be taught via cooperative learning. Thus we find CLL use in teaching content classes, ESP, the four skills, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. What defines CLL is the systematic and carefully planned use of group-based procedures in teaching as an alternative to teacher-fronted teaching.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

Types of learning and teaching activities, Johnson et al., (1994, pp. 4-5) describe three types of cooperative learning groups.

Formal Cooperative Learning Groups: These last from one class period to several weeks. These are established for a specific task and involve students working together to achieve shared learning goals.

Informal Cooperative Learning Groups: These are ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to a class period and are used to focus student attention or to facilitate learning during direct teaching.

Cooperative Base Groups: These are long term, lasting for at least a year and consist of heterogeneous learning groups with stable membership whose primary purpose is to allow members to give each other the support, help, encouragement, and assistance they need to succeed academically.

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The success of CL is crucially dependent on the nature and organization of group work. This requires a structured program of learning carefully designed, so that learners interact with each other and are motivated to increase each other's learning. Olsen and Kagan (1992) propose the following key elements of successful group-based learning in CL:

- Positive interdependence
- Group formation
- Individual accountability
- Social skills
- Structuring and structures

Positive interdependence occurs when group members feel that what helps one member 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 within the group. For example, a group may produce a single product such as an essay or the scores for members of a group may be averaged.

Group formation is an important factor in creating positive interdependence. Factors involved in setting up groups include:

- Deciding on the size of the group: This will depend on the tasks they have to carry out, the age of the learners, and time limits for the lesson. Typical group size is from two to four.
- Assigning students to groups: Groups can be teacher-selected, random, or student-selected, although teacher-selected is recommended as the usual mode so as to create groups that are heterogeneous on such variables as past achievement, ethnicity, or sex.
- Student roles in groups: Each group member has a specific role to play in a group, such as noise monitor, turn-taker monitor, recorder, or summarizer.

Individual accountability involves both group and individual performance, for example, by assigning each student a grade on his or her portion of a team project or by calling on a student at random to share with the whole class, with group members, or with another group. Social skills determine the way students interact with each other as teammates. Usually some explicit instruction in social skills is needed to ensure successful interaction.

Structuring and Structures refer to ways of organizing student interaction and different ways students are to interact such as Three-step interview or Round Robin (discussed later in this section).

Numerous descriptions exist of activity types that can be used with CLL. Coelho (1992b, p. 132) describes three major kinds of cooperative learning tasks and their learning focus, each of which has many variations.

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Team Practice from Common Input: skills development and mastery of facts.

- All students work on the same material.
- Practice could follow a traditional teacher-directed presentation of new material and for that reason, it is a good starting point for teachers and/or students new to group work.

The task is to make sure that everyone in the group knows the answer to a question and can explain how the answer was obtained or understands the material. Because students want their team to do well, they coach and tutor each other to make sure that any member of the group could answer for all of them and explain their team's answer. - When the teacher takes up the question or assignment, anyone in a group may be called on to answer for the team.

- This technique is good for review and for practice tests; the group takes the practice test together, but each student will eventually do an assignment or take a test individually.
- This technique is effective in situations where the composition of the groups is unstable (in adult programs, for example). Students can form new groups every day.

Jigsaw: differentiated but predetermined input - evaluation and synthesis of facts and opinions.

- Each group member receives a different piece of the information.
- Students regroup in topic groups (expert groups) composed of people with the same piece to master the material and prepare to teach it.
- Students return to home groups (jigsaw groups) to share their information with each other.
- Students synthesize the information through discussion.
- Each student produces an assignment of part of a group project, or takes a test, to demonstrate synthesis of all the information presented by all group members.
- This method of organization may require team-building activities for both, home groups and topic groups, long-term group involvement, and rehearsal of presentation methods.
- This method is very useful in the multilevel class, allowing for both homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping in terms of English proficiency.
- Information-gap activities in language teaching are jigsaw activities in the form of pair work. Partners have data (in the form of text, tables, charts, etc.) with missing information to be supplied during interaction with another partner.

Cooperative Projects: topics/resources selected by students - discovery learning

- Topics may be different for each group.
- Students identify subtopics for each group member.

- Steering committee may coordinate the work of the class as a whole.
- Students research the information using resources such as library reference, interviews visual media.
- Students synthesize their information for a group presentation: oral and/or written. Each group member plays a part in the presentation. - Each group presents to the whole class.
- This method places greater emphasis on individualization and students' interests. Each student's assignment is unique.
- Students need plenty of previous experience with more structured group work for this to be effective. Olsen and Kagan (1992, p. 88) describe the following examples of CLL activities:

Three-step Interview: (1) Students are in pairs; one is interviewer and the other is interviewee. (2) Students reverse roles. (3) Each shares with team member what was learned during the two interviews.

Roundtable: There is one piece of paper and one pen for each team. (1) One student makes a contribution and (2) passes the paper and pen to the student of his or her left. (3) Each student makes contributions in turn. If done orally, the structure is called Round Robin.

Think-Pair-Share: (1) Teacher poses a question (usually a low consensus question). (2) Students think of a response. (3) Students discuss their responses with a partner. (4) Students shire their partner's response with the class.

Solve-Pair-Share: (1) Teacher poses a problem (a low-consensus or high-consensus item that may be resolved with different strategies). (2) Students work out solutions individually. (3) Students explain how they solved the problem in Interview or Round Robin structures. Numbered Heads: (1) Students number off in teams. (2) Teacher asks a question (usually high-consensus). (3) Heads Together - students literally put their heads together and make sure everyone knows and can explain the answer. (4) Teacher calls a number and students with that number raise their hands to be called on, as in traditional classroom.

Topic-099: Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Cooperative Language Learning

Learner Roles

The primary role of the learner is as a member of a group who must work collaboratively on tasks with other group members. Learners have to learn teamwork skills. Learners are also directors of their own learning. They are taught to plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning, which is viewed as a compilation of lifelong learning skills. Thus, learning is something that requires students' direct and active involvement and participation. Pair grouping is the most typical CLL format, ensuring the maximum amount of time both learners spend engaged on learning tasks. Pair

tasks in which learners alternate roles involve partners in the role of tutors, checkers, recorders, and information sharers.

Teacher Roles

The role of the teacher in CLL differs considerably from the role of teachers in traditional teacher-fronted lesson. The teacher has to create a highly structured and well-organized learning environment in the classroom, setting goals, planning and structuring tasks, establishing the physical arrangement of the classroom, assigning students to groups and roles, and selecting materials and time (Johnson et al. 1994). An important role for the teacher is that of facilitator of learning. In his or her role as facilitator, the teacher must move around the class helping students and groups as needs arise.

During this time, the teacher interacts, teaches, refocuses, questions, clarifies, supports, expands, celebrates, and empathizes. Depending on what problems evolve, the following supportive behaviors are utilized. Facilitators are giving feedback, redirecting the group with questions, encouraging the group to solve its own problems, extending activity, encouraging thinking, managing conflict, observing students, and supplying resources. (Hazel 1992, p. 169) Teachers speak less than in teacher-fronted classes. They provide broad questions to challenge thinking, they prepare students for the tasks they will carry out, they assist students with the learning tasks, 'and they give few commands, imposing less disciplinary control (Harel 1992). The teacher may also have the task of restructuring lessons so that students can work on them cooperatively. This involves the following steps, according to Johnson et al. (1994, p. 9):

- Take the existing lessons, curriculum and sources, and structure them cooperatively.
- Tailor cooperative learning lessons to your unique instructional needs, circumstances, curricula, subject areas, and students.
- Diagnose the problems some students may have in working together and intervene to increase learning groups' effectiveness.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Materials play an important part in creating opportunities for students to work cooperatively. The same materials can be used as are used in other types of lessons but variations are required in how the materials are used.

For example, if students are working in groups, each might have one set of materials (or groups might have different sets of materials), or each group member might need a copy of a text to read and refer to. Materials may be specially designed for CLL learning (such as commercially sold jigsaw and information-gap activities), modified from existing materials, or borrowed from other disciplines. Johnson et al. (1994, pp. 67-68) give the following example of how a collaborative learning lesson would be carried out when students are required to write an essay, report, poem, or story, or review something that they have read. A cooperative writing and editing pair arrangement is used. Pairs verify that each member's composition matches the criteria that have been established

by the teacher; they then receive an individual score on the quality of their compositions. They can also be given a group score based on the total number of errors made by the pair in their individual compositions.

Topic-100: Procedure in Cooperative Language Learning

The procedure works in the following way:

1. The teacher assigns students to pairs with at least one good reader in each pair.
2. Student A describes what he or she is planning to write to Student B, who listens carefully, probes with a set of questions, and outlines Student A's ideas. Student B gives the written outline to Student A.
3. This procedure is reversed, with Student B describing what he or she is going to write and Student A listening and completing an outline of Student B's ideas, which is then given to Student B.
4. The students individually research the material they need for their compositions, keeping an eye out for material useful to their partner.
5. The students work together to write the first paragraph of each composition to ensure that they both have a clear start on their compositions.
6. The students write their compositions individually.
7. When the students have completed their compositions, they proofread each other's compositions, making corrections in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, language usage, and other aspects of writing the teacher specifies. Students also give each other suggestions for revision.
8. The students revise their compositions.
9. The students then reread each other's compositions and sign their names to indicate that each composition is error-free.

During this process, the teacher monitors the pairs, intervening when appropriate to help students master the needed writing and cooperative skills.

Lesson-21

CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

Topic-101: Background of Content-Based Instruction

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus. Krahnke offers the following definition:

It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language separately from the content being taught. (Krahnke, 1987, p. 65).

The term content has become a popular one both within language teaching and in the popular media. New York Times columnist and linguistic pundit William Safire addressed it in one of his columns in 1998 and noted:

If any word in the English language is hot and buzz-worthy, surpassing even millennium in both general discourse and insiderese, that word is content. (New York Times, August 19, 1998, 15) Although content is used with a variety of different meanings in language teaching, it most frequently refers to the substance or subject matter that we learn or communicate through language rather than the language used to convey it. Attempts to give priority to meaning in language teaching are not new. Approaches encouraging demonstration, imitation, miming, those recommending the use of objects, pictures, and audio-visual presentations, and proposals supporting translation, explanation, and definition as aids to understanding meaning have appeared at different times in the history of language teaching. Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) propose that Saint Augustine was an early proponent of Content-Based Language Teaching and quote his recommendations regarding focus on meaningful content in language teaching. Kelly's history of language teaching cites a number of such meaning-based proposals (Kelly 1969). Content-Based Instruction likewise draws on the principles of Communicative Language Teaching, as these emerged in the 1980s. If, as it was argued, classrooms should focus on real communication and the exchange of information, an ideal situation for second language learning would be one where the subject matter of language teaching was not grammar or functions or some other language-based unit of organization, but content, that is, subject matter from outside the domain of language. The language that is being taught could be used to present subject matter, and the students would learn the language as a by-product of learning about real-world content. Widdowson commented (1978, p. 16):

I would argue, then, that a foreign language can be associated with those areas of use which are represented by the other subjects on the school curriculum and that this not only helps to ensure the link with reality and the pupil's own experience but also provides us with the most certain means we have of teaching the language as communication, as use, rather than simply as usage. The kind of language course that I envisage is one which deals with a selection of topics taken from the other subjects: simple experiments in physics and chemistry, biological processes in plants and animals, map-drawing, descriptions of historical events and so on. It is easy to see that if such a procedure were adopted, the difficulties associated with the presentation of language use in the classroom

would, to a considerable degree, disappear. The presentation would essentially be the same as the methodological techniques used for introducing the topics in the subjects from which they are drawn.

Other educational initiatives since the late 1970s that also emphasize the principle of acquiring content through language rather than the study of language for its own sake include Language across the Curriculum, Immersion Education, Immigrant On-Arrival Programs, Programs for Students with Limited English Proficiency, and Language for Specific Purposes. Content-Based Instruction draws some of its theory and practice from these curriculum approaches. We will briefly consider the role of content in these curriculum models before looking at the specific claims of Content-Based Instruction.

Topic-102: Role of Content in other Curriculum Designs and Content-Based Instruction

Language across the Curriculum was a proposal for native-language education that grew out of recommendations of a British governmental commission in the mid-1970s. The report of the commission recommended a focus on reading and writing in all subject areas in the curriculum, and not merely in the subject called language arts. Language skills should also be taught in the content subjects and not left exclusively for the English teacher to deal with. This report influenced American education as well, and the slogan "Every teacher, an English teacher" became familiar. Like other cross-disciplinary proposals, this one never had the classroom impact that its advocates had hoped for. Nevertheless, subject-matter texts appeared that included exercises dealing with language practice, and the need for collaboration between subject- matter teachers and language teachers was emphasized. In some cases, curricular material was produced that integrated subject matter and language teaching goals, such as the Singaporean Primary Pilot Project in the 1970s classroom texts integrating science, math, and language study. Immersion Education has also had a strong influence on the theory of Content-Based Instruction. Immersion Education is a type of foreign language instruction in which the regular school curriculum is taught through the medium of the foreign language. The foreign language is the vehicle for content instruction; it is not the subject of instruction. Thus, for example, an English-speaking child might enter a primary school in which the medium of instruction for all the content subjects is French. Student goals of an immersion program include: (1) developing a high level of proficiency in the foreign language; (2) developing positive attitudes toward those who speak the foreign language and toward their culture(s); (3) developing English language skills commensurate with expectations for a student's age and abilities; (4) gaining designated skills and knowledge in the content areas of the curriculum.

The first immersion programs were developed in Canada in the 1970s to provide English-speaking students with the opportunity to learn French. Since that time, immersion programs have been adopted in many parts of North America, and alternative forms of immersion have been devised. In the United States, immersion programs can be found in a number of languages, including French, German, Spanish, Japanese, and Chinese.

Immigrant On-Arrival Programs typically focus on the newly arrived immigrants in a country and their need for survival. Such learners typically need to learn how to deal with differing kinds of

real-world content as a basis for social survival. Design of such courses in Australia was among the first attempts to integrate notional, functional, grammatical, and lexical specifications built around particular themes and situations. A typical course would cover language needed to deal with immigration bureaucracies, finding accommodations, shopping, finding a job, and so forth. The methodology of the Australian on-arrival courses was based on the Direct Method (Ozolins 1993) but included role play and simulations based on the language needed to function in specific situations. In current on-arrival programs, a competency-based approach is often used in which a teaching syllabus is developed around the competencies learners are presumed to need in different survival situations.

Programs for Students with Limited English Proficiency (SLEP) are governmentally mandated programs to serve especially those children whose parents might be served by the on-arrival programs, but more generally designed to provide in-class or pullout instruction for any school-age children whose language competence is insufficient to participate fully in normal school instruction. Early versions of such programs were largely grammar-based. More recent SLEP programs focus on giving students the language and other skills needed to enter the regular school curriculum. Such skills often involve learning how to carry out academic tasks and understand academic content through a second language.

Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) is a movement that seeks to serve the language needs of learners who need language in order to carry out specific roles (e.g., student, engineer, technician, and nurse) and who need to acquire content and real-world skills through the medium of a second language rather than master the language for its own sake. LSP has focused particularly on English for Science and Technology (EST). An institution offering English for Science and Technology courses would have specialized courses to support its clients in learning to read technical articles in computer science or to write academic papers in chemical engineering. LSP/EST have given rise to a number of subfields, such as ESP (English for Specific Purposes), EOP (English for Occupational Purposes), and EAP (English for Academic Purposes).

Content-based courses are now common in many different settings and content is often used as the organizing principle in ESL/EFL courses of many different kinds. Now we will examine the principles underlying Content-Based Instruction and how these are applied in language teaching programs and teaching materials.

Topic-103: Approach and Theory of Language & Learning behind Content-Based Instruction

Content-Based Instruction is grounded on the following two central principles: 1. People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself. This principle reflects one of the motivations for CBI noted earlier - that it leads to more effective language learning.

Content-Based Instruction better reflects learners' needs for learning a second language. This principle reflects the fact that many content-based programs serve to prepare ESL students for academic studies or for mainstreaming; therefore, the need to be able to access the content of

academic learning and teaching as quickly as possible, as well as the processes through which such learning and teaching are realized, are a central priority.

Theory of Language

A number of assumptions about the nature of language underlie Content-Based Instruction.

Language Is Text and Discourse-Based

CBI addresses the role of language as a vehicle for learning content. This implies the centrality of linguistic entities longer than single sentences, because the focus of teaching is how meaning and information are communicated and constructed through texts and discourse. The linguistic units that are central are not limited to the level of sentences and sub-sentential units (clauses and phrases) but are those that account for how longer stretches of language are used and the linguistic features that create coherence and cohesion within speech events and text types. This involves study of the textual and discourse structure of written texts such as letters, reports, essays, descriptions, or book chapters, or of speech events such as meetings, lectures, and discussions.

Language Use Draws on Integrated Skills

CBI views language use as involving several skills together. In a content-based class, students are often involved in activities that link the skills, because this is how the skills are generally involved in the real world. Hence students might read and take notes, listen and write a summary, or respond orally to things they have read or written. And rather than viewing grammar as a separate dimension of language, in CBI, grammar is seen as a component of other skills. Topic-or theme-based courses provide a good basis for an integrated skills approach because the top selected provide coherence and continuity across skill areas and focus on the use of language in connected discourse rather than isolated fragments. They seek to bring together knowledge, language, and thinking skills. Grammar can also be presented through a content-based approach. The teacher or course developer has the responsibility to identify relevant grammatical and other linguistic focuses to complement the topic or theme of the activities.

Language is Purposeful

Language is used for specific purposes. The purpose may be academic, vocational, social, or recreational but it gives direction, shape, and ultimately meaning to discourse and texts. When learners focus on the purpose of the language samples they are exposed to, they become engaged in following through and seeing if the purpose is attained and how their own interests relate to this purpose (or purposes). For learners to receive maximum benefit from CBI, they need to be clearly in tune with its purposes and the language codes that signal and link these expressions of purpose.

Language contains great potential for communicating meaning. In order to make content comprehensible to learners, teachers need to make the same kinds of adjustments and simplifications that native speakers make in communicating with second language learners. The discourse that

results from these simplifications is often referred to as "foreigner talk." Teachers and lecturers operating within CBI consciously and unconsciously make such "foreigner talk" modifications in the language they use in teaching, in order to make the content they are focusing on more comprehensible to their students. These modifications include simplification (e.g., use of shorter T units and clauses), well-formedness (e.g., using few deviations from standard usage), explicitness (e.g., speaking with non-reduced pronunciation), regularization (e.g., use of canonical word order), and redundancy (e.g., highlighting important material through simultaneous use of several linguistic mechanisms) (Stryker and Leaver, 1993).

Theory of Learning

We earlier described one of the core principles of CBI as follows: People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself. Regardless of the type of CBI model that is used, they all "share the fact that content is the point of departure or organizing principle of the course - a feature that grows out of the common underlying assumption that successful language learning occurs when students are presented with target language material in a meaningful, contextualized form with the primary focus on acquiring information" (Brinton et al., Wesche, 1989, p. 17). This assumption is backed by a number of studies (e.g., Scott 1974; Collier 1989; Grandin 1993; Wesche 1993) that support the position that in formal educational settings, second languages are best learned when the focus is on mastery of content rather than on mastery of language per se. CBI, thus, stands in contrast to traditional approaches to language teaching in which language form is the primary focus of the syllabus and of classroom teaching.

A number of additional assumptions that derive from the core principles of CBI just discussed will now be described. One important corollary can be stated as follows:

People learn a second language most successfully when the information they are acquiring is perceived as interesting, useful, and leading to a desired goal.

To justify this claim, CBI advocates refer to ESP studies that "note that for successful learning to occur, the language syllabus must take into account the eventual uses the learner will make of the target language" and further that "the use of informational content which is perceived as relevant by the learner is assumed by many to increase motivation in the language course, and thus to promote more effective learning" (Brinton et al. 1989, p. 3).

Language learning is also believed to be more motivating when students are focusing on something other than language, such as ideas, issues, and opinions. "The student can most effectively acquire a second language when the task of language learning becomes incidental to the task of communicating with someone ... about some topic ... which is inherently interesting to the student" (D'Anglejan and Tucker 1975, p. 284). If content with a high level of interest is chosen, learners may acquire the language more willingly. This can be expressed as: Some content areas are more useful as a basis for language learning than others.

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Certain areas of content are thought to be more effective as a basis for CBI than others. For example, geography is often the "first choice" of subject matter. Geography is "highly visual, spatial and contextual; it lends itself to the use of maps, charts, and realia, and the language tends to be descriptive in nature with use of the `to be', cognates and proper names" (Stryker and Leaver 1993: 288). For somewhat different reasons, "Introduction to Psychology offered an ideal situation in which to intro duce CBI at the bilingual University of Ottawa, since it has the largest enrollment of any introductory course in the university" and thus was likely to "attract a large number of second language speakers to justify special lecture or discussion sections" (Brinton et at., 1989, p. 46).

This course was further recommended because of student interest in the course topics and because of "the highly structured nature of the content, the emphasis on receptive learning of factual information, the availability of appropriate textbooks and video study material" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 46).

On the other hand, CBI courses have been created around a rich variety of alternative kinds of content. Case studies of CBI in foreign language education report content selection as wide-ranging as "Themes of Soviet Life and Worldview" (Russian), "Aphorisms, Proverbs, and Popular Sayings" (Italian), "Religion and Change in Twentieth-Century Latin America" (Spanish), and "French Media" (French). Eleven such case studies using a variety of course content in a variety of foreign language teaching situations are reported in Stryker and Leaver (1993).

Students Learn Best When Instruction Addresses Students' Needs.

This principle emphasizes that in CBI. the content that students study is selected according to their needs. Hence, if the program is at a secondary school, the academic needs of students across the curriculum form the basis for the content curriculum. Authentic texts, both written and spoken, that students will encounter in the real world (e.g., at school or at 210 work) provide the starting point for developing a syllabus, so relevance to learners' needs is assured. In the case of an academically focused program, "the language curriculum is based directly on the academic needs of the students and generally follows the sequence determined by a particular subject matter in dealing with the language problems which students encounter" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 2).

Teaching Builds on the Previous Experience of the Learners.

Another assumption of CBI is that it seeks to build on students' knowledge and previous experience. Students do not start out as blank slates but are treated as bringing important knowledge and understanding to the classroom. The starting point in presenting a theme-based lesson is what the students already know about the content.

Topic-104: Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Content-Based Instruction

Objectives

In CBI, language learning is typically considered incidental to the learning of content. Thus the objectives in a typical CBI course are stated as objectives of the content course. Achievement of content course objectives is considered as necessary and sufficient evidence that language learning objectives have been achieved as well. An exception to this generalization is with the theme-based instructional model of CBI. In theme-based CBI, language learning objectives drive the selection of theme topics; that is, "there are often set linguistic objectives in the curriculum, and thematic modules are selected for the degree to which they provide compatible contexts for working towards these objectives." It is possible for theme-based courses to be directed toward single-skill objectives; however, most often theme-based instruction "lends itself well to four skills courses, since the topic selected provides coherence and continuity across skill areas and allows work on higher-level language skills (e.g., integrating reading and writing skills)" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 26).

An example of objectives in CBI comes from the theme-based Intensive Language Course (ILC) at the Free University of Berlin. Four objectives were identified for its yearlong, multi-theme program. These objectives were linguistic, strategic, and cultural. Objectives were:

- to activate and develop existing English language skills
- to acquire learning skills and strategies that could be applied in future language development opportunities
- to develop general academic skills applicable to university studies in all subject areas
- to broaden students' understanding of English-speaking peoples (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 32).

Syllabus

In most CBI courses, the syllabus is derived from the content area, and these obviously vary widely in detail and format. It is typically only CBI following the theme-based model in which content and instructional sequence is chosen according to language learning goals. The theme- based model uses the syllabus type referred to as a topical syllabus, the organization of which is built around specific topics and subtopics, as the name implies.

The organization of the Intensive Language Course at the Free University of Berlin consists of a sequence of modules spread over the academic year. The topical themes of the modules are:

- Drugs
- Religious Persuasion
- Microchip Technology
- Ecology
- Advertising
- Alternative Energy
- Nuclear Energy

- Britain and the Race Question
- Dracula in Myth, Novel
- Native Americans Films
- Modern Architecture
- Professional Ethics

There is both macro- and micro-structuring of the yearlong syllabus for this course. At the macro-level, the syllabus consists of a sequence of modules selected to reflect student interests and a multidisciplinary perspective. The modules are designed and sequenced so that they "relate to one another so as to create a cohesive transition of certain skills, vocabulary, structures, and concepts." The first six modules are ordered so that early modules have easily accessible, high-interest themes. "Later modules deal with more technical processes and assume mastery of certain skills, vocabulary, structures, and concepts" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 35).

The internal design of the modules (the micro-structure) is such that:

All modules move from an initial exercise intended to stimulate student interest in the theme through a variety of exercises aimed at developing comprehension and the students' ability to manipulate the language appropriate to the situation and use the language of the texts. The final activities of each module require the students to choose the language appropriate for the situation and use it in communicative interaction. (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 34)

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

There are a number of descriptions of activity types in CBI. Stoller (1997) provides a list of activities classified according to their instructional focus. The classification categories she proposes are:

- language skills improvement
- vocabulary building
- discourse organization
- communicative interaction
- study skills
- synthesis of content materials and grammar.

Mohan (1986) describes an approach to content-based ESL instruction at the secondary level that is built around the notion of knowledge structures. This refers to the structures of knowledge across the curriculum in terms of frameworks and schemas that apply to a wide range of topics. The framework consists of six universal knowledge structures, half of which represent specific, practical elements (Description, Sequence, and Choice) and the other half of which represent general, theoretical elements (Concepts/Classification, Principles, and Evaluation). A variety of CBI courses have been developed based on Mohan's knowledge framework.

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Topic-105: Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Content-Based Instruction

Learner Roles

One goal of CBI is for learners to become autonomous so that they come to "understand their own learning process and take charge of their own learning from the very start" (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 286). In addition, most CBI courses anticipate that students will support each other in collaborative modes of learning. This may be a challenge to those students who are accustomed to more whole-class or independent learning and teaching modes. CBI is in the "learning by doing" school of pedagogy. This assumes an active role by learners in several dimensions. Learners are expected to be active interpreters of input, willing to tolerate uncertainty along the path of learning, willing to explore alternative learning strategies, and willing to seek multiple interpretations of oral and written texts.

Learners themselves may be sources of content and joint participants in the selection of topics and activities. Such participation "has been found to be highly motivating and has resulted in a course changing its direction in order to better meet the needs of students" (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 11). Learners need commitment to this new kind of approach to language learning, and CBI advocates warn that some students may not find this new set of learner roles to their liking and may be less than ready and willing participants in CBI courses. Some students are overwhelmed by the quantity of new information in their CBI courses and may flounder. Some students are reported to have experienced frustration and have asked to be returned to more structured, traditional classrooms. Students need to be prepared both psychologically and cognitively for CBI and, if they are not adequately primed, 'then "missing schemata needs to be provided or students need to be kept from enrolling until they are `ready' " (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 292).

The Role of Teachers

CBI anticipates a change in the typical roles of language teachers. "Instructors must be more than just good language teachers. They must be knowledgeable in the subject matter and able to elicit that knowledge from their students." (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 292) At a more detailed level, teachers have to keep context and comprehensibility foremost in their planning and presentations, they are responsible for selecting and adapting authentic materials for use in class, they become student needs analysts, and they have to create truly learner-centered classrooms. As Brinton et al. (1989, p. 3) notes:

They are asked to view their teaching in a new way, from the perspective of truly contextualizing their lessons by using content as the point of departure. They are almost certainly committing themselves to materials adaptation and development. Finally, with the investment of time and energy to create a content-based language course, there comes an even greater responsibility for the learner, since learner needs become the hub around which the second language curriculum and materials, and therefore teaching practices, revolve.

Stryker and Leaver suggest the following essential skills for any CBI instructor:

1. Varying the format of classroom instruction
2. Using group work and team-building techniques
3. Organizing jigsaw reading arrangements
4. Defining the background knowledge and language skills required for student success
5. Helping the students develop coping strategies
6. Using process approaches to writing
7. Using appropriate error correction techniques
8. Developing and maintaining high levels of student esteem

(Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 293)

Content-Based Instruction places different demands on teachers from regular ESL teaching. Brinton et al. (1989) identify the following issues:

- Are adequately trained instructors available to teach the selected courses?
- Will there be any incentives offered to instructors who volunteer to teach in the proposed program (e.g., salary increases, release time, smaller class sizes)?
- How will faculty not willing or qualified to participate in the new program be reassigned?
- How will teachers and other support staff be oriented to the model (e.g., pre-service, in-service)?
- What is the balance of language and content teaching (i.e., focus on content teaching, focus on language teaching, and equal attention to both)? - What are the roles of the teacher (e.g., facilitator, content-area expert, language expert)? What is the anticipated workload (e.g., contact hours, curriculum duties)?
- Who is responsible for selecting the teaching materials? - Are teachers expected to develop content-specific language-teaching materials? If yes, will materials development training and guidelines be provided?
- Will alternate staffing configurations (e.g., curriculum and materials specialists, team teaching) be used?

Almost all participating instructors comment on the large amounts of time and energy involved in Content-Based Instruction and many describe it as "a major challenge. Taking up this challenge requires a highly motivated and dedicated individual or group of individuals" (Stryker and Leaver 1993: 311).

The Role of Materials

As with other elements in CBI, the materials that facilitate language learning are the materials that are used typically with the subject matter of the content course. It is recommended that a rich variety of materials types be identified and used with the central concern being the notion that the materials are "authentic." In one sense, authenticity implies that the materials are like the kinds of materials used in native-language instruction. In another sense, authenticity refers to introduction of, say, newspaper and magazine articles and any other media materials ""that were not originally produced for language teaching purposes" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 17). Many CBI practitioners recommend the use of realia such as tourist guidebooks, technical journals, railway timetables, newspaper ads, radio and TV broadcasts, and so on, and at least one cautions that "textbooks are

contrary to the very concept of CBI - and good language teaching in general" (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 295).

However, comprehensibility is as critical as authenticity and it has been pointed out that CBI courses are often "characterized by a heavy use of instructional media (e.g., videotapes and/or audiotapes) to further enrich the context provided by authentic readings selected to form the core of the thematic unit" (Brinton et al. 1989, p. 31). Although authenticity is considered critical, CBI proponents do note that materials (as well as lecturer presentations) may need modification in order to ensure maximum comprehensibility. This may mean linguistic simplification or adding redundancy to text materials. It will certainly mean "providing guides and strategies to assist students in comprehending the materials" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 17).

Lesson-22

TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic-106: Background of Task-Based Language Teaching

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. Some of its proponents (e.g., Willis 1996) present it as a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching since it draws on several principles that formed part of the communicative language teaching movement from the 1980s. For example:

- Activities that involve real communication are essential for language learning.
- Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning.
- Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

Tasks are proposed as useful vehicles for applying these principles. Two early applications of a task-based approach within a communicative framework for language teaching were the Malaysian Communicational Syllabus (1975) and the Bangalore Project (Beretta and Davies Prabhu 1987; Beretta 1990) both of which were relatively short-lived. The role of tasks has received further support from some researchers in second language acquisition, who are interested in developing pedagogical applications of second language acquisition theory (e.g., Long and Crookes 1993). An interest in tasks as potential building blocks of second language instruction emerged when researchers turned to tasks as SLA research tools in the mid-1980s. SLA research has focused on the strategies and cognitive processes employed by second language learners. This research has suggested a reassessment of the role of formal grammar instruction in language teaching. There is no evidence, it is argued, that the type of grammar-focused teaching activities used in many language classrooms reflects the cognitive learning processes employed in naturalistic language learning situations outside the classroom. Engaging learners in task work provides a better context for the activation of learning processes than form-focused activities, and hence ultimately provides better opportunities for language learning to take place. Language learning is believed to depend on immersing students not merely in "comprehensible input" but in tasks that require them to negotiate meaning and engage in naturalistic and meaningful communication.

The key assumptions of task-based instruction are summarized by Feez (1998, p. 17) as:

- The focus is on process rather than product.
- Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.
- Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in the activities and tasks.
- Activities and tasks can be either: those that learners might need to achieve in real life; those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.
- Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus are sequenced according to difficulty.

The difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors including the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to undertake the task, and the degree of support available.

Because of its links to Communicative Language Teaching methodology and support from some prominent SLA theorists, TBLT has gained considerable attention within applied linguistics, though there have been few large-scale practical applications of it and little documentation concerning its implications or effectiveness as a basis for syllabus design, materials development, and classroom teaching.

Task-Based Language Teaching proposes the notion of "task" as a central unit of planning and teaching. Although definitions of task vary in TBLT, there is a common-sensical understanding that a task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy.

Tasks are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use, so task-based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communicative language teaching. (Skehan 1996b, p.20) Nunan (1989, p. 10) offers this definition: the communicative task [is] a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.

Although advocates of TBLT have embraced the concept of task with enthusiasm and conviction, the use of tasks as a unit in curriculum planning has a much older history in education. It first appeared in the vocational training practices of the 195Os. Task analysis initially focused on solo psychomotor tasks for which little communication or collaboration was involved. In task analysis, on-the-job, largely manual tasks were translated into training tasks. The process is outlined by Smith:

The operational system is analyzed from the human factors point of view, and a mission profile or flow chart is prepared to provide a basis for developing the task inventory. The task inventory (an outline of the major duties in the job and the more specific job tasks associated with each duty) is prepared, using appropriate methods of job analysis. Decisions are made regarding tasks to be taught and the level of proficiency to be attained by the students. A detailed task description is prepared for those tasks to be taught. Each task is broken down into the specific acts required for its performance. The specific acts, or task elements, are reviewed to identify the knowledge and skill components involved in task performance. Finally, a hierarchy of objectives is organized. (Smith 1971, p. 584)

A similar process is at the heart of the curriculum approach known as Competency-Based Language Teaching. Task-based training identified several key areas of concern.

- analysis of real-world task-use situations
- the translation of these into teaching tasks descriptions
- the detailed design of instructional tasks
- the sequencing of instructional tasks in classroom training/teaching

These same issues remain central in current discussions of task-based instruction in language teaching. Although task analysis and instructional design initially dealt with solo job performance on manual tasks, attention then turned to team tasks, for which communication is required. Four major categories of team performance function were recognized:

1. orientation functions (processes for generating and distributing information necessary to task accomplishment to team members)
2. organizational functions (processes necessary for members to coordinate actions necessary for task performance)
3. adaptation functions (processes occurring as team members adapt their performance to each other to complete the task).
4. motivational functions (defining team objectives and "energizing the group" to complete the task)

Advocates of TBLT have made similar attempts to define and validate the nature and function of tasks in language reaching. Although studies of the kind just noted have focused on the nature of occupational tasks, academic tasks have also been the focus of considerable attention in general education since the early 1970s. Doyle noted that in elementary education, "the academic task is the mechanism through which the curriculum is enacted for students" (Doyle 1983, p. 161). Academic tasks are defined as having four important dimensions:

- the products students are asked to produce
- the operations they are required to use in order to produce these products
- the cognitive operations required and the resources available
- the accountability system involved

Topic-107: Theory of Language and Learning behind Task-Based Language Teaching

TBLT is primarily motivated by a theory of learning rather than a theory of language. However, several assumptions about the nature of language can be said to underlie current approaches to TBLT. These are:

Language is Primarily a Means of Making Meaning

In common with other realizations of communicative language teaching, TBLT emphasizes the central role of meaning in language use. Skehan notes that in task-based instruction (TBI), "meaning is primary the assessment of the task in terms of outcome" and that task-based instruction is not "concerned with language display" (Skehan 1998, p. 98).

Multiple Models of Language Inform TBI

Advocates of task-based instruction draw on structural, functional, and interactional models of language. This seems to be more a matter of convenience than of ideology. For example, structural criteria are employed by Skehan in discussing the criteria for deter- mining the linguistic complexity of tasks:

Language is simply seen as less-to-more complex in fairly traditional ways, since linguistic complexity is interpretable as constrained by structural syllabus considerations. (Skehan 1998, p. 99)

Other researchers have proposed functional classifications of task types. For example, Berwick uses "task goals" as one of two distinctions in classification of task types. He notes that task goals are principally "educational goals which have clear didactic function" and "social (phatic) goals which require the use of language simply because of the activity in which the participants are engaged." 1998: (Berwick 1988, cited in Skehan distinction of tasks 101). Foster and Skehan (1996) proposed a classification consisting of functional, personal, narrative, and decision-making tasks.

These and other such classifications of task type borrow categories of language function from models proposed by Jakobson, Halliday, Wilkins, and others.

Finally, task classifications proposed by those coming from the SLA research tradition of interaction studies focus on interactional dimensions of tasks. For example, Pica (1994) distinguishes between interactional activity and communicative goal. TBI is therefore not linked to a single model of language but rather draws on all three models of language theory.

Lexical Units Are Central in Language Use and Language Learning

In recent years, vocabulary has been considered to play a more central role in second language learning than was traditionally assumed. Vocabulary is here used to include the consideration of lexical phrases, sentence stems, prefabricated routines, and collocations, and not only words as significant units of linguistic lexical analysis and language pedagogy.

Many task-based proposals incorporate this perspective. Skehan, for example (1996b, pp. 21-22), comments:

Although much of language teaching has operated under the assumption that language is essentially structural, with vocabulary elements slotting in to fill structural patterns, many linguists and psycholinguists have argued that native language speech processing is very frequently lexical in nature. This means that speech processing is based on the production and reception of whole phrase units larger than the word which do not require any internal processing when they are reeled. Fluency concerns the learner's capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing for hesitation. It is likely to rely upon more lexicalized modes of communication, as the pressures of real-time speech production met only by avoiding excessive rule-based computation.

"Conversation" is the Central Focus of Language and the Keystone of Language Acquisition

Speaking and trying to communicate with others through the spoken language drawing on the learner's available linguistic and communicative resources is considered the basis for second language acquisition in TBI; hence, the majority of tasks that are proposed within TBLT involve conversation.

Theory of Learning

TBI shares the general assumptions about the nature of language learning underlying Communicative Language Teaching. However some additional learning principles play a central role in TBLT theory. These are:

Tasks Provide both the Input and Output Processing Necessary for Language Acquisition

Krashen has long insisted that comprehensible input is the one necessary (and sufficient) criterion for successful language acquisition. Others have argued, however, that productive output and not merely input is also critical for adequate second language development. For example, in language immersion classrooms in Canada, Swain (1985) showed that even after years of exposure to comprehensible input, the language ability of immersion students still lagged behind native-speaking peers. She claimed that adequate opportunities for productive use of language are critical for full language development. Tasks, it is said, provide full opportunities for both input and output requirements, which are believed to be key processes in language learning. Other researchers have looked at "negotiation of meaning" as the necessary element in second language acquisition. "It is meaning negotiation which focuses a learner's attention on some part of an [the learner's] utterance (pronunciation, grammar, lexicon, etc.) which requires modification. That is, negotiation can be viewed as the trigger for acquisition" (Plough and Gass 1993, p. 36).

Tasks are believed to foster processes of .negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation that are at the heart of second language learning. This view is part of a more general focus on the critical importance of conversation in language acquisition (e.g., Sato 1988). Drawing on S.LA research on negotiation and interaction, TBLT proposes that the task is the pivot point for stimulation of input-output practice, negotiation of meaning, and transactionally focused conversation.

Task Activity and Achievement are Motivational

Tasks are also said to improve learner motivation and therefore promote learning. This is because they require the learners to use authentic language, they have well-defined dimensions and closure, they are varied in format and operation, they typically include physical activity, they involve partnership and collaboration, they may call on the learner's past experience, and they tolerate and encourage a variety of communication styles. One teacher trainee, commenting on an experience involving listening tasks, noted that such tasks are "genuinely authentic, easy to understand because of natural repetition; students are motivated to listen because they have just done the same task and

want to compare how they did it" (quoted in Willis 1996, pp. 61-62).

Learning Difficulty can be Negotiated and Fine Tuned for Particular Pedagogical Purposes

Another claim for tasks is that specific tasks can be designed to facilitate the use and learning of particular aspects of language. Long and Crookes (1991, p. 43) claim that tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities, and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty.

In more detailed support of this claim, Skehan suggests that in selecting or designing tasks, there is a trade-off between cognitive processing and focus on form. More difficult and cognitively demanding tasks reduce the amount of attention the learner can give to the formal features of messages, something that is thought to be necessary for accuracy and grammatical development. In other words, if the task is too difficult, fluency may develop at the expense of accuracy. He suggests that tasks can be designed along a cline of difficulty so that learners can work on tasks that enable them to develop both fluency and an awareness of language form (Skehan.1998, p. 97). He also proposes that tasks can be used to "channel" learners toward particular aspects of language.

Such channeled use might be towards some aspect of the discourse, or accuracy, complexity, fluency in general, or even occasionally, the use of particular sets of structures in the language. (Skehan 1998, p. 97-98)

Topic-108: Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Task-Based Language Teaching

Objectives

There are a few published (or perhaps, fully implemented) examples of complete language programs that claim to be fully based on most recent formulations of TBLT. The literature contains mainly descriptions of examples of task-based activities. However, as with other communicative approaches, goals in TBLT are ideally to be determined by the specific needs of particular learners. Selection of tasks, according to Long and Crookes (1993), should be based on a careful analysis of the real-world needs of learners. An example of how this was done with a national English curriculum is the English Language Syllabus in Schools Malaysian (1975) - a national, task-based communicative syllabus. A very broad goal for English use was determined by the Ministry of Education at a time when Malay was systematically replacing English-medium instruction at all levels of education. An attempt to define the role of English, given the new role for national Malay language, led to the broad goal of giving all Malaysian secondary school leavers the ability to communicate accurately and effectively in the most common English language activities they may be involved in. Following this broad statement, the syllabus development team identified a variety of work situations in which English use was likely. The anticipated vocational (and occasionally recreational) uses of English for nontertiary-bound, upper secondary school leavers were stated as a list of general English use objectives. The resulting twenty-four objectives then became the framework within which a variety of related activities were proposed. The components of these

activities were defined in the syllabus under the headings of Situation, Stimulus, Product, Tasks, and Cognitive Process.

The Syllabus

The differences between a conventional language syllabus and a task-based one are discussed below. A conventional syllabus typically specifies the content of a course from among these categories:

- language structures
- functions
- topics and themes
- macro-skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)
- competencies
- text types
- vocabulary targets

The syllabus specifies content and learning outcomes and is a document that can be used as a basis for classroom teaching and the design of teaching materials. Although proponents of TBLT do not preclude an interest in learners' development of any of these categories, they are more concerned with the process dimensions of learning than with the specific content and skills that might be acquired through the use of these processes. A TBLT syllabus, therefore, specifies the tasks that should be carried out by learners within a program. Nunan (1989) suggests that a syllabus might specify two types of tasks:

5. **Real-world Tasks** are designed to practice or rehearse those tasks that are found to be important in a needs analysis and turn out to be important and useful in the real world

6. **Pedagogical Tasks** have a psycho linguistic basis in SLA theory and research but do not necessarily reflect real-world tasks. Using the telephone would be an example of the former, and an information-gap task would be an example of the latter. (It should be noted that a focus on Type 1 tasks, their identification through needs analysis, and the use of such information as the basis for the planning and delivery of teaching are identical with procedures used in Competency Based Instruction). In the Bangalore Project (a task-based design for primary age learners of English), both types of tasks were used, as is seen from the following ten task types list:

Task type	Example
1. Diagrams and formations 2. Drawing 3. Clock faces 4. Monthly calendar 5. Maps - 6. School timetables	1. Naming parts of a diagram with numbers and letters of the alphabet as instructed.. 2. Drawing geometrical figures/ formations from sets of verbal instructions 3. Positioning hands on a clock to show a given time

7. Programs and itineraries	4. Calculating duration in days and weeks in the context of travel, leave, and so on
8. Train timetables	5. Constructing a floor plan of a house from a description
9. Age and year of birth,	6. Constructing timetables for teachers of particular subjects
10. Money	7. Constructing itineraries from descriptions of travel
	8. Selecting trains appropriate to given Needs
	9. Working out year of birth from age
	10. Deciding on quantities to be bought given the money available

Norris, Brown, Hudson, and Yoshioka (1998) provide examples of representative real-world tasks grouped according to themes. For example:

Theme: Planning a vacation
Tasks

- decide where you can go based on the "advantage miles"
- booking a flight
- choosing a hotel
- booking a room

Theme: Application to a university
Tasks

- applying to the university corresponding with the department chair
- inquiring about financial support
- selecting the courses you want and are eligible to take, using advice from your adviser
- registering by phone
- calculating and paying your fees

It is hard to see that this classification offers much beyond the intuitive impressions of the writers of Situational Language Teaching materials of the 1960s or the data-free taxonomies that are seen in Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1978). Nor have subsequent attempts at describing task dimensions and task difficulty gone much beyond speculation (see Skehan 1998, pp. 98-99).

In addition to selecting tasks as the basis for a TBLT syllabus, the ordering of tasks also has to be determined. We saw that the intrinsic difficulty of tasks has been proposed as a basis for the sequencing of tasks, but task difficulty is itself a concept that is not easy to determine. Honeyfield (1993, p.129) offers the following considerations:

- Procedures, or what the learners have to do to derive output from input

- Input text
- Output required
- Language items: vocabulary, structures, discourse structures, processability, and so on
- Skills, both macro-skills and sub skills
- World knowledge or "topic content"
- Text handling or conversation strategies
- Amount and type of help given
- Role of teachers and learners
- Time allowed
- Motivation
- Confidence
- Learning styles

This list illustrates the difficulty of operationalizing the notion of task difficulty: One could add almost anything to it, such as time of day, room temperature, or the after effects of breakfast! We have seen that there are many different views as to what constitutes a task. Consequently, there are many competing descriptions of basic task types in TBLT and of appropriate classroom activities. Breen gives a very broad description of a task (1987, p. 26):

A language learning task can be regarded as a springboard for learning work. In a broad sense, it is a structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge and capabilities entailed in a new language and its use during communication. Such a work plan will have its own particular objective, appropriate content which is to be worked upon, and a working procedure. A simple and brief exercise is a task, and so are more complex and comprehensive work plans which require spontaneous communication of meaning or the solving of problems in learning and communicating. Any language test can be included within this spectrum of tasks. All materials designed for language reaching - through their particular organization of content and the working procedures they assume or propose for the learning of content - can be seen as compendia of tasks.

For Prabhu, a task is "an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process" (Prabhu 1987, p. 17). Reading train timetables and deciding which train one should take to get to a certain destination on a given day is an appropriate classroom task according to this definition. Crookes defines a task as "a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, at work, or used to elicit data for research" (Crookes 1986)

7. **Output required:** a) Language items: vocabulary, structures, discourse structures, processability, and so on 1). This definition would lead to a very different set of "tasks" from those identified by Prahbu, since it could include not only summaries, essays, and class notes, but presumably, in some language classrooms; drills, dialogue readings; and any of the other "tasks" that teachers use to attain their teaching objectives.

In the literature on TBLT, several attempts have been made to group tasks into categories, as a

basis for task design and description. Willis (1996) proposes six task types built on more or less traditional knowledge hierarchies. She labels her task examples as follows:

- Listing
- Ordering and sorting
- Comparing
- Problem solving
- Sharing personal experiences
- Creative tasks

Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) classify tasks according to the type of interaction that occurs in task accomplishment and give the following classification:

1. Jigsaw tasks: These involve learners combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g., three individuals or groups may have three different parts of a story and have to piece the story together).
2. Information-gap tasks: One student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity.
3. Problem-solving tasks: Students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem. There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.
4. Decision-making tasks: Students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.
5. Opinion exchange tasks: Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach agreement.

Other characteristics of tasks have also been described, 'such as the following:

1. **One-way or two-way:** whether the task involves a one-way exchange of information or a two-way exchange
2. **Convergent or divergent:** whether the students achieve a common goal or several different goals
3. **Collaborative or competitiv**e: whether the students collaborate to carry out a task or compete with each other on a task
4. **Single or multiple outcomes:** whether there is a single outcome or many different outcomes are possible.
5. **Concrete or abstract language:** whether the task involves the use of concrete language or abstract language
6. **Simple or complex processing:** whether the task requires relatively simple or complex cognitive processing
7. **Simple or complex language:** whether the linguistic demands of the task are relatively simple or complex
8. **Reality-based or not reality-based:** whether the task mirrors a real- world activity or is a pedagogical activity not found in the real world.

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Topic-109: Role of Learners, Teachers and Materials in Task-Based Language Teaching

Learner Roles

A number of specific roles for learners are assumed in current proposals for TBI. Some of these overlap with the general roles assumed for learners in Communicative Language Teaching while others are created by th' focus on task completion as a central learning activity. Primary roles that are implied by task work are:

Group Participant

Many tasks will be done in pairs or small groups. For students more accustomed to whole class and/or individual work, this may require some adaptation.

Monitor

In TBLT, tasks are not employed for their own sake but as a means of facilitating learning. Class activities have to be designed so that students have the opportunity to notice how language is used in communication. Learners themselves need to "attend" not only to the message in task work, but also to the form in which such messages typically come packed. A number of learner-initiated techniques to support learner reflection on task characteristics, including language form, are proposed in Bell and Burnaby (1984).

Risk-Taker and Innovator

Many tasks will require learners to create and interpret messages for which they lack full linguistic resources and prior experience. In fact, this is said to be the point of such tasks. Practice in restating, paraphrasing, using paralinguistic signals (where appropriate), and so on, will often be needed. The skills of guessing from linguistic and contextual clues, asking for clarification, and consulting with other learners may also need to be developed.

Teacher Roles

Additional roles are also assumed for teachers in TBI, including:

Selector and Sequencer of Tasks

A central role of the teacher is in selecting, adapting, and/or creating the tasks themselves and then forming these into an instructional sequence in keeping with learner needs, interests, and language skill level.

Preparing Learners for Tasks

Most TBLT proponents suggest that learners should not go into new tasks "cold" and that some

sort of pre-task preparation or cuing is important. Such activities might include topic introduction, clarifying task instructions, helping students learn or recall useful words and phrases to facilitate task accomplishment, and providing partial demonstration of task procedures. Such cuing may be inductive and implicit or deductive and explicit.

Consciousness-Raising

Current views of TBLT hold that if learners are to acquire language through participating in tasks, they need to attend to or notice critical features of the language they use and hear. This is referred to as "Focus on Form." TBLT proponents stress that this does not mean doing a grammar lesson before students take on a task. It does mean employing a variety of form-focusing techniques, including attention-focusing pre-task activities, text exploration, guided exposure to parallel tasks, and use of highlighted material.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Pedagogic Materials

Instructional materials play an important role in TBLT because it is dependent on a sufficient supply of appropriate classroom tasks, some of which may require considerable time, ingenuity, and resources to develop. Materials that can be exploited for instruction in TBLT are limited only by the imagination of the task designer. Many contemporary language teaching texts cite a "task focus" or "task-based activities" among their credentials, though most of the tasks that appear in such books are familiar classroom activities for teachers who employ collaborative learning, Communicative Language Teaching, or small-group activities. Several teacher resource books are available that contain representative sets of sample task activities (e.g., Willis 1996) that can be adapted for a variety of situations. A number of task collections have also been put into textbook form for students use. Some of these are in more or less traditional text format (e.g., Think Twice, Hover 1986), some are multimedia (e.g., Challenges, Candlin and Edelhoff 1982), and some are published as task cards (e.g., Malaysian Upper Secondary Communicational Syllabus Resource Kit, 1979). A wide variety of realia can also be used as a resource for TBI.

Realia

TBI proponents favor the use of authentic tasks supported by authentic materials wherever possible. Popular media obviously provide rich resources for such materials. The following are some of the task types that can be built around such media products.

Newspapers

- Students examine a newspaper, determine its sections, and suggest three new sections that might go in the newspaper.
- Students prepare a job-wanted ad using examples from the classified section.
- Students prepare their weekend entertainment plan using the entertainment section.

Television

• Students take notes during the weather report and prepare a map with weather symbols showing likely weather for the predicted period. In watching an infomercial, students identify and list "hype" words and then try to construct a parallel ad following the sequence of the hype words.
• After watching an episode of an unknown soap opera, students list the characters (with known or made-up names) and their possible relation- ship to other characters in the episode.

Internet

• Given a book title to be acquired, students conduct a comparative shopping analysis of three Internet booksellers, listing prices, mailing times, and shipping charges, and choose a vendor justifying their choice.
• Seeking to find an inexpensive hotel in Tokyo, students search with three different search engines (e.g., Yahoo, Netscape, Snap), comparing search times and analyzing the first ten hits to determine most useful search engine for their purpose.
• Students initiate a "chat" in a chat room, indicating a current interest in their life and developing an answer to the first three people to respond. They then start a diary with these text-sets, ranking the responses.

Topic-110: Procedure in Task-Based Language Teaching

The way in which task activities are designed into an instructional block can be seen from the following example from Richards (1985). The example comes from a language program that contained a core component built around tasks. The program was an intensive conversation course for Japanese college students studying on a summer program in the United States. Needs analysis identified target tasks the students needed to be able to carry out in English, including:

- basic social survival transactions
- face-to-face informal conversations
- telephone conversations
- interviews on the campus
- service encounters

A set of role-play activities was then developed focusing on situations students would encounter in the community and transactions they would have to carry out in English. The following format was developed for each role-play task:

Pre-Task Activities

1.Learners first take part in a preliminary activity that introduces the topic, the situation, and the "script" that will subsequently appear in the role-play task. Such activities are of various kinds, including brain-storming, ranking exercises, and problem-solving tasks. The focus is on thinking about a topic, generating vocabulary and related language, and developing expectations about the

topic. This activity therefore prepares learners for the role-play task by establishing schemata of different kinds.

2. Learners then read a dialogue on a related topic. This serves both to model the kind of transaction the learner will have to perform in the role-play task and to provide examples of the kind of language that could be used to carry out such a transaction.

Task Activity

3. Learners perform a role play. Students work in pairs with a task and cues needed to negotiate the task.

Post-Task Activities

4. Learners then listen to recordings of native speakers performing the same role-play task they have just practiced and compare differences between the way they expressed particular functions and meanings and the way native speakers performed.

Willis (1996: 56-57) recommends a similar sequence of activities:

Pre-task

Introduction to topic and task

- It helps to understand the theme and objectives of the task, for example, brainstorming ideas with the class, using pictures, mime, or personal experience to introduce the topic.
- Students may do a pre-task, for example, topic-based odd-word-out games. They may highlight useful words and phrases, but would not pre-teach new structures.
- Students can be given preparation time to think about how to do the task. They can hear a recording of a parallel task being done (so long as this does not give away the solution to the problem).
- If the task is based on a text, Students read part of it.

The task cycle

- The task is done by Students (in pairs or groups) and gives them a chance to use whatever language they already have to express themselves and say whatever they want to say. This may be in response to reading a text or hearing a recording.
- Teacher walks round and monitors, encouraging in a supportive way everyone's attempts at communication in the target language.
- Teacher helps Students to formulate what they want to say, but will not intervene to correct errors of form.
- The emphasis is on spontaneous, exploratory talk and confidence building, within the privacy of the small group.
- Success in achieving the goals of the task helps students' motivation.

Planning

- Planning prepares for the next stage, when students are asked to report briefly to the whole class how they did the task and what the outcome was.
- Students draft and rehearse what they want to say or write. - Teacher goes round to advise students on language, suggesting phrases and helping Ss to polish and correct their language.
- If the reports are in writing, Teacherscan encourage peer editing and use of dictionaries.
- The emphasis is on clarity, organization, and accuracy, as appropriate for a public presentation.
- Individual students often take this chance to ask questions about specific language items.

Report

- Teacher asks some pairs to report briefly to the whole class so everyone can compare findings, or begin a survey. (NB: There must be a purpose for others to listen.) Sometimes only one or two groups report in full, others comment and add extra points. The class may take notes. Teacher chairs, comments on the content of their reports, rephrases perhaps, but gives no overt public correction.

Post-task listening

- Students listen to a recording of fluent speakers doing the same task, and compare the ways in which they did the task themselves.

Analysis

- Teacher sets some language-focused tasks, based on the texts students have read or on the transcripts of the recordings they have heard.

Examples include the following:

Find words and phrases related to the title of the topic or text. Read the transcript, find words ending in s or 's, and say what the ‘s’ means.

Find all the verbs in the simple past form. Say which refer to past time and which do not.
Underline and classify the questions in the transcript.

- Teacher starts Students off, then Students continue, often in pairs.
- Teacher goes round to help; Students can ask individual questions.

In plenary, Teacher then reviews the analysis, possibly writing relevant language up on the board in list form; Students may make notes.

Practice

• Teacher conducts practice activities as needed, based on the language analysis work already on the board, or using examples from the text or transcript.

Practice activities can include:

• Choral repetition of the phrases identified and classified memory challenge games based on partially erased examples or using lists already on blackboard for progressive deletion sentence completion (set by one team for another), matching the past-tense verbs (jumbled) with the subject or objects they had in the text. Kim's game (in teams) with new words and phrases dictionary reference words from text or transcript.

Conclusion

Few would question the pedagogical value of employing tasks as a vehicle for promoting communication and authentic language use in second language classrooms, and depending on one's definition of a task, tasks have long been part of the mainstream repertoire of language teaching techniques for teachers of many different methodological persuasions. TBLT, however, offers a different rationale for the use of tasks as well as different criteria for its design. It is the dependence on tasks as the primary source of pedagogical input, teaching and the absence of a systematic grammatical or other type of syllabus that characterizes current versions of TBLT, and that distinguishes it from the use of tasks in Competency-Based Language Teaching; another task-based approach but one that is not wedded to the theoretical framework and assumptions of TBLT. Many aspects of TBLT have yet to be justified, such as proposed schemes for task types, task sequencing, and evaluation of task performance. And the basic assumption of Task-Based Language Teaching - that it provides for a more effective basis for teaching than other language teaching approaches - remains in the domain of ideology rather than fact.

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Lesson-23

THE POST-METHODS ERA AND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

Topic-111: Background of the Post-methods Era/Eclectic Approach

The history of language teaching in the last one hundred years has been characterized by a search for more effective ways of teaching second or foreign languages. The commonest solution to the "language teaching problem" was seen to lie in the adoption of a new teaching approach or method. One result of this trend was the era of so-called designer or brand-name methods, that is, packaged solutions that can be described and marketed for use anywhere in the world. Thus, the Direct Method was introduced enthusiastically in the early part of the twentieth century as an improvement over Grammar Translation. In the 1950s the Audio-lingual Method was thought to provide a way forward, incorporating the latest insights from the sciences of linguistics and psychology. As the Audio-lingual Method began to fade in the 1970s, particularly in the United States, a variety of guru-led methods emerged to fill the vacuum created by the discrediting of Audio-lingual ism, such as the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and Suggestopedia. While these had declined substantially by the 1990s, new "breakthroughs" continued to be announced from time to time, such as Task-Based Instruction, Neurolinguistic Programming, and Multiple Intelligences, and these-attract varying levels of support. Mainstream language teaching on both sides of the Atlantic, however, opted for Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as the recommended basis for language teaching methodology in the 1980s and it continues to be considered the most plausible basis for language teaching even today, although, CLT is today understood to mean little more than a set of very general principles that can be applied and interpreted in a variety of ways.

Following are examples of approaches that have emerged over years:

- Communicative Language Teaching
- Competency-Based Language Teaching
- Content-Based Instruction
- Cooperative Learning
- Lexical Approaches
- Multiple Intelligences
- The Natural Approach
- Neurolinguistic Programming
- Task-Based Language Teaching
- Whole Language Approach

Each of these approaches (or at least those that have been more fully elaborated and adopted) has in common a core set of theories and beliefs about the nature of language, of language learning, and a derived set of principles for teaching a language. None of them, however, leads to a specific set of prescriptions and techniques to be used in teaching a language. They are characterized by a

variety of interpretations as to how the principles can be applied. Because of this level of flexibility and the possibility of varying interpretations and application, approaches tend to have a long shelf life. They allow for individual interpretation and application in different contexts. They can be revised and updated over time as new practices emerge.

A method, on the other hand, refers to a specific instructional design or system based on a particular theory of language and of language learning. It contains detailed specifications of content, roles of teachers and learners, and teaching procedures and techniques. It is relatively fixed in time and there is generally little scope for individual interpretation. Methods are learned through training. The teacher's role is to follow the method and apply it precisely according to the rules. The following are examples of methods in this sense:

- Audio-lingualism
- Counseling-Learning Method
- Situational Language Teaching Method
- The Silent Way
- Suggestopedia
- Total Physical Response

Compared to approaches, methods tend to have a relatively short shelf life. Because they are often linked to very specific claims and to prescribe practices, they tend to fall out of favor as these practices become un- fashionable or discredited. The heyday of methods can be considered to have lasted up till the late 1980s.

However, methods offer some advantages over approaches, and this doubtless explains their appeal. Because of the general nature of approaches, there is often no clear application of their assumptions and principles in the classroom.

Much is left to the individual teacher's interpretation, skill, and expertise. Consequently, there is often no clear right or wrong way of teaching according to an approach and no pre- scribed body of practice waiting to be implemented. This lack of detail can be a source of frustration and irritation for teachers, particularly those with little training or experience. Methods, on the other hand, solve many of the problems beginning teachers have to struggle with because many of the basic decisions about what to teach and how to teach it have already been made for them. Moreover, method enthusiasts create together a professional community with a common purpose, ideology, and vernacular. This provides adherents with a cohort group of like-minded teachers with whom they can share ideas and experiences. Methods can also be seen as a rich resource of activities, some of which can be adapted or adopted regardless of one's own ideology. Like the "P-P-P" prescription of Present, Practice, and Produce, a method offers to the novice, teacher the reassurance of a detailed set of sequential steps to follow in the classroom.

The extent to which new approaches and methods become widely accepted and have a lasting impact on teachers' practices also depends on the relative ease or difficulty of introducing the changes the approach or method requires. Curriculum changes are of many different kinds. They may affect teachers' pedagogical values and beliefs, their understanding of the nature of language or

second language learning, or their classroom practices and uses of teaching materials. Some changes may be readily accepted, others resisted. The following questions will therefore affect the extent to which a new approach or method is adopted:

- What advantages does the new approach or method offer? Is it perceived to be more effective than current practices?
- How compatible is it with teachers' existing beliefs and attitudes and with the organization and practices within classrooms and schools? - Is the new approach or method very complicated and difficult to under- stand and use?
- Has it been tested out in some schools and classrooms before teachers are expected to use it?
- Have the benefits of the new approach or method been clearly communicated to teachers and institutions?
- How clear and practical is the new approach or method? Are its expectations stated in ways that clearly show how it can be used in the classroom?

Eclectic Approach

- Main proponent: Rivers 1981
- Eclectic approach is a method of language education that combines various approaches and methodologies to teach language depending on the aims of the lesson and the abilities of the learners.

Yet the notion of methods came under criticism in the 1990s for other reasons, and a number of limitations implicit in the notion of all-purpose methods were raised. By the end of the twentieth century, mainstream language teaching no longer regarded methods as the key factor in accounting for success or failure in language teaching. Some spoke of the death of methods and approaches and the term "post-methods era" was sometimes used to refer to not using appropriate method itself. What were the major criticisms made of approaches and methods?

Topic-112: Why criticism on Approaches and Methods Developed over Time?

While approaches tend to allow for varying interpretations in practice, methods typically prescribe for teachers what and how to teach. Teachers have to accept on faith the claims or theory underlying the method and apply them to their own practice. Good teaching is regarded as correct use of the method and its prescribed principles and techniques. Roles of teachers and learners, as well as the type of activities and teaching techniques to be used in the classroom, are generally prescribed. The role of the teacher is marginalized; his or her role is to understand the method and apply its principles correctly. Likewise, learners are sometimes viewed as the passive recipients of the method and must submit them- selves to its regime of exercises and activities. Absent from the traditional view of methods is a concept of learner-centeredness and teacher creativity: an acknowledgment that: learners bring different .learning styles and preferences to the learning process, that they should be consulted in the process of developing a teaching program, and that teaching methods must be flexible and adaptive to learners' needs and interests. At the same time, there is often little room for the teacher's own personal initiative and teaching style. The teacher

must submit herself or himself to the method.

Role of Contextual Factors

Both approaches and methods are often promoted as all-purpose solutions to teaching problems that can be applied in any part of the world and under any circumstance. In trying to apply approaches or methods, teachers sometimes ignore what is the starting point in language program design, namely, a careful consideration of the context in which teaching and learning occurs, including the cultural context, the political context, the local institutional context, and the context constituted by the teachers and learners in their classrooms.

For example, attempts to introduce Communicative Language Teaching in countries with very different educational traditions from those in which CLT was developed (Britain and the United States and other English-speaking countries) have sometimes been described as "cultural imperialism" because the assumptions and practices implicit in CLT are viewed as "correct" whereas those of the target culture are seen in need of replacement. Similarly, Counseling-Learning and Cooperative Learning both make assumptions about the roles of teachers and learners that are not necessarily culturally universal.

The need for curriculum development processes Curriculum planners view debates over teaching method as part of a broader set of educational planning decisions. These traditionally involve:

- The careful examination, drawing on all available sources of knowledge and informed judgment, of the teaching objectives, whether in particular subject courses or over the curriculum as a whole.
- The development and trial use in schools of those methods and materials which are judged most likely to achieve the objectives which teachers agreed upon.
- The assessment of the extent to which the development work has in fact achieved its objectives. This part of the process may be expected to provoke new thought about the objectives themselves.
- The final element is therefore the feedback of all the experience gained, to provide a starting point for further study. (Nicholls and Nicholls 1972, p. 4) These elements are viewed as forming a network of interacting systems. Choice of teaching method cannot, therefore, be determined in isolation from other planning and implementation practices (Richards 2000).

Lack of Research Basis

Approaches and methods are often based on the assumption that the processes of second language learning are fully understood. Many of the books written by method gurus are full of claims and assertions about how people learn languages, few of which are based on second language acquisition research or have been empirically tested. With some exceptions, such as Krashen, researchers who study language learning are themselves usually reluctant to dispense prescriptions for teaching based on the results of their research, because they know that current knowledge is tentative, partial, and changing. Much of such research does not support the often simplistic theories and prescriptions found in some approaches and methods. Skehan, for example, commenting on the standard lesson sequence in Situational Language Teaching as well as other methods consisting of a

Presentation phase, a Practice phase, and a Production phase (the P-P-P lesson model), points out that such a sequence does not reflect principles of second language acquisition:

The underlying theory for a P-P-P approach has now been discredited. The (relief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization (that learners will learn what is taught in the order in which it is taught) no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology. (Skehan 1996, p. 18) Similarity of classroom practices

Another criticism is that it is very difficult for teachers to use approaches and methods in ways that precisely reflect the underlying principles of the method. Swaffar, Arens, and Morgan (1982, p. 25) commented: One consistent problem is whether or not teachers involved in presenting materials created for a particular method are actually reflecting the underlying philosophies of these methods in their classroom practices.

Swaffar and her colleagues studied how teachers using different methods implemented them in the classroom and found that many of the distinctions used to contrast methods, particularly those based on classroom activities, did not exist in actual practice:

Methodological labels assigned to teaching activities are, in themselves, not in- formative, because they refer to a pool of classroom practices which are used uniformly. The differences among major methodologies are to be found in the ordered hierarchy, the priorities assigned to tasks. (1982, p. 31)
Brown (1997, p. 3) makes a similar point:

Generally, methods are quite distinctive at the early, beginning stages of a language course, and rather indistinguishable from each other at a later stage. In the first few days of a Community Language Learning class, for example, the students witness a unique set of experiences in their small circles of translated language whispered in their ears. But within a matter of weeks, such classrooms can look like any other learner-centered curriculum.

It is perhaps for this reason that video samples of different approaches and methods typically demonstrate the first lesson (or an early lesson) of a foreign language class. There are no convincing video "demonstrations" with intermediate or advanced learners, perhaps because, as Brown points out, at that level there is nothing distinctive to demonstrate.

Topic-113: Beyond Approaches and Methods

What alternative approaches to the study of teaching are available out- side of the framework of brand-name approaches and methods? We believe that because approaches and methods have played a central role in the development of our profession, it will continue to be useful for teachers and student teachers to become familiar with the major teaching approaches and methods proposed for second and foreign language teaching. Mainstream approaches and methods draw on a large amount of collective experience and practice from which much can be learned. Approaches and methods can therefore be usefully studied and selectively mastered in order:

- to learn how to use different approaches and methods and understand when they might be useful
- to understand some of the issues and controversies that characterize the history of language teaching
- to participate in language learning experiences based on different approaches and methods as a basis for reflection and comparison
- to be aware of the rich set of activity resources available to the imaginative teacher
- to appreciate how theory and practice can be linked from a variety of different perspectives

However, teachers and teachers in training need to be able to use approaches and methods flexibly and creatively based on their own judgment and experience. In the process, they should be encouraged to trans- form and adapt the methods they use to make them their own. Training in the techniques and procedures of a specific method is probably essential for novice teachers entering teaching, because it provides them with the confidence they will need to face learners and it provides techniques and strategies for presenting lessons. In the early stages, teaching is largely a matter of applying procedures and techniques developed by others. An approach or a predetermined method, with its associated activities, principles, and techniques, may be an essential starting point for an inexperienced teacher, but it should be seen only as that. As the teacher gains experience and knowledge, he or she will begin to develop an individual approach or personal method of teaching, one that draws on an established approach or method but that also uniquely reflects the teacher's individual beliefs, values, principles, and experiences. This may not lead to abandonment of the approach or method the teacher started out using but will lead to a modification of it as the teacher adds, modifies, and adjusts the approach or method to the realities of the classroom. In developing a personal approach to teaching, a primary reference point for the teacher is his or her personal beliefs and principles with regard to the following:

- his or her role in the classroom
- the nature of effective teaching and learning
- the difficulties learners face and how these can be addressed - successful learning activities
- the structure of an effective lesson

Beliefs and theories about these aspects of teaching result in the development of core principles that provide the source for teacher's plans and instructional decisions (Richards 1998). An individual teacher may draw on different principles at different times, depending on the type of class he or she is teaching (e.g., children or adults, beginners, or advanced learners). The following are examples of such principles (Bailey 1996):

- Engage all learners in the lesson.
- Make learners, and not the teacher, the focus of the lesson. - Provide maximum opportunities for student participation. - Develop learner responsibility.
- Be tolerant of learners' mistakes.
- Develop learners' confidence.
- Teach learning strategies.
- Respond of learners' difficulties and build on them. - Use a maximum amount of student-to-

student activities.
- Promote cooperation among learners.
- Practice both accuracy and fluency.
- Address learners' needs and interests.

Only a few of these principles will be consciously referred to at a given time. Some may be derived from the approaches and methods teachers are familiar with. Others are personally constructed over time based on experience.

All classroom practices reflect teachers' principles and beliefs, and different belief systems among teachers can often explain why teachers conduct their classes in different ways. Clark and Peterson (1986) noted that:

The most resilient or "core" teachers' beliefs are formed on the basis of teachers' own schooling as young students while observing teachers who taught them. Subsequent teacher education appears not to disturb these early beliefs, not least, perhaps, because it rarely addresses them.

If teachers actually try out-a particular innovation that does not initially conform to their prior beliefs or principles and the innovation proves helpful or successful, then accommodation of an alternative belief or principle is more plausible than in any other circumstance. For the novice teacher, classroom experience and day-to-day interaction with colleagues has the potential to influence particular relation- ships among beliefs and principles, and, over time, consolidate the individual's permutation of them. Nevertheless, it seems that greater experience does not lead to greater adaptability in our beliefs, and thereby, the abandonment of strongly held pedagogical principles. Quite the contrary, in fact. The more experience we have, the more reliant on our "core" principles we have become and the less conscious we are of doing so.

- Professional development that engages teachers in a direct explanation of-their beliefs and principles may provide the opportunity for greater self-awareness through reflection and critical questioning as starting points of later adaptation.
- The teacher's conceptualizations of, for example, language, learning, and teaching are situated within that person's wider belief system concerning such issues as human nature, culture, society, education, and so on.

Therefore, there is much more to teacher development than learning how to use different approaches or methods of teaching. Experience with different approaches and methods, however, can provide teachers with an initial practical knowledge base in reaching and can also be used to explore and develop teachers' own beliefs, principles, and practices.

Topic-114: The Scope of Post Method

Post Method approach may not lead to rejection of the approach or method the teacher started out using but will lead to a modification of it as the teacher adds, modifies, and adjusts the approach or method to the realities of the classroom. In developing a personal approach to teaching, a primary reference point for the teacher is his or her personal beliefs and principles with regard to the

following:

- His or her role in the classroom
- The nature of effective teaching and learning
- The difficulties faced by the learners and how these can be addressed or solved by successful learning activities
- The structure of an effective lesson; the teacher's belief about what makes a lesson effective.

Beliefs and theories about these aspects of teaching result in the development of core principles that provide the source for teacher's plans and instructional decisions (Richards 1998). An individual teacher may draw on different principles at different times, depending on the type of class he or she is teaching (e.g., children or adults, beginners, or advanced learners). Bailey (1996) has given examples of such principles. These are:

1. To engage all learners in the lesson.
2. To make learners, and not the teacher, the focus of the lesson.
3. To provide maximum opportunities for student participation.
4. To develop learner responsibility or give a kind of autonomy
5. To be tolerant of learners' mistakes.
6. To develop learners' confidence.
7. To teach learning strategies.
8. To respond to learners' difficulties and build on them.
9. To use a maximum amount of student-to-student activities. Involvement of peer work or group activities for maximum cooperation.
10. To promote cooperation among learners.
11. To practice both accuracy and fluency.
12. To address learners' needs and interests.

Only a few of these principles will be consciously referred to at a given time. Some may be derived from the approaches and methods the teachers are familiar with, others are personally constructed over time based on the personal experience over the time.

For the novice (newly appointed) teachers, classroom experience and day-to-day interaction with colleagues has the potential to influence particular relationships among beliefs, principles, and, over time, they consolidate the individual's permutation of them. Professional development that engages teachers in a direct explanation of their beliefs and principles may provide the opportunities for greater self-awareness through reflection and critical questioning as starting points of later adaptations that they can make in their learnt methods according to the classroom situation. The teacher's conceptualizations of language, learning, and teaching are situated within that person's wider belief system concerning such issues as human nature, culture, society, education, and so on.

Topic-115: Post Method Era and Looking Forward

How do we feel the language teaching profession will move ahead in the near, or even more

distant, future? This is a huge question for the teachers, for the practioners and for the educationists. The approaches and methods have identified a number of issues that we expect to continue to shape the future of language teaching in different ways. Some of the responses to these issues may take the form of new approaches and methods; others may lead to a refining or reshaping of existing approaches and methods as the teaching profession responds to the findings of new research and to developments in the educational theory and practice.

The initiatives for changing programs and pedagogy may come from within the profession - from teachers, administrators, theoreticians, and researchers. Incentives or demands of a political, social, or even a fiscal nature may also drive change, as they have in the past. Particular personalities and leaders in the field may also shape the future of language teaching. Another possibility that change may also be motivated by completely unexpected sources. Therefore, by identifying some of the factors that have influenced language teaching trends in the past and that can be expected to continue in the future. Some important factors are the following:

Government policy directives: Increased demands for accountability on the part of funding agencies and governments have driven educational changes on a fairly regular basis for decades and are likely to continue to do so in the future.

Trends in the profession: The teaching profession is another source for change. Professional certification for teachers, endorsement of particular trends or approaches by professional organizations and lobby groups promoting particular issues and causes, can have an important influence on teaching.

Gurus' innovations: Teaching has sometimes been described as artistry rather than science and is often shaped by the influence of powerful individual practitioners with their own schools of thought and followers. Just as Gattegno, Lozanov, and Krashen inspired a number of teachers in the 1970s and 1980s, and as Gardner does today, so doubtless new gurus will attract disciples and shape teaching practices in the future.

Responses to technology: The potential of the Internet, the World Wide Web, and other computer interfaces and technological innovations is likely to capture the imagination of the teaching profession in the future as it has in the past and will influence both the content and the form of instructional delivery in language teaching.

Influences from academic disciplines: Disciplines such as linguistics, psycho linguistics, and psychology have an impact on the theories of language and language learning. They support particular approaches to language teaching. As new theories emerge in such disciplines, they are likely to have an impact on theories of teaching and learning in future. Just as in the past Audio-lingualism and Cognitive Code Learning reflected linguistic theories of that period, so new insights from functional linguistics, corpus linguistics, psycho linguistics, or sociolinguistics, or from unknown sources, may play a dominant role in shaping language pedagogy. Research influences second language teaching and learning as a a field for intensive study and theorizing. Second language acquisition research provided motivation for the development of the Natural Approach and

Task-Based Language Teaching, and this continue to stimulate new language teaching approaches.

Learner-based innovations: Learner-based approach recurs in language teaching and other fields in approximately 10-year cycles. The learner-centered curriculum, learner training, learner strategies, and multiple intelligences have been seen as individualized instructional innovations and can be anticipated to be continued in future.

Crossover educational trends: Cooperative Learning, the. Whole Language Approach, Neurolinguistic Programming, and Multiple Intelligences represent crossovers into second language teaching movements in general education and elsewhere. Such crossovers will be continued because the field of language teaching has no control over theories of learning and teaching.

Crossovers from other disciplines: Encounters with cognitive psychology, psychotherapy, communication science, ethnography, and human engineering have left their imprint on language pedagogy and exemplify the way that such diverse disciplines can influence this field. Despite the changes in the status of approaches and methods, it can be expected that the field of second and foreign language teaching would not be a ferment of theories, ideas, and practices in the twenty-first century than it has been in the past.

Lesson-24

LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS FOR BILINGUALS

Topic-116: The Multilingual Mind

If we want to understand how people acquire or learn a second language, we need to know how information, especially in different languages, is processed in the human brain. New techniques, like brain scans and the use of electrodes to investigate brain activity (ERP) have shed light on language processing. The most important insight explains that language processing is a complex interaction of a wide range of factors. It is not possible to look into a person's brain to study what happens and know how different factors interact? However, it can be understood that what are the different factors that affect multilingual processing? For this information we have to depend on metaphors and models of language processing that can subsequently be tested. In this unit, we start with a familiar, general processing model (Levelt, 1993) and work towards a dynamic model of the multilingual lexicon. Then we will explain the implications of this model for SLA.

Topic-117: A General Language Processing Model

There are different 'steps' involved in speaking. When a person wants to express an idea, s/he has to find words for that idea, put those words in a well formed sentence, pronounce the words in the right order, and thousands of tiny muscles co-ordinate in this activity. To get understanding of this complexity of speech processing, Levelt's speaking blueprint (Levelt, 1993; Levelt, 1989) can be considered the most complete and accepted one for a monolingual speakers. According to this model (see Figure A4.1), the production of speech takes place in three relatively distinct stages: the Conceptualiser, the Formulator and the Articulator.

Task A4.1

Even though you are not familiar with the model yet, can you think of how the different steps are ordered? For example, when you want to say something, do you first form a concept and then find a word, or do you first find the word?

Once you have found words, you have an idea of how and at what stages are they put in the right order? At what point do you begin to actually pronounce each word? After that you have mentally constructed a whole sentence with the help of series of words that belong together.

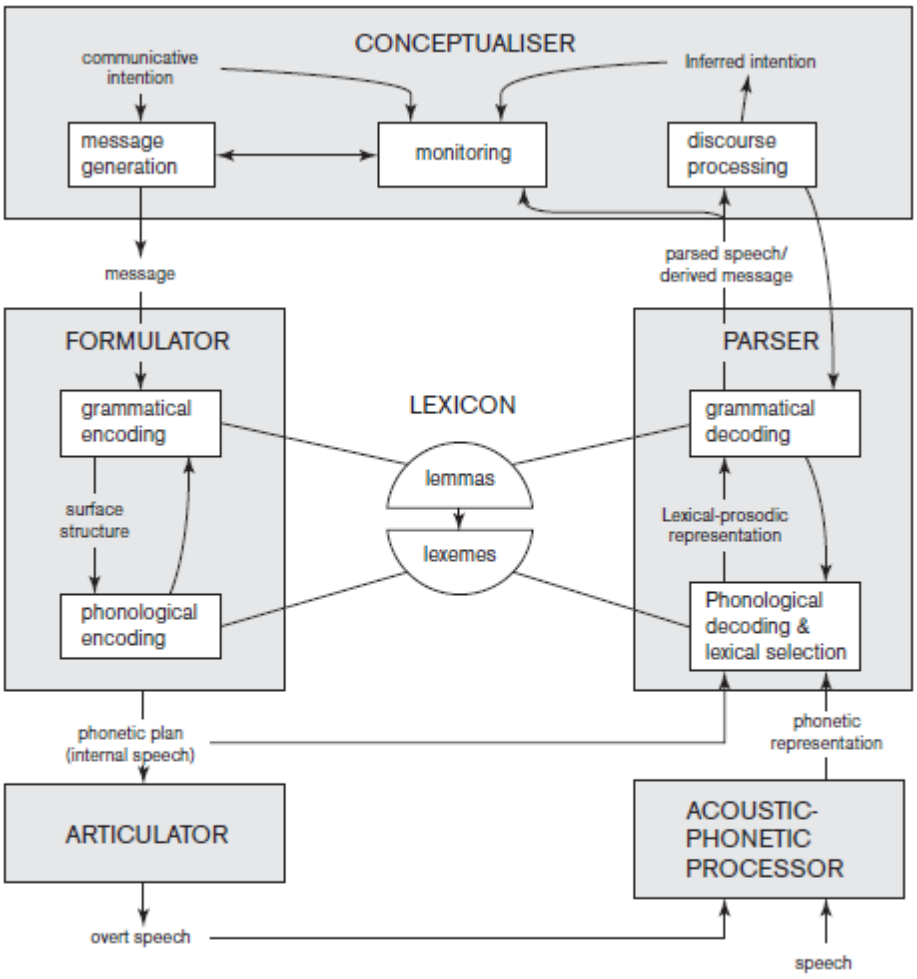


Figure A4.1 Schematic representation of the processing components for the comprehension and production of spoken language

Source: After Levelt, 1993

The starting point of speech production is the Conceptualizer, which generates a 'preverbal' message and contains meaning intentions that have to be put into words and sentences in the next two stages. This preverbal message contains a number of conceptual characteristics, which lead to the selection of a set of lexical items called 'lemmas' in the Formulator. A 'lemma' can be seen as the 'word to represent a concept'. In addition to representing a concept and containing semantic information, each lemma contains all kinds of other information, how this word combines with other ones. In other words, is it a noun or a verb, and if it is a verb, what type of complement does it take? Or, is this word formal enough (register), or is this word appropriate in this context (pragmatic information)? Once the appropriate lemmas have been selected, they have to be combined into a well-formed sentence. This process is called 'grammatical encoding', which Levelt (1993) describes as 'solving a set of simultaneous equations'. Grammatical encoding results in a surface structure of a sentence in which all the properties of the lemmas selected are satisfied.

However, the surface structure has not yet been specified for its phonological characteristics. This is discussed in the next stage, 'phonological encoding', where the phonological information associated with the selected lemmas is matched to phonologically encoded word frames. This procedure takes place in two steps: first an empty skeleton, a 'metrical frame' is generated, which is then filled with the segmental content retrieved from the lexicon. The segmental content is stored in the lexeme related to a particular lemma. To summarize, the lexicon in Levelt's model consists of two separate elements: the lemma, which contains conceptual, semantic, syntactic and pragmatic information, and the lexeme, which is the phonological form associated with the lemma.

It is important to realize that an entry in the lexicon can be a single word (school), a compound word (high school), and a fixed expression (go to school, graduate from high school), an idiom (to be of the old school 'to have an old-fashioned or traditional opinion') or any other group of words that are stored as a conventional unit.

Levelt's model (in which speech comprehension can broadly be regarded to involve the same steps as production, but in reversed order) is widely used as a general framework of language processing and is corroborated by many experimental data. One source of evidence for the separation of a lemma and a lexeme, is observations made about speech errors. Most word-finding problems can now be interpreted as the difficulty of finding the lexeme belonging to a particular lemma. In tip-of-the-tongue phenomena speakers commonly do know the number of syllables and the stress pattern of a word, but fail to fill in that skeleton with segmental information. This is exactly what the model predicts. However, in spite of its wide recognition, Levelt's model also has some problems. One of the strong points of the model is its strict modularity, once information has left one stage, it cannot return to that stage. In this way both the speed of language processing and the errors produced by speakers can be accounted for. The disadvantage of this starting point is that although the model allows for corrections by starting at the beginning again (making a loop), the lack of a direct feedback mechanism makes it more difficult to account for the transitions between the stages. How, for instance, can exactly the right words be selected from the lexicon when the Conceptualiser has no knowledge of which lemmas the lexicon contains? Many solutions have been proposed to these questions about the model, and they lead to interesting discussions. Nonetheless, the model still stands and it serves as an excellent starting point for shaping thoughts about language processing in general and the lexicon in particular.

Topic-118: Towards A Dynamic Model Of The Multilingual Mental Lexicon

Levelt's model is geared towards monolingual speakers, so the question arises how it may account for a multilingual speaker's language processing. Different attempts have been made to adjust in this context. For example, DeBot (1992) argues that the Conceptualizer is most likely to be language-independent, whereas the Formulator is language-dependent because it contains information about grammar. However, selection of the words from the right language requires the inclusion of language-related information in the preverbal message (DeBot, 2002). As the lexicon plays a central role in language processing, we will discuss these and other matters from the perspective of the multilingual mental lexicon. For these purposes, three questions are most relevant:

1 Is lexical information stored in one big lexicon containing all the words of all the languages, or the three separate lexicons for different languages?
2 Can languages be switched on or off to achieve accurate processing?
3 How can languages be kept apart in speech production?

Task A4.2

What do you think are the possible answers to these questions?
One big lexicon or separate lexicons for different languages?

Generally, the discussions about the mental lexicon are largely based on models and metaphors. The answers to the questions above are largely dependent on the model or the metaphor referred to. Early models were commonly based on the spatial metaphor, in which lexicons or parts of lexicons are assumed to be located at separate places. Recent models are mostly based on connectionist models consisting of networks, in which each entry may be connected to one or many other entries, similar to what we know about neural networks. Almost all models are based on this principle, combined with a reference to the activation metaphor. This metaphor entails that entries in the lexicon may vary in their degree of activation. Activation may increase as the result of some event (for instance after coming across a certain word) and will decrease in the course of time.

By looking at the development of these models, we will try to make it clear why the spreading-activation model seems to be the most appropriate one for our purposes. One of the earliest and most frequently quoted sources on the different possibilities of storage in the multilingual brain is Weinreich (1953). The central assumption in Weinreich's approach is that concepts and words are stored separately. Weinreich argued that there are three different ways in which the multilingual lexicon could possibly be organized (Figure A4.3): as a compound, as a co-ordinate and as a subordinate one. In a compound organization, it is assumed that there is one common concept with a different word in each language. In a co-ordinate organization, there is a complete separation between the different languages: each word in each language has its own concept. In a subordinate organization, there is just one set of concepts, but the items in the second language can only be reached via the items in the first language: there are no direct connections between the concepts and the words in the second language.

Task A4.3

Weinreich may not have thought about different organizations of the bilingual lexicon at different moments in the development of an L2 learner. What do you think is the most logical development that goes along with increasing proficiency, from compound to subordinate or the other way around?

In the past few decades, numerous other proposals have been made about the organization of the multilingual mental lexicon, many of which are very similar to the types brought forward by Weinreich. The most important progress was made by formulating new possible combinations, by putting the combinations in new frameworks, and by empirically testing these combinations. In a

range of experiments, researchers have attempted to find evidence for the different types of organization. An experimental task that obviously follows from Weinreich's spatial metaphor is the translation task in an experimental setting, in which response times can be measured, learners with different levels of proficiency are asked to translate words from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1. Kroll and Stewart (1994) found that translation from L1 to L2 is considerably slower than translation from L2 to L1, especially at lower levels of proficiency. This is interpreted as evidence that L1 lexical access runs through the concept, whereas L2 lexical access runs through the L1 entry. The underlying assumption in these models is that there is one common conceptual system, but there are independent lexicons for the words in each language. With regard to the way L2 learners develop their multilingual mental lexicon; these studies indicate a change from an initially subordinate organization towards a compound organization at later stages.

However, other studies investigating the multilingual lexicon demonstrate that Weinreich's spatial model seems to oversimplify matters. In particular, the assumption that there are separate lexicons for the different languages has become difficult concept to maintain. Several experiments have shown that the selection of words in one language may conjure up words from another language. Beauvillain and Grainger (1987) showed that even in a completely French context, providing the word four ('oven') had a facilitating effect on the recognition of the subsequent word five. Furthermore, apart from the speaker's level of proficiency, other factors, such as the semantic characteristics of a word (e.g. whether the word is abstract or concrete) and the degree of similarity of words in the different languages also tend to affect response times in experiments. Moreover, the traditional views of the mental lexicon are essentially static. We must realise that the lexicon is constantly changing due to the influence of a wide range of interrelated factors. Several factors have been investigated in empirical studies. It has been shown that the lexicons of entire languages are not stored in one particular way or in one particular place, rather multiple possibilities have been studied. For concrete words a direct link between an L1 and L2 words and the concept may be more likely than for abstract words; the intervention of L1 words in the storage and retrieval of L2 words may be stronger for words that are similar between the two languages (cognates) than for words that are dissimilar; and the type of organisation may change with developing proficiency. In other words, there is a clear need for a more dynamic model that can take into accounts all these different factors, some of which are continuously changing. In view of this observation, the activation metaphor seems to be the most attractive alternative, as the level of activation can continuously change for each individual lexical item.

Can Languages be Switched On and Off?

The second question, whether separate languages (or language subsets) can be switched on or off, has an equally long history of answers. An influential proposal was that of Green (1986), who proposed three states in which languages can be at a certain moment in time: selected, active and dormant. The language that is used at a certain moment is the selected language; languages that, at that particular moment, play a role in the background are labeled active languages that do not play a role at that moment is dormant. The assumption of the middlemost level that of the active language is required by the observation that when speaking a particular language, a speaker may use words from another language, either because that word is more appropriate or because the speaker cannot

immediately find the word in the selected language. This code-switching is very common, and models of lexical processing must be able to account for this phenomenon.

Task A4.4

Have you ever experienced 'confusion' in the use of your L1 and L2, for example by being able to think of an appropriate L2 word while speaking your L1 or the other way round? Can you think of any particular instances when this has happened? Do you have any idea what might cause it? When multilingual listeners are confronted with utterances in any of the languages they know, they will not limit their search for words to one language only. This has been called non-selective access. Selective access means that only one language is addressed at a time. Experimental evidence on multilingual processing points to have non-selective lexical access, rather than selective access. A method of investigation that is commonly used for this purpose is the lexical decision task (LDT) with priming. In LDTs, the participants are shown strings of letters on a computer screen and are asked to say whether that string is an existing word in a specified language. The subject's response time is measured. In a priming condition, the words on the screen are preceded by another word, the prime. By varying the prime and the context of the experiment, reaction time differences can be measured between a cross-linguistic priming condition (with prime blanc and target white) and a control condition (grand –white). These experiments show clear cross-linguistic priming effects that cannot be accounted for when one of the languages is switched off. Other evidences support non-selective access. One of these is the 'neighborhood' effect, longer response times are found for words that have many neighbors, i.e. words such as word, work, worm, warm, and so on that are very similar in form to many other words. This effect is not limited to neighbors within one language, but also occurs across the languages. The observation that lexical items can affect the activation of other lexical items, even across languages, is the basis of the BIA (Bilingual Interactive Activation) model of lexical processing. In this model, all lexical items are part of the same network. As lexical items are connected through this network, the activation of one lexical item may interactively affect the level of activation of all the attached lexical items. Multilingual interactive activation may occur as a result of overlap in meaning, overlap in form or any other common characteristic. From this perspective, code switching and cross-linguistic priming effects can logically be responsible. A speaker may come up with a lexical item from another language simply because that item has a much higher level of activation, for instance resulting from its higher frequency. Language development can also be viewed from this perspective at lower levels of proficiency, L2 items may generally have a lower level of activation due to lower frequencies and less interaction, as the network of this language subset will be relatively small. At higher levels of development, the lexical connections within the L2 network will become stronger.

Selecting the Right Language

Our discussion so far has pointed to a single lexical network for all languages, based on the BIA (Bilingual Interactive Activation) model of lexical processing, and has excluded the possibility of switching languages off. However, this still leaves the question of how speakers are able to keep their languages apart. Although code switching is a common phenomenon, speakers generally manage to speak only one language at a time. Van Hell and Dijkstra (2002) asserted that a default

level of activation is required for the selection of a lexical element. So it is not enough to have encountered a word once superficially to make it accessible in use. They need to have a level of activation above the default level for the elements from another language to be selected,. A helpful concept in our understanding of lexical storage is the idea of language subsets. Most researchers will agree that there is one lexical repository, but that the individual items in the lexicon are tagged for (among many other things) the language to which they belong, grouping them functionally into language subsets. Subsets are groups of lexical items that are clustered due to some shared characteristic. The shared characteristic may, for instance, be a register (formal, informal, etc.) or a language. Moreover, in a multidimensional view of the lexicon, one and the same word can be a member of several subsets; for instance, the word perceive will be part of the subset of [English], but may at the same time be part of subsets like [Formal], [Verbs], [Abstract], etc.

It is likely that the activation level of entire language subsets may be increased or decreased. Even though experimental evidence for this possibility is still limited, we will work with this assumption in mind. If this is the case, then it must be assumed that at some stage in language processing a choice is made for the language to be used, and that language selection must occur at the lemma stage before it is matched with a lexeme. Levelt's blueprint to make this clear, a crucial step in the formation of several models, including Levelt's, has been the introduction of lemmas, which mediate between the concepts and the words. Lemmas not only contain semantic and syntactic information but also other information associated with the use of that lemma, such as how to use it pragmatically correctly. To accommodate multilingual processing, several authors (De Bot, 2002; De Bot, 2003; Lowie, 2000; Woutersen, 1997) have proposed adding a 'language node' to the lemma. In other words, in addition to semantic, syntactic and pragmatic information, the lemma is specified for language, and in the process of lemma selection, the language information will be one of the lexical concepts that determine the selection of the best matching lemmas.

Topic-119: A Dynamic Model of the Multilingual Mental Lexicon and its Implications for SLA

The dynamic model of the multilingual mental lexicon has certain implications for SLA. The key words are 'association' and 'activation'. The words that are heard, seen or used most often are the words that are most easily accessed again and will have the most associations with other information such as how it is used. Words that are heard, seen or used the least will be the more difficult to retrieve. This would explain that it is just as easy to 'forget' words, even in an L1, as it is to 'acquire' them. It would also explain how one can be fluent in an L2 when talking with a friend about a common interest but have difficulty understanding a radio programme about a less known topic.

Task A4.6

Can you think of particular ways, methods or strategies that have helped you learn L2 words? What implications would the model as presented in this unit have for learning of vocabulary? For L2 learners, this model implies that for different levels of proficiency there are different ways that are effective to acquire new words in the L2. The input in the target language is a prerequisite for improving fluency, at early stages it may be necessary to go through the L1 to build enough

vocabulary to be able to read items in the target language. The literature on effective and efficient vocabulary acquisition generally emphasizes the necessity of 'association' and 'activation' with the terms elaboration and rehearsal (Hulstijn, 2000). Elaboration means that a maximum number of associations are made in relation to a lexical item, the word should be seen in different contexts and the learner should pay explicit attention to all the characteristics of a word, from orthography and prosody to the word's syntactic and semantic features point of view. Besides elaboration, rehearsal is required to make access to the lexical item more automatic. The best results will be achieved when rehearsal takes place with increasing time intervals, from minutes up to about one month. The knowledge is retained.

Elaboration, or the linking of new information to existing knowledge, makes perfect sense when the lexicon is regarded as a network in which all lexical items may be linked. Rehearsal will increase the level of activation of lexical items. Since the level of activation will decrease over time, it is important not to allow the level of activation to stop beyond a threshold level. If a lexical item is reactivated before the activation level has dropped, the increase is more effective.

Topic-120: Language Teaching Methods in Pakistani Bilingual Context

Bilingual Acquisition

Bilingualism is a broad term and have many forms and configurations like heritage language acquisition,. Often the term bilingual is used loosely to incorporate multilingualism. Bhatia (2006) states that "the investigation of bilingualism is a broad and complex field, including the study of the nature of the individual bilingual's knowledge and use of two (or more) languages". However, the use of the term 'bilingualism' is problematic because the Latin prefix 'bi' means 'two'. The concept of bilingualism is interpreted differently in the field of SLA versus other fields such as psychology and education. The SL researchers use the term for only those that are truly the equivalent of native speakers of two languages. Thus, from the perspective of second language researchers, bilingual is a difficult term. In its strict meaning, it refers to someone whose language is in a steady state and who has learned and knows two languages. Within a second language research context, the end-point interpretation of the term is generally not a focus of the inquiry. Rather, in discovering the second language acquisition process might focus instead on near-native speakers or advanced language learners. In general, SLA researchers are most interested in individuals who are in the process of learning, not those who have learned two languages earlier. This use of the term does not appear to be the case in some of the psychological and educational literature on bilingualism. Edwards (2006) starts off his article on the foundations of bilingualism by saying "Everyone is bilingual. That is, there is no one in the world (no adult, anyway) who does not know at least a few words in languages other than the maternal variety. If, as an English speaker, you can say c'est la vie or gracias or guten, tag or to varisch or even if you only understand them, you clearly have some command of a foreign language. He goes on to say, "it is easy to find definitions of bilingualism that reflect widely divergent responses to the question of degree". Bhatia (2006) states this in an interesting way when he says "the process of second language acquisition of becoming a bilingual". In other words, the end result of second language acquisition is a bilingual speaker. Given that bilingualism is seen as the end result and given that we know that native-like competence in a second language is rare, there

is some difficulty in discussing bilingualism in this way. Thus, Bhatia and Edwards are referring to two different phenomenons. Edwards is saying that one is bilingual at any point in the SL learning process, whereas Bhatia is referring only to the end point and does not deal with whether or not that end point has to be "native" or not. In other words, the issues seem to be of degree— whether or not one is bilingual even if not a native speaker of the L2—and of end point—whether or not one is bilingual if still in the process of acquisition. SL researchers are more likely to require native competence and also to reserve use of the term for the end state. The bilingualism literature, it seems, allows more latitude in both of these factors.

Valdés (2001) also discusses the issue of degree when she says "the term bilingual implies not only the ability to use two languages to some degree in everyday life, but also the skilled superior use of both languages at the level of the educated native speaker". She acknowledges that this is a narrow definition, for it considers the bilingual as someone who can do everything perfectly in two languages and who can pass undetected among monolingual speakers of these two languages. She refers this to "mythical bilingual." She argues that there are different types of bilinguals, therefore, more appropriate to think of bilingualism as a continuum with different amounts of knowledge of the L1 and L2 being represented. In this view, the term bilingualism can refer to the process of learning as well as the end result, the product of learning. Some researchers Kroll and Sunderman (2003) make a distinction between second language learners and bilinguals, in their article "Cognitive processes in second language learners and bilinguals: the development of lexical and conceptual representations", the authors refer to "skilled adult bilinguals," presumably the rough equivalent of advanced language learners. Deuchar and Quay (2000) define bilingual acquisition as "the acquisition of two languages in childhood", although they point to the difficulties involved in this definition given many situations that can be in place. They point to De Houwer (1995), who talks about bilingual first language acquisition, referring to situations when there is regular exposure to two languages within the first month after birth and bilingual second language acquisition, referring to situations where exposure begins later than one month after birth but before the age of two years. Wei (2000) presents a table of various definitions/types of bilinguals.

The terminology used in bilingualism is far-reaching and overlaps to some extent with second language acquisition. For example, successive bilingual describes the scope of second language acquisition research. However, it is difficult to categories all types of bilingualism because individuals use two languages in numerous situations to achieve the bilingual status as adults have. Further, there are different combinations of ability. For example, there are individuals who function well in some contexts (talking with one's family), but are not literate in that language, versus those who function well academically in both languages. Valdés (2001) illustrates the bilingual continuum in Figure 2.1. The two letters represent two languages and different proficiencies according to size and case.

Despite this range, there are misunderstandings regarding the advantages of being bilingual. Baker and Prys Jones (1998) discuss communicative advantages, cultural/economic advantages, and cognitive advantages. The first type is fairly obvious, includes talking to immediate and extended family members. One can imagine a situation in which families emigrate to a country where another language is spoken; the children learn the new language and barely understand the language of the

parents, having fluency in the new language, whereas the parents do not learn the language of the environment. The communication gap widens and results in isolation between parents and children. Beyond these family communication instances, bilinguals, living in a world of regular language monitoring, show greater sensitivity to the communicative needs of others and understand the cultural differences among people. The economic advantages encompasses areas of work from business to sales. The cognitive advantages include divergent thinking, creative thinking, and metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness is the ability to think about and manipulate language. In other words, metalinguistic ability allows thinking about language as an object of inquiry rather simply speaking and understanding of language.

Pakistani Bilingual Context

When we came to Pakistani bilingual context we need to consider various aspects:

Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Diversity

Pakistan has multiple cultures Bengali, Punjabi, Pashtuns, Sindhis and Balochis and they have their indigenous languages to which they were deeply adhered since long. In such a diverse linguistic society where more than seventy languages are spoken, Urdu serves as national language of Pakistan whereas English is functioning as official language in the country. Urdu has its roots in Persian, Arabic and various local languages.

Colonial Heritage

It is another source of bilingualism in Pakistan. The influence of colonial legacy and past practices also has an impact on current language education policies.

National Language

We have considered the issue of national language and regional languages in this context. Urdu while being the national language, is spoken by less than 8% of population as mother tongue, the rest of the population speaks one of the other 72 languages of Pakistan (Lewis, Simons & Fennings, 2014).

Official Language

It is another factor which play a vital role. English is the language of elite class in Pakistan and has prestige. The power of English cannot be denied when taking about the language teaching methods in Pakistan. It is used as the official language in various institutions of the country.

Provincial or Regional Languages

Research on the use of languages in Pakistani institutions reports that a large number of teachers do use local languages in their classrooms for instruction. (Gulzar & Qadir, 2010)

Issues of Linguistic Identity and Power

The issues of language and power run as a common thread throughout the history of Pakistan. The child learn his/her first language at home and as the child goes to scholl he has exposed to Urdu language and then he has introduced with English language at grade six in government institutions. Whereas, at private sector school he has made to learn English from grade one. The complexity is added with code switching and code mixing where the speakers mix the words of their local language or Urdu in teaching or learning of English. Keeping in mind all the scenario of bilingualism, the Grammar translation Method is widely used to teach English in Pakistan.

Lesson-25

LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)

Topic-121: Language Teaching Methods in English for Specific Purposes: Introduction

English for specific purposes (ESP) instruction has long been designed, implemented, and evaluated to meet growing professional and academic communication needs. The primary goal of this endeavor is to equip learners with ESP competence to function in English-mediated professional or academic encounters. Growing needs for ESP instruction have been driven by diverse needs of many speakers of English as an additional language (EAL) working for multinational firms and taking English-medium undergraduate and postgraduate programmes (Widodo 2015). There has also been a growing demand for understanding increased disciplinary/specialized language, knowledge, and practice in which English plays a pivotal role in mediating the development of learners' specialized language competence with reference to particular disciplinary knowledge and skills.

ESP continues to evolve as the profession of ESP comes a long way. This is because professional and academic domains vary from one context to another. English for vocational purposes (EVP) is no exception. EVP, under the umbrella of ESP, has gained its prominence in the English language programs.

The overarching goal of EVP instruction is to help students function well in a workplace or a vocational higher education settings where English serves as a medium of communication. There has been a burgeoning issue whether ESP teachers should teach content or language or both content and language (Lo 2015).

To cater to this need, both ESP teachers and content/specialist teachers need to collaborate in designing of ESP materials. A recent study by Widodo (2015) showed that both English teachers and vocational content teachers were involved in the design of Vocational English (VE) materials, and this cross-curricular collaboration assisted ESP teachers to select the texts ,relevant to the students' vocational areas.

Topic-122: Importance of Needs Analysis in ESP

Studies of needs analysis have been undertaken over the last 30 years, and examined needs of diverse learner groups in academic, professional, and occupational as well as survival settings (Krohn 2009,) Long (2005) suggests that needs analysis should be well documented. Pedagogically speaking, needs analysis serves a number of different purposes. Richards (2001) lists six main purposes:

- To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales managers, tour guides, or university students
- To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students

- To determine students from a group who are in need of training at a particular language skill
- To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do
- To collect information about a particular problem which learners are experiencing.

Widodo and Pusporini (2010) add that needs analysis aims to bridge a gap between insider's perspective/assumption and outsider's perspective/assumption. As part of ESP instructional design, needs analysis serves as the basis for informed curriculum practices, such as syllabus design, materials development, and instructional design. Thus, the values of needs analysis should go beyond predictions of what should be taught and learned. Liu et al. (2011) argue that in order to develop comprehensive classroom pedagogies, which are sensitive to individual learners' learning goals, the language practitioners should be fully aware of and reflect upon the different language learners' needs. This self-awareness and critical reflection help ESP teachers to question what 'needs' are the necessities, wants, and lacks. The learners should be provided with more motivating and engaging materials such as texts and tasks to meet the needs. This suggests that development of ESP materials involves much understanding of learners' needs alongwith available resources and constraints that impact on design and implementation of ESP instruction as a whole.

Topic-123: English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)

In the context of vocational education both at secondary level (e.g., technical schools) and higher education (e.g., polytechnics), students are commonly placed into particular vocational areas, such as hotel hospitality, accounting, tourism management, and computer engineering. For this reason, students have to experience texts, which are relevant to their vocational knowledge and skills.

Building vocational knowledge and skills is one of the major goals of the students.The vocationally oriented language learning (VOLL) programs have been set up (Vogt and Kantelinen 2013) which caters the different needs of diverse learners. A VOLL program aims to provide students with an English course integrated with vocational content. This vocational content is a starting point for designing English language programs based on vocational themes, tasks, and language.

English for vocational purposes (EVP) is defined as a program established in both the secondary education and tertiary education sectors, which equips students with English competence that supports their vocational expertise. The role of English as a medium of vocational communication helps students to understand their vocational content, build and develop their vocational knowledge, communicate their vocational expertise, perform specialist tasks, and develop their disciplinary language (Widodo 2015). Drawing on Basturkmen's (2010) classification of ESP, EVP can be designed from wide-angled (English for General Vocational Purposes) and narrow-angled (English for Specific Vocational Purposes) perspectives (Widodo 2014). English for tourism can be classified as English for General Vocational Purposes. Framed in this general vocation, English for tourism has different branches, such as English for Hotel and Restaurant Workers, English for Hotel Receptionists, English for Tour Guides, English for Hotel Management, and Travel English. This specification is tailored to meet students' target vocational areas.

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Topic-124: Elements of ESP Materials

The role of materials is very crucial in designing any language instruction. There are seven key elements of ESP materials: (1) authenticity, (2) topics/themes, (3) texts and contexts, (4) knowledge and language, (5) tasks or activities, (6) representations of participants and social practices, and (7) pedagogical prompts. These elements emphasize the totality of what constitutes ESP materials.

Authenticity has long been hotly debated in English language instruction, and it has emerged since the birth of communicative language teaching (CLT) in the 1970s. CLT has advocated genuine communicative purposes. At present, information and communication technology (ICT) has brought the concept of authenticity to the front , opens up unlimited access to authentic texts from the target language culture, thereby impelling the issue of authenticity of texts and interactions to the fore in language pedagogy (Mishan 2005). He argues that "authentic sources, in turn, tend to stimulate learners to further independent discovery and learning. Today, learner autonomy means taking advantage of the technological resources widely available, and extends the notion of communicative competence to encompass computer-mediated communication".

Particularly in language materials design, MacDonald et al. (2006) point out that the word, *authenticity*, is an attribute of language, text, and materials (e.g., authentic language, authentic text, and authentic materials). The notion of authenticity is defined as the actual use of texts (e.g., text of hotel room reservation) and tasks (e.g., doing online hotel room booking) in vocational areas. For low proficiency ESP students, authentic materials can be simplified based on language and content they wish to learn. The students can work on shorter texts with relatively easy vocabulary and with simple clauses. They also carry out tasks with more capable peer or teacher support. In the ESP context, authentic language, text, and materials should be relevant to students' specialized knowledge, social practices, and discourses. Taken together, authenticity in ESP materials refers to a number of factors such as actual users or interactants (e.g., hotel receptionists and guests), communicative and social purposes (e.g., check-in and check-out encounters), contexts (e.g., hotel hospitality), and social practices (e.g., guest registration).

The second element of materials is themes or topics. In every English lesson both EGP and ESP, identifying themes is one of the important criteria for selecting materials because "a content topic is always the starting point for learning" (Huang and Morgan 2003). Determining a particular topic aims to specify materials content.

In some ESP literature, the issue of content is associated with content based instruction (CBI) or content and language integrated learning (CLIL), one of the approaches to ESP instruction. A topic of student interest underlies a language lesson, and it is anchored in a particular genre. Within this framework, there are dual learning goals, content-focused learning and language-focused learning. Specifically in ESP materials, a theme is also a crucial component of disciplinary knowledge construction. Specifying content in materials also frames topics of interest relevant to what students are currently doing in their vocational areas. In deciding themes in ESP materials, ESP teachers need to know core competencies of students' vocational areas among diverse topics of interest in the vocational context.

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These core competencies narrow down the scope of materials ESP teachers are designing and in turn frame the foci of the materials. The students specializing in accounting should be provided with texts and tasks, which fall within the remit of such core vocational themes as financial statements, the recording process, and ledgers.

Texts and contexts are another component of ESP materials. Creation of texts is always attached to social environments where texts are socio-historically constructed. Understanding text "requires an interpretation not only of the text itself but also of its context (context of situation, context of culture), and of the systematic relationship between context and text" (Halliday 1994). Halliday (1999) argues "the environment for language as text is the context of situation, and the environment for language as system is the context of culture". This suggests that texts are flexibly interpreted in relation to context. This context involves users, texts, and communicative purposes (genres). To design ESP materials (e.g., English for culinary tourism or Accounting English), teachers should include texts, which are used in culinary tourism or accounting contexts so that students will become familiar with how to understand and produce texts in these vocational domains.

Thus, the selection of vocational texts should be based on the authenticity of text and task use in a particular social context (e.g., communicative events in the area of culinary tourism or accounting) because interpretation of the texts involves contextual factors (e.g., participants engaged in a vocational domain, social practices, in which they routinely participate, and vocational discourse—ways to participate).

The fourth element of ESP materials includes knowledge and language. Knowledge is seen as 'systems for interpreting the world', systems that are transformed as they are being used for understanding (Barnes, as cited, Huang and Morgan 2003). It comprises a number of interrelated components. Knowledge development cannot be divorced from language development. From a functional perspective, language is a resource for meaning making; thereby providing a principled account of how knowledge as content and language as a linguistic system/resource are intermingled with each other in discourse (Huang & Morgan, 2003). Hence, linguistically, language is always integrated with knowledge as content because it presents and shapes knowledge as content and organizes texts, which comprise the knowledge. The nature of content knowledge varies from one register to another: common sense/ everyday knowledge (e.g., a report), academic/scientific/disciplinary knowledge (e.g., a ledger), professional knowledge (e.g., financial accounting), and vocational knowledge (e.g., financial statements). Particularly in a field-specific or ESP domain, technicality/disciplinarity renders specialized or field-specific meaning (Wignell et al. 1993), and it helps compress meanings (Woodward, Kron, 2008).

Disciplinary language also assists students to understand meanings and engage with specialized knowledge. This language goes hand in hand with disciplinary knowledge in as much as it mediates the construction of disciplinary knowledge. For instance, a term, *horticulture*, conveys three main domains of meaning: *fruit cultivation*, *vegetable farming*, and *floriculture*. To understand this vocational knowledge, students need to experience and engage with disciplinary text of horticulture.

Tasks or activities (task-oriented activities: online hotel room reservation and completing a check-in form and language-oriented activities: text-based grammar analysis) are a crucial part of

language materials. Task design determines how much students engage with texts and activities (Widodo 2015). Motivating activities always foster students' engagement that allows them opportunities to gain access to knowledge as well as opportunities to engage in using language in their discipline specific practices. Without tasks or activities, learning will never happen though students are given texts. Learning activities vary from a general task to a specific task, depending on the goals. The nature of activities is interactional (meaning making and negotiation) and transactional (information and product-service exchanges). In a language for specific purposes, for example, tasks should be aimed at "helping learners recognize language patterns typical in different disciplines can raise their awareness about the varied ways language constructs knowledge in different subjects" (Fang and Schleppegrell 2010). In addition, the activities should provide students the opportunities to make use of language to reflect disciplinary knowledge and practice in disciplinary community discourses. In other words, informed awareness of language use and capability of using the language become the central learning goals. This suggests that students should be fully capable of recognizing and using disciplinary knowledge and language as a social semiotic (Halliday 1978) in social discourse communities.

Another element of language materials is representations of participants and social practices. Both participants (enacting social relationships) and practices as social processes (Malinowski & Firth, as cited in Halliday 1999) are socially intertwined because social practices are a product of human interaction mediated by language as a form of action. Representations of participants and social practices are shaped by context of situation (register) and context of culture (genre). Thus, the use of language becomes context-specific. It is important to help students become fully aware of actual actors in particular social practices. Participants/ actors and social practices are key components in actual communicative settings; all groups of people engage in social practices. For example, in vocational communicative settings, a hotel receptionist welcomes guests and assists them with heck-in stuff. The nature of this social encounter is definitely interactional and transactional because both engage with negotiated meaning making and with product-service exchanges.

Instructional prompts are instructive information that guides or enables students to perform learning tasks. These verbal or non-verbal scaffolds help students manage self-regulated learning. Some researchers argue that prompts are "questions or elicitations which aim to induce meaningful learning activities by eliciting learning strategies and learning activities that the students are capable of, but do not show spontaneously. Prompts stimulate active processing of the learning materials and direct the attention to central aspects" (Schworm and Gruber 2012, p. 274). Instructional prompts are also considered as an important strategy of self-regulated learning. Empirical findings show that such prompts foster learning outcomes, so they have proven to be a powerful instructional tool (Hübner et al. 2010). Prompts are questions, hints, or instructions geared to stimulate engaging learning behaviors. For this reason, prompts should be situated in social and cultural contexts so that students are able to carry out specific tasks (Horz et al. 2009). In the EVP context, the following instructional prompts stimulate student engagement:

Navigate and select two different culinary arts texts in a newspaper/ a magazine and a textbook. Then, compare the use of language in the two texts in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Do these tasks in pairs.

In these prompts, students are told to do two series of tasks. First, they are asked to look for and pick a text of the same vocational topic but with different genres such as a magazine/a newspaper and a textbook. Second, they do language analysis of the two texts in relation to vocabulary and grammar. Methodologically speaking, these tasks encourage one type of collaborative learning, that is, pair work. Thus, actual learning tasks or activities along with appropriate prompts can help students to realize what is supposed to do.

In addition to the seven elements mentioned above, ESP materials should arouse students' prior knowledge or experience. This prior knowledge provides a catalyst for making sense of any information because no student is a blank slate. In other words, whether ESP materials can be incentive for meaning making enterprises depends upon students' linguistic resources and knowledge of the world, their level of competence in the language generally, their understanding of specifi c topics and registers, and their communicative/discursive orientations. In the vocational context, both common sense knowledge and disciplinary knowledge interweave each other.

Topic-125: Vocationally Oriented Language Learning (VOLL) Tasks

There are a variety of tasks that support vocationally oriented language learning (VOLL), that is, English for Vocational Purposes (EVP). In EVP programs, teachers attempt to achieve two goals: (1) building content knowledge and skills and (2) developing language. These dual goals help students optimize the learning of EVP. In this section, I would like to suggest three main VOLL tasks that ESP teachers may adopt or adapt. These tasks include (1) Vocational Vocabulary Building, (2) Vocational Knowledge Building, and (3) Functional Metalanguage Analysis. These tasks are a springboard for language skills tasks such as vocationally oriented speaking and writing. These speaking and writing tasks help students develop their ability to produce both spoken and written texts.

Vocational Vocabulary Building

In language learning, vocabulary plays a pivotal role in making sense of spoken and written texts. Nation (2001) argues that particularly in the contexts of foreign language and second language programs, vocabulary knowledge affects students' language skills performance because lexical items convey meanings that the students need to comprehend and express. To comprehend and produce both spoken and written texts, language learners should have sufficient size and depth of vocabulary knowledge. The size of vocabulary knowledge pertains to the number of words that language learners know at a particular level of language ability (Akbarian, 2010), but the depth of vocabulary knowledge is referred to as how well language learners knows a lexical item in different contexts (Nassaji, 2004). Research into second vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Akbarian, 2010; Nassaji, 2004) shows that vocabulary knowledge includes different dimensions, such as pronunciation, spelling, register, style, morphological features, and syntactic and semantic relationships with other words

(e.g., collocations, antonymy, synonymy, and hyponymy). Of these dimensions, register, style, and syntactic and semantic relationships with other worlds are important for EVP students, but for low proficiency students, morphological features of words may be introduced.

In the EVP context, students encounter both general and technical vocabularies. Between two types of vocabulary, they may find semi-technical vocabulary, "lexical items that are neither specific to a certain field of knowledge nor general in the sense of being everyday words" (Hsu, 2013). In short, vocabulary knowledge is an important dimension of EVP so that students can understand and produce both spoken and written texts in the vocational context. For focused vocabulary building tasks, vocational vocabulary needs to be prioritized. There are a number of tasks, which help students enhance size and depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Repeated Reading (RR): The use and impact of RR (Samuels 1979) in second and foreign language vocabulary learning has been studied (see Gorsuch and Taguchi 2008). In RR, students are told to do repeated reading and pay attention to words that they need to know more in terms of morphological features and semantic taxonomies. They re-read a relatively easy and short text four times or more times, until they can read at a word per minute (wpm) level (e.g., 150 words per minute, Nation 2008). Two types of RR include unassisted RR (without an audio model) and assisted RR (with an audio model). The choice of either unassisted or assisted RR depends upon students' current language ability. For low proficient students, assisted RR is a useful task to help them build their vocabulary knowledge.

Shared Reading or Text-based Discussion: Students discuss some technical words, which are related to the text they read. In this shared reading, students can talk about the words with their peers or with a teacher. They may elaborate on the use of the identified words in other contexts. The students share what words they learned or found in the text with which they engaged. In his study, Widodo (2015) exemplifies that ESP teachers and accounting students discussed enlarged vocational text (e.g., financial statements) to jointly read repeated portions of the text, identify high frequency vocational vocabulary (e.g., *assets* , *liabilities*), and talk about how particular vocational vocabulary conveys disciplinary knowledge (e.g., *an income statement* , *a balance sheet* , and *a cash fl ow statement*). In short, in shared reading, students share with each other or with the teacher any words they find worthy of discussion while jointly reading an enlarged text.

Intentional Vocabulary Learning through Intensive Reading along with Peer and Teacher Discussion: Students learn new words intentionally through intensive reading. This intentional vocabulary learning can develop vocabulary knowledge (Kasahara, 2011). Students are given a freedom of choice to learn vocabulary incidentally based on their language needs. By reading a large amount of text, students may notice particular lexical items that they would like to learn more. For instance, if students are interested in elaborating on such lexical items based on morphological (e.g., word formation), syntactic (e.g., tense change), and semantic (e.g., synonyms and hyponyms) features, they may use dictionaries (e.g., Macmillan and Cambridge) and corpora (e.g., British National Corpus and Corpus of Contemporary American English) to increase size and depth of knowledge vocabulary. Through discussion-based intensive reading, students learn a large number of words because they engage with different texts and talk about these texts. Experiencing and

engaging with a range of different texts and a high volume of words in meaningful contexts can develop fl uent and automatic reading.

Vocabulary Portfolio Task: Students are asked to identify unfamiliar words in the text they read. They create a vocabulary portfolio, which includes morphological and semantic properties. In this vocabulary portfolio, students document word formation (e.g., *produce — production*), collocations , synonyms , and hyponyms of lexical items identified. Students can also include vocabulary elaboration based on these taxonomies of elaboration: (1) naming, (2) defining, (3) classifying, (4) describing, and (5) explaining. Another form of a vocabulary portfolio is a Discipline-Specific Word List/Corpus. A Word List aims to document both general and technical words that students find widely used in their vocational area. The selection of words can be based on vocational themes, which convey key concepts in the area students are learning.

Theme-Based Writing Task: Theme-based writing tasks start with vocational themes students are learning. In this task, students pick a word, which conveys key vocational information. For example, they can compose a procedure text or an information report text using the word, *a* ledger or the recording process, in Accounting English. They can write a step-by-step procedure for preparing for a ledger or for the recording process in the accounting area. This actual writing may begin by asking students to name, define, classify, and describe particular specialist vocabulary on which students wish to elaborate. This vocabulary elaboration leads to the actual writing task, depending on which a text type students focus on.

Vocational Knowledge Building: Knowledge building is the key to communication. Without sufficient knowledge, one cannot present or elaborate on a particular idea. A threshold of knowledge about a topic or topical knowledge is one of the contributing factors in successful communication. In language learning, topical knowledge is a springboard for rendering language skills such as speaking and writing as well as making meaning of both spoken and written texts. Knowledge of vocational areas varies from one discourse to another. In EVP classrooms, knowledge building can be carried out through extensive listening and extensive reading. These activities help students develop their knowledge. Students may use online resources, which provide them with a wide range of both spoken and written texts. While building vocational knowledge, students can explore how this knowledge can be presented through a different use of language because language is a tool for knowledge building or production. Here are three tasks that ESP teachers can adopt to assist their students to develop vocational or content knowledge.

Reading with Literature Circles: In the EFL context, literature circles have been studied to explore the benefits of literature circles, such as student engagement, knowledge building, and language development. In this literature circle, students are assigned to navigate, select, and present a vocational text. They are given autonomy to opt for a topic or a theme, which is relevant to their vocational interest (culinary tourism, financial accounting, or software engineering). In this dialogic and shared reading, students are asked to form a group of four to six members. They "meet regularly to share ideas, feelings, questions, connections, and judgments about [texts] they had read" (Daniels, 2002, p. 7). Each of the members plays different roles, such as text pickers (navigate and select a text), text masters (understand and present the text), and language enrichers (explain lexico-

grammatical items and provide language resources). Teachers may assign students with a variety of roles in order to optimize literature circle-oriented reading activities and to encourage students' engagement. Thus, a literature circle-based reading task encourages students not only to talk about their vocational knowledge but also build and develop this disciplinary knowledge.

Extensive Listening with Listening Journals: Students are assigned to listen to authentic listening texts and regular listening practice in the vocational domain. At the outset, student may be assigned to do simultaneous reading and listening in order to develop auditory discrimination, improve word recognition, develop a reading rate, and enhance an awareness of form-meaning relationships (Gobel & Kano, 2014). ESP teachers can guide students to find digital texts through You Tube or through Google Search. Students are allowed to listen to these texts repeatedly. A variety of topics help learners develop their vocabulary through different contexts. Learners should engage in planned sustained listening for a set time between 15 and 60 min so that they become familiar with the content and language of the spoken text. To document what students listened, ESP teachers can ask them to create listening journals, which may include a summary of spoken text and language genres of the text.

Extensive Reading with Learning Logs: Students are assigned to read a variety of vocational textbooks, articles, and manuals, for example. Software engineering students may read textbooks on programming language and antivirus software. Tourism students may read articles on tour guides, culinary tourism, and tourist destination management. The themes of extensive reading can be determined based on core vocational competencies that students have to achieve or develop. Vocationally oriented extensive reading enables students to build a reading tradition while widening a horizon of their vocational knowledge.

More importantly, both teachers and students need to negotiate types of vocational textbooks or articles the students read on a daily or weekly basis. ESP teachers may involve vocational or content teachers in deciding reading materials so that the selection of these materials really caters to students' needs of vocational knowledge building. Learning logs can be integrated with extensive reading to keep track of what students read so far and to share their readings with teachers and with peers.

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Lesson-26

TEACHING VOCABULARY IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Topic-126: Introduction to Vocabulary Teaching

Both first (L1) and second (L2) language educators and researchers agree that mastering vocabulary is of great importance in one's becoming a mature language user. Although learning vocabulary in a L1 and L2 is not fundamentally different, one of the important ways in which L1 and L2 vocabulary learning does differ is the rate of vocabulary growth. In the L1 learning context, the amount of regular input is immense allowing for much of vocabulary to be learnt incidentally. In contrast, the smaller amount of regular input in the L2 context means that the opportunities for learning new vocabulary items are limited, with relatively few words being acquired incidentally. It is, thus, hypothesized that teachers have the greatest influence on the quality and quantity of L2 vocabulary learnt by EFL learners (Laufer 2003). Because teachers play such a key role and ultimately decide what will be learnt, their careful planning and general knowledge of the issues involved in vocabulary learning may help enhance the learning process. Here the aim is to address a number of questions with regard to vocabulary size and coverage, the amount and type of vocabulary that EFL learners may know and need to know, core components of a vocabulary-learning programme, activities and opportunities for incidental vocabulary acquisition, as well as the role of the teacher in vocabulary learning in the EFL context.

Topic-127: Vocabulary Size and Coverage: Key Facts and Figures

According to Nation (2006), the way of deciding vocabulary learning goals in an English language learning programme is to look at native speaker's vocabulary size. It is estimated that a well-educated native speaker of English knows about 20,000 word families, or around 32,000 vocabulary items, excluding proper names (Goulden et al. 1990). This figure is a very ambitious and unrealistic goal for any L2 learning programme. It has been proposed that the vocabulary size of a highly educated non-native speaker of English is around 8000–9000 word families (Nation 2006) – less than a half of that of a native speaker of English.

Another more realistic way of determining vocabulary learning goals is to identify how much vocabulary is needed in order to perform a particular activity in the target language, for example, reading newspapers or novels, watching movies, participating in conversations, and so on (Nation 2006). When deciding on the amount of vocabulary needed for L2 learners to successfully engage in a particular task, it is important to consider the relationship between lexical coverage (percentage of known words in a text) and reading comprehension.

Hu and Nation (2000) studied that knowledge of 98%–99% of the lexical items in a written text is required to avoid comprehension problems caused by new words. They determined lexical coverage by replacing the low frequency items in their text with nonsense words. Reading comprehension was measured using a reading comprehension test and a cued recall test. It was found that with text coverage of 80 % (one in every five words being a nonsense word), no L2 reader was able to demonstrate satisfactory comprehension. When the text coverage figure was increased to 90

%, a very small number of learners demonstrated adequate comprehension. When the figure was further increased to 100 %, most learners were able to demonstrate good comprehension of the text. Further analysis revealed that 98 % text coverage (i.e., one unknown word in every 50 words) would be required for most L2 learners to achieve good comprehension of a text.

Nation (2006) in a more recent corpus study investigated how large vocabulary was needed to comprehend a variety of written and spoken texts. For example, it was found that a vocabulary of 9000 word families (made from the British National Corpus (BNC)) would be needed to read Lady Chatterley's Lover by D. H. Lawrence, and a vocabulary of 8000–9000 would be needed to read other similar novels. Interestingly, a similar 8000–9000 vocabulary size was found to be needed for adequate comprehension of newspaper texts.

When simplified texts, such as graded readers designated for language learners, it was found that only 3000 word families were needed to achieve a 98 % coverage level. Nation (2006) also looked at spoken texts, such as a children's movie Shrek and unscripted spoken English. The former required about 7000 word families and the latter a comparable 6000–7000 word families, excluding proper nouns. It was concluded that if one takes 98 % as the ideal coverage, a 8000–9000 word-family vocabulary is needed to deal with most written texts, and 6000–7000 word families are required to deal with most spoken texts (other figures have also been proposed; for example, van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) found that, based on a 95 % coverage figure, language learners would need to know 2000–3000 word families for adequate listening comprehension, which is, clearly, lower than Nation's (2006) estimate of 6000– 7000 families based on a 98 % figure). These vocabulary sizes might be considered as useful language learning targets.

Topic-128: How Much Vocabulary Do EFL Learners Know?

L2 vocabulary learning progress is often slow and uneven. This is due to a number of inter-related factors, such as insufficient input, lack of opportunities to use the language outside the classroom (insufficient output), teaching methods used (communicative language teaching vs. grammar-translation method), amount of time dedicated to the English language in general, amount of time dedicated to vocabulary learning in particular, and so on.

Different studies have shown that English vocabulary knowledge and learning rates in the EFL context fall short of what is considered to be a norm in the L1 context. For example, Nurweni and Read (1999) investigated the English vocabulary knowledge of 324 first-year university students in the Indonesian EFL context.

They found that after six years of formal English language instruction, on average, the learners knew 1226 English words (986 words, or just under 50 %, of the General Service List (West 1953) and 240 words, or 30 %, of the University Word List (Xue and Nation 1984)). Given that L2 learners of English are thought to require 4000– 5000 words to be able read university level textbooks (Nation 1990), it is evident that the EFL learners in Nurweni and Read (1999) were not equipped even with the most basic vocabulary to be able to cope with university-level readings. As the authors conclude, the limited vocabulary knowledge found in their study is disconcerting as

Indonesian EFL learners are expected to have the vocabulary size of a minimum of 4000 words upon entry to the university. As a possible solution to such an alarmingly low level of vocabulary gains, the authors recommended paying more attention to vocabulary learning; in particular, focusing more directly on teaching high-frequency words.

Webb and Chang (2012), who investigated the vocabulary knowledge of 166 EFL learners in Taiwan over a period of five years. They measured students' vocabulary learning progress using the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt et al. 2001). The data were examined according to the number of hours of English language instruction that learners had received (e.g., while one group enjoyed between 10 and 22 h of English classes per week, another group had a mere 2–6 h of English per week). The authors found that those with less exposure to English learnt significantly fewer words (some learnt as few as 18 words in one year), while the learners with greater exposure learnt as many as 430 words in one year. Perhaps, most disappointingly, the study revealed that after nine years of English language instruction, less than half of all the learners had mastered the words in the first 1000 word families. More disappointingly, only 16 % of the learners had mastered the words in the second 1000 word families. Similar to Nurweni and Read (1999), Webb and Chang (2012) highlighted the need to focus on the high-frequency words specifically those in the first and second 1000 word families.

Topic-129: Choosing Words to be Learned in an English Language-Learning Programme

Frequency plays a central role in language acquisition, processing and use. It is believed that the language processor is tuned to input frequency because language users are sensitive to the frequencies of linguistic events in their experiences. Lexical frequency effects are most robust in psycholinguistic research, and are thought to be responsible for the organization of the lexicon (Bod et al. 2003; Ellis 2002; Forster, 1976). Indeed, frequency is a decisive factor indicating which L1 words are likely to be learned and when. Some words are acquired early in a child's life (milk, bottle, dog), others may be acquired later in life (internet, university, marriage); many words, however, may never be acquired, used, or ever encountered by even highly educated L1 users (terms and other very low frequency words: dactylion, tachyphagia, yclept). It is surprising that frequency of occurrence should be the guiding force in language teachers' and course designers' decisions regarding the planning and sequencing of the words. Over the past two decades, corpus-driven studies of written and spoken discourse have been fundamental in improving our understanding of the relative frequency of words.

Nation (2006) found that a 8000–9000 word-family vocabulary is needed to deal with written texts, and 6000–7000 word families are needed to adequately comprehend spoken texts. Nation (2006) concluded that the greatest variation in vocabulary is likely to occur in the first 1000 word families, which cover around 80 and 83 % of written and spoken texts, respectively. Similarly, the most frequent 1000 word families in the BNC were also found to cover over 85 % of the words in 88 television programmes (Webb and Rodgers 2009a) and around 86 % of the words in 318 movies (Webb and Rodgers 2009b). These findings demonstrate the value of the high frequency words and make learning the first 1000 word families of primary importance in any English language-learning programme. On the contrary, the second 1000 word families in Nation (2006) were found to account

for around 9 and 6 % of written and spoken language, respectively, while combined the fourth and the fifth 1000 word families were found to provide only 3 % coverage of written and 2 % coverage of spoken texts. However, in order to reach specific language learning goals and communicate effectively in the L2, it is fundamental to learn and operate with the words beyond the first 1000 word families.

What these figures one can comprehend the relative value of words in vocabulary learning. Learners' primary task should be sufficient mastery of the words in the most frequent 1000 word families before they move on to second or third 1000-word levels. Evidently, learners learn what teachers present to them. Thus, an important role in the mammoth task of vocabulary learning belongs to language teachers and course designers, who choose and plan the syllabus.

Students in various EFL contexts may not know some of the high-frequency words found in the first 1000 word families (Danelund 2013 ; Nurweni and Read 1999 ; Quinn 1968 ; Webb and Chang 2012). These learners' vocabulary knowledge can be said to fall far short of what is expected of an EFL learner upon entry to university. These findings suggest that vocabulary learning in the EFL context may lack important elements, both at the level of course planning and course delivery and there is a need to improve the effectiveness of the EFL learning programme on vocabulary development.

Vocabulary-Learning Programme: Key Features

A number of challenges exist with L2 vocabulary learning and teaching. First, unlike L1 vocabulary learning, L2 vocabulary learning rates are slow and uneven. This is largely due to insufficient input and lack of opportunities to use language in and outside the classroom. Second, the sheer task may appear daunting and there is too much to learn. An educated native speaker knows 20,000 word families, while an educated L2 speaker's vocabulary is 8000–9000 words, the latter may be a life-long challenge for an EFL learner. Finally, words differ in their frequency and coverage with learning worth. It is imperative to choose words judiciously. It makes little sense to introduce an EFL learner to words from the second 1000 families (or beyond) until the words in the first 1000 word families have been mastered, if not productively then at least receptively.

What can help learners and teachers in the vocabulary learning quest is the development of a sound institutional programme aimed at optimizing vocabulary teaching and learning. A prominent example of such a programme is Nation's (2001) model that incorporates the vocabulary component of a language course. The main tenets and elements of this model can be summarized as follows:

1. Establishing Goals and Needs

While an overarching goal will, inevitably, be to increase learners' vocabulary size, more specific goals may differ from one group of learners to another. For example, depending on what the learners already know, the focus may be on high-frequency, academic, technical, or low-frequency vocabulary. In order to identify the goals and to establish what kind of vocabulary teachers should focus on, it is important to find out what vocabulary learners already know. Nation (2001) and Webb

and Chang (2012) suggest using diagnostic testing, such as the VLT (Schmitt et al. 2001), or Productive Levels Test (Laufer and Nation 1999).

While the VLT is a receptive test and the scores will indicate whether learners can recognize the meanings of L2 forms, the Productive Levels Test indicates whether learners might be able to produce the L2 forms of words when speaking and writing. Thus, teachers should have an idea about the learners' prior vocabulary knowledge and usage, and the words which should be focused.

2. Taking into Account Environmental Factors

Nation (2001) suggests establishing features and characteristics of the learners (e.g., Do they share the same L1?), the teachers (e.g., Are teachers well informed about teaching and learning vocabulary?), and the situation (e.g., Do L1 and L2 share cognate vocabulary?).

3. Following Vocabulary-teaching Principles

Nation's model has the three core principles of content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessment. Content and sequencing deal with the vocabulary to be learnt, its stages and means of learning. For example, frequency and range of occurrence should be the main guiding force in making decision of what should be learnt and when. Students should also be trained in vocabulary learning strategies (guessing from context, learning word parts, learning to use a dictionary, using word cards) and be familiarized with what is involved in knowing a word (form, meaning, aspects of use).

With regards to the principle of format and presentation, Nation (2001) emphasizes that high-frequency words should occur in the four strands of meaning focused input (learning through listening and reading activities that are oriented towards comprehension and enjoyment), meaning-focused output (learning through speaking and writing), language-focused learning (deliberately learning) language features such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse), and fluency development (which does not involve the learning of new vocabulary items, but focuses on becoming fluent in using what the learner already knows).

The four strands are a useful basis for vocabulary learning, because each strand focuses on different aspects of knowing and using a word and contributes to vocabulary development in its own way. In addition, this principle highlights the importance of spaced, repeated exposures to the target vocabulary. Finally, the principle of monitoring and assessment centres on a regular and systematic use of various types of assessment (tests, quizzes) in order to measure learning progress; it also motivates and encourages learners. Depending on the goals, some assessment may happen weekly or fortnightly (short-term achievement), while other forms of evaluation may only happen twice, at the beginning and at the end of the course (long-term achievement).

4. Evaluation of the Vocabulary Component of a Language Course

The final component of the model centres on evaluating the effectiveness of the vocabulary

component of a language programme. Nation (2001, 2008) provides a number of principles that can be used to achieve this aim. The following questions draw on some of these principles:

- Were the target vocabulary learning goals reached?
- Were the important environmental factors taken into account?
- Were the learners' needs met?
- Are teachers and learners happy with the vocabulary-learning programme? If not, do they understand its key components and principles?
- Did the learners' development of vocabulary knowledge extend beyond the learning of form and meaning?
- Were the learners able to use the target vocabulary?
- If not, were there sufficient opportunities for students to encounter the target vocabulary (in and outside the classroom)?
- Were the learners encouraged to use extracurricular activities for indirect vocabulary learning?

Topic-130: Vocabulary Learning Activities: Learning Outside the Classroom

Researchers and educators recommend to pay more attention to vocabulary learning and strategically focusing on teaching high-frequency words. However, there is a limit to teach vocabulary explicitly in the classroom. It is common for EFL students to have a very limited exposure to the target language (Webb & Chang, 2012). In addition, not all the time will be dedicated to vocabulary learning; other aspects, such as grammar, will too be part of the curriculum. It may be of considerable value to encourage EFL learners to engage in a number of extracurricular, out-of classroom activities that focus on and promote the acquisition of new vocabulary. Nation (2001) notes that opportunities for indirect vocabulary learning should occupy more time in a language course than direct vocabulary learning activities. Such indirect activities may, for example, include extensive reading and extensive viewing.

Extensive Reading

Reading may not be the main source of vocabulary acquisition in an instructed language-learning context (Laufer 2003), but it can be used as a useful activity outside the EFL classroom. It is also one of the activities central to Nation's (2001) strand of meaning-focused input. Second language researchers, educators and practitioners have long acknowledged an important role of reading in vocabulary acquisition (Pigada and Schmitt 2006). It has been claimed that acquiring vocabulary through reading leads to learning gains due to repeated encounters with the same word According to Nation's (2001) core principles of vocabulary teaching, spaced, repeated exposures are imperative for vocabulary learning. This suggests that longer texts might be better suited for vocabulary learning purposes than shorter ones, as the same word would be encountered a number of times. Extensive reading has been argued to be particularly effective in vocabulary learning. It not only offer opportunities for repeated exposure to the same lexical item, but also provides learners with opportunities to use words according to context, helping them notice, read, analyze, and eventually learn new items.

Modern technology can also help teachers to use extensive reading more effectively in the EFL context. For example, the RANGE programme (Nation and Heatley 2002) allows teachers to tactically choose texts for different courses according to the vocabulary level of their learners. When selecting texts for use in and outside the classroom, it is advisable to use texts that are primarily made of high frequency words and contain relatively few low frequency words. The RANGE programme, which allows the user to compare vocabulary loads of a large number of texts at the same time, is easy to use and can be an invaluable tool for teachers and course designers alike. Webb and Chang (2012) argue that judiciously selecting texts for high frequency words will provide superior conditions to comprehension and will allow the learner to focus their attention on the target vocabulary.

Other researchers have similarly argued for the relative simplicity of extensive reading texts, and have outlined some of the key principles to choosr extensive reading material for a language-learning programme. Day and Bamford (2002) put forward ten principles for an extensive reading approach that deal with the nature, conditions and methodologies necessary for its implementation and success:

- The reading material is easy
- A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available;
- Learners choose what they want to read;
- Learners read as much as possible (i.e., multiple encounters with a new word are necessary; Nation and Wang (1999) suggest that learners need to read about one book per week in order to meet repetitions of a new word soon enough to reinforce the previous meeting);
- The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding;
- Reading is its own reward;
- Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower;
- Reading is individual and silent;
- Teachers orient and guide learners;
- The teacher is a role model of a reader.

The focus is primarily on L2 learners', choice, their reading for pleasure, and their comfort zone. Extensive reading promotes learner autonomy, it can be motivating, and can result in substantial vocabulary learning, which is diffi cult to achieve with explicit teaching during the short period of time in the classroom (Pigada and Schmitt 2006). Nation (2001) also points out that the use of reading may an option for out-of-class vocabulary development for some learners. Thus researchers have strongly recommended extensive reading into the language-learning programme (Day& Bamford, 2002; Pigada& Schmitt, 2006).

Extensive Viewing

It has been argued that word knowledge involves a number of skills and that word learning can be facilitated by approaches and methods with varied learning experiences. Extensive reading can be one of the few options for out-of-class vocabulary development available to EFL learners (Nation 2001), but it is not the only one. Researchers also suggest that an approach that involves

comprehensible and enjoyable aural input in the form of extensive listening to aural versions of graded readers and other text types may be a useful way to further expand vocabulary knowledge and listening skills (Chang & Millet, 2014; Renandy & Farrell, 2011). Extensive viewing of L2 television is another activity that can complement extensive reading (Webb, 2009, 2014).

Television, movies and videos have a long history in English language teaching and learning, \ (Lin & Chanturia 2014). EFL learners are particularly encouraged to watch English television programmes outside the classroom (Lin & Chanturia, 2014; Nurweni & Read, 1999) since research has shown that it can aid the learning of English vocabulary (Koolstra & Beentjes,1999; Lin, 2014).

Webb (2009, 2014) recommended extensive viewing of English language television programmes as an approach to increase vocabulary growth. Lin and Chanturia (2014) suggest that internet television may be an ideal material for developing autonomous learners'vocabulary. They argue that EFL learners can take internet television with them and watch it wherever they want to be. Recent technological developments mean that internet television is accessible with a few clicks on an internet enabled smartphone, allowing learners to receive authentic input even if they have few minutes on a train.

According to Lin and Chanturia (2014), the following principles demonstrate the potential of internet television, especially, in the EFL context where classroom time is limited:

- Learners receive extensive exposure to English;
- Learners have the opportunity to observe authentic, everyday English. This is especially important in the context of formulaic language which has been found to be particularly problematic for L2 learners (Siyanova & Schmitt 2007, 2008; Chanturia & Martinez 2015);
- Internet television facilitates contextual vocabulary acquisition.

Extensive viewing is like extensive reading that too promotes repeated exposure to lexical items and exploits contextual cues available to the viewer. The television provides multimodal (e.g., aural, visual) contextual cues, which are likely to make it easier for learners to not only work out the meaning of an unknown lexical item, but also to learn the new item (Lin & Chanturia, 2014).

One of the principles of extensive reading proposed by Day and Bamford (2002) is that it should be easy. Because television puts emphasis on authentic input, this is unlikely to apply to extensive viewing of television. Moreover, extensive reading is suitable for any level television may only be suitable for more advanced EFL learners. Learners may need help and guidance on how to use watching television a valuable learning experience. The following strategies, adapted from Lin and Chanturia (2014) may guide EFL learners:

- **Repeated viewing:** Repeated viewing leads to repeated encounters with a vocabulary item. There is no maximum number of times that a learner can watch a given episode
- **Training on contextual vocabulary learning skills:** This will help learners acquire implicitly from watching television;
- **Programme selection:** While learners' individual interests should be prioritized, Lin (2014)

argues that programmes should be chosen based on the extent to which they reflect real language use. Lin (2014) found that television programmes in the factual, drama and comedy categories were more representative of everyday English than programmes in the music, learning and religion categories:

- **Narrow viewing:** Viewing programmes on the same or similar theme, which is more likely to provide multiple repetitions of vocabulary items and may help learners, accumulate vocabulary on a particular topic (Rodgers & Webb 2011);
- **Subtitles:** These can be used in the same language as the programme (intralingual subtitles), or in another language, such as learners' L1 (interlingual subtitles).

Subtitles have been found to aid vocabulary learning (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999). However, more research is needed on the effect of subtitles on foreign language learning, as recent findings suggest that while foreign language subtitles may assist learning, native-language subtitles may, in fact, create lexical interference (Mitterer & McQueen, 2009).

Benefit from reading-while-listening activities

Research suggests that reading withlistening can lead to greater vocabulary learning than reading alone (Webb& Chang 2012; Webb et al. 2013). TED Talks and other similar services provide a range of videos and talks with transcripts. In addition, Tom Cobb's Compleat Lexical Tutor (available at http://www.lextutor.ca/) offers a range of electronic versions of graded and ungraded readers accompanied by recordings that a learners can listen to before, after, or during reading. It is noteworthy that the Complete Lexical Tutor is an extremely valuable resource for teachers and learners alike, offering such tools as word lists, concordancers, vocabulary profilers, and vocabulary tests.

Overall, researchers agree that watching (traditional) television and internet television can be a useful EFL activity promoting learner autonomy and enhancing vocabulary learning, and recommend including extensive viewing of television into the language-learning programme.

A number of issues can be raised pertinent to vocabulary teaching and learning in the EFL context. Overall, research has shown marginal L2 vocabulary growth,and suggested that vocabulary learning in many EFL situations may be inefficient. These findings put current EFL pedagogies and practices into question. We argued that careful development of the vocabulary component of a language course that takes into account the core principles of vocabulary teaching might have a positive and long-lasting effect on the development of vocabulary knowledge among EFL learners. A number of extracurricular, out-of-class activities, such as extensive reading and extensive viewing, have the potential to contribute to vocabulary development and enhance EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge.

Lesson-27

Teaching Pronunciation in a Language Classroom

Topic-131: Introduction: Pronunciation and the Changing Landscape of English

The need for English to function as a lingua franca is ever increasing as the world is evolving into global village. The differentiation between ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) seems no longer to be a useful perspective in English language teaching and learning. These two terms have been replaced by EIL (English as an International Language) or ELF (English as a Lingua Franca). The substitution is not merely a switch in terminology. It indicates a major change of mindset, which is important in English language teaching (ELT).

ELF is defined as "a means of communication between people who come from different first language backgrounds" (Jenkins 2012, p. 486). What it implies is that it is the English that all users of English, regardless of whether they are native or non-native speakers, ESL or EFL learners, employ to interact with each other. In Jenkins' own elaboration, a speaker of ELF includes "… any user of English, be they from an L1 English country, a post-colonial English country, or a country where English is neither L1 nor official language" (Jenkins 2012, p. 487).

With such an all-encompassing definition of an English language 'user,' the goals of teaching English pronunciation have become manifold. The traditional aim of acquiring one 'standard' pronunciation will not suffice. Learners nowadays have to learn to communicate with English speakers of different varieties, both native and non-native. They have to understand the pronunciation features among these varieties, which can range from dialectal variations to learners' errors. Such a standpoint definitely imposes changes in terms of the content and methodology in pronunciation teaching and learning.

Topic-132: Teaching Pronunciation and the Case of Pakistan

We need to consider the following:

- Education system of Pakistan
- L2 and ELT in Pakistan
- Examination system in Pakistan
- Language skills and Classroom practices

Topic-133: New Approaches and Goals in Teaching Pronunciation

Intelligibility in an ELF Context

Ever since Jenkins (1998, 2000) introduced the concept of EIL, which later evolved into ELF, research in EIL/ELF has been shaped by the idea that the gist of teaching and learning of English is

the ability to communicate with native and non-native speakers alike. Jenkins (2000) promotes the idea that, rather than adhering to an standard norm, be it Received Pronunciation (RP) or General American (GA), the teaching and learning of English should not be dictated by any of them as the sole model, because there seems to be little reason to base the L2 (English) teaching on an RP model, other than the fact that 'even in the inner circle only a specific elite group is considered as 'norm makers', or as models for emulation (Kachru, 1985) and that RP has altered over time (ibid). Wells (2005) agrees that it is not realistic to ask for a choice between EFL and EIL, our students need both (Wells, 2005). Indeed, learners learn English to interact with all speakers of English, not exclusively with RP or GA speakers. The most important theme of ELF in ELT is to realistically acknowledge the existence of variability in language use.

Although Jenkins (2000) and Wells (2005) do not completely agree on the details of the Lingua Franca Core, both emphasize on the importance of pronunciation features which impede intelligibility. As Jenkins has aptly pointed out that even when learners use a variant grammatical form or an inappropriate expression, they can still be understood. It is usually the wrong pronunciation that leads to communication breakdown (Jenkins, 2012). The decisive role of pronunciation in mutual intelligibility is evident. The effort of ELF researchers in advancing a paradigm shift in ELT is slowly paying off (Jenkins 2000, 2006; Seidlhofer 2001; Walker, 2010). On the practical side, Wells (2005) provides a few principles to follow within such a paradigm. He suggests that the teaching of English pronunciation in an EFL/EIL context should focus on areas which impede communication and at the same time we should not undermine learners' confidence. While the importance of effectively communicating with NSs should be maintained, NSs should be educated too, so as to achieve mutual intelligibility from both sides.

Wells appeals to contrastive analysis (CA) as a way to locate areas of difficulty. Despite its rather simplistic approach, CA is a useful initial step to identifying potential areas of unintelligibility. It is through the careful comparison and contrast of L1 and English that teachers and learners of different language backgrounds can be made aware of the pronunciation features that cause problems in understanding speakers of different varieties. Such awareness is crucial in language learning and is of primary importance in language teaching.

Raising Awareness in Pronunciation Teaching

In teaching and learning of pronunciation, two factors are crucial: awareness raising (Burgess and Spencer 2000; Jenkins 2004; Jones 1997) and self-monitoring (Arteaga 2000; Hinkel 2006; Scarcella and Oxford 1994). If learners are unaware of their spoken English, unintelligible to other speakers; they will not take the initiative to change. This refers to Schmidt's (1990, 2001) 'noticing hypothesis'. It is especially applicable in the teaching and learning of pronunciation. If a learner is not able to notice the distinction between /iː/ and /ɪ/ in beach and bitch, how do we expect the learner to take initiative to produce the different vowel sounds? At the same time, if a teacher is ignorant of such distinctions, how can he/she make the learners become aware of such differences? It has been found that phonemic awareness facilitates the learning of new vocabulary items among L1 children (Ehri, 2005). The learners form connections between sounds and spelling in the learning process. When they see a word, they examine the spelling and pronounce the word. Reading aloud the word a

few times secures the connection in memory. Such process requires the knowledge of grapheme-phoneme mapping and phonemic awareness. Phonemic awareness refers to the awareness of the discreet sound units which contribute to differences in meaning, for example, the /p/ in pin as opposed to the /f/ in fin, and the /b/ in bin, and so on.

Such a process is a true reflection in L2 acquisition, because most L2 learners rely on printed materials to learn English. Many L2 learners deduce pronunciation of new words from their spelling. The crucial element is to establish the sound to spelling correspondences. Thus, raising the phonemic awareness of learners in teaching pronunciation is indispensable. The awareness can be brought about by examining the details in how the individual English segments are articulated and such details can be explicitly taught to learners. Phonemic awareness can also be achieved by comparing and contrasting the sounds of the learners' L1 with English. The primary concern is to highlight the areas in the relevant sound systems which may cause difficulties and which will affect intelligibility. For example, the two TH sounds (/θ/ and /ð/) are difficult for many learners. Learners should first be alerted that their TH sounds are not accurately articulated. They should then be taught the articulatory features of the dental fricatives so that they are able to produce the expected difference among words such as thin ~ fin ~ sin and then ~ den ~ Zen, etc. Not only should they be taught how to produce the problematic sounds through the articulatory details, they should also be taught how to perceive the differences among similar pairs or groups of sounds.

In an ELF context, the teaching and learning of pronunciation awareness means being sensitive to the differences among the language varieties. Learners should be made aware of the major differences among the regional varieties such as the vowel alternation between the RP /ɑː/ and GA /æ/ in words like dance, ask, master, etc. As a result, they will be able to comprehend the speech of speakers of these two major varieties. Very often, miscomprehension is not so much the learners' inability to hear accurately what NSs produce; rather, it is their lack of awareness of the fact that not all speakers of English speak in the same way. The raising of learners' awareness of the pronunciation features of other varieties of English is especially important in an ELF context.

Self-Monitoring in Pronunciation Learning

Being aware of the difficulties in English pronunciation does not necessarily lead to the production of intelligible English speech. The speech production is automatic (Levelt 1989). In the acquisition process of an L1, the articulation of individual segments and their combinations become less controlled and more automatic. However, in learning an L2, some of our 'automated' speech production skills of L1 will have to adjust accordingly and modifying these skills can be as difficult as acquiring new ones. This always requires a lot of conscious effort in the beginning. Conscious monitoring of one's own speech is a useful strategy in learning a new sound system. To achieve fluency in an L2, paradoxically, is to minimize the effort to consciously control one's production and to maximize automaticity.

The initial effort for L2 learners to consciously control their speech production may derive from declarative knowledge imparted to them by their teachers. This is a necessary and important stage because they need to practice these skills so as to 'automatize' them to achieve fluency.

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These developmental stages can be reflected from the discrepancy in learners' performance in different tasks. Most English teachers have experienced frustration over the fact that students who are able to produce perfect pronunciation in minimal pair drills often fail to reproduce those exact words in natural spontaneous speech. In minimal pair drills, students have made use of their declarative knowledge to exercise full conscious 'control' over their speech production. However, natural spontaneous speech production requires highly automatic processing for learners who are still in the stage of conscious control. In L2 acquisition, the intermediate stage of 'self-monitoring' is a crucial step. To complement the explicit instructions provided by teachers, learners need to 'self-monitor' their own speech until many of the speech production skills, which may interfere with intelligibility, have been eradicated or appropriately modified. When learners have grasped the articulatory details of certain sounds or sound combination of the differences between their L1 and English, they will have to first turn such knowledge into 'controlled processing,' which requires special attention, and then turn the controlled processing into 'automatic processing.' The 'controlled' component is to constantly monitor one's own speech. Failing to do so may end up producing unintelligible speech.

Although in an ELF context, learners are not expected to produce speech approximating an idealized target 'standard' norm, their speech is still expected to be understood by the majority of ELF speakers. Who else has the best clues about whether one's speech is intelligible or not other than the learners themselves and their teachers? Learners should be reminded to self-monitor their speech, whenever they can, in order to identify features that tend to impede communication. Then they should reflect on what these features are and be instructed as how their automatic skills learned from their L1s can be modified so their spoken English becomes more intelligible.

Topic-134: The Basis for Pronunciation: Phonetics and Phonology

It is not recommended to turning pronunciation teaching into the teaching of phonetics and phonology. It is advised to avoid teaching all the jargons related to phonetics and phonology. However, an understanding of the knowledge and research in phonetics and phonology can facilitate the teaching of pronunciation. For example, the phonetic knowledge of the fact that the voicing distinction between /s/ and /z/ is caused by the vibration of the vocal cords can be very useful. In pronunciation teaching, it is important to make the learners become aware of such difference whose L1 does not have voicing contrast.

Topic-135: Role of the Internet in Teaching and Learning Pronunciation

In the twenty-first century, the revolution in learning takes place by the use of computer and internet. Language learning has progressed from computer-assisted language learning (CALL) to web-enhanced language learning (WELL) and mobile learning. As computer technology advances, the modes of language learning vary accordingly from online language games, practice exercises, multi-media courses and materials, to chat room exchanges, and blogging. Dudeney and Hockly (2012) believe that mobile technology will definitely impact ELT in the future.

The learning of pronunciation should also incorporate advanced technology. The age of WELL,

which makes use of the world-wide web emphasizes the cognitive development of the learners (Warschauer, 2004). Internet has almost become the default platform for learning among the e-generation. One of the powerful features of the Internet, which greatly enhances the effective learning of pronunciation, is its multimedia capability. Learners can not only get easy access to audio files but they can also have access to animated video clips demonstrating how certain sounds are articulated. As far as pronunciation is concerned, the following types of resources, which facilitate pronunciation learning, can be easily located on the internet:

- Authentic English speech such as newscasts (e.g., BBC & CNN), movies, documentaries.
- Online dictionaries with audio pronunciation demonstration (e.g., Cambridge & Merriam-Webster).
- Web-based pronunciation practice exercises
- Downloadable speech analysis programmes (e.g., PRAAT, SFS)
- Online video communication facilities (e.g., Skype)

The first three types are known to maximum learners but the last two types need elaboration. Speech analysis programmes were used exclusively by phoneticians for research purposes in the past because such software was very complicated to operate. However, nowadays many speech analysis programmes are user friendly and are available as freeware. Two of the popular ones are PRAAT and SFS/WASP. PRAAT is 'Doing phonetics by computer' (Boersma & Weenink,2013), developed by the two authors at the University of Amsterdam. SFS and WASP stand for 'Speech Filing System' and 'Windows Tool for Speech Analysis' are developed by researchers at University College London. SFS is more sophisticated while WASP shows simple waveforms and pitch patterns. These programmes enable users to record speech and display their speech signals as visual display. Learners and teachers may make use of the visual display to practice, for example, intonation patterns. It has been reported in (Ai et al., 2014) that a programme named 'Sprinter' has been developed to automatically detect pronunciation errors and learners can improve their pronunciation by the visual display, which is similar to the display shown in PRAAT or WASP.

These internet resources enable learners to get access to authentic spoken English as model, well-designed exercises to practice with, and speech analysis software to explore. Such resources are invaluable to awareness raising and self-monitoring. The only limitation of these types of web-based resources is its one-way communication. Video conferencing programmes such as Skype, Viber, and Facetime, can solve this problem. These tools facilitate face-to-face communication opportunities. They provide a useful platform for interaction among students of different language backgrounds. Eakin (2011) reported on a study where students who are learning French used Skype to interact with French speakers over a 3-week period. Most students rated the use of Skype very positively. Such model can be adapted to the English language class as well. Teachers in China can design regular video conferencing sessions with English speaking students in Canada. They can collaborate on projects, exchange of cultural information. A lot more meaningful tasks and activities can be devised by delving into this useful platform.

In this way, learners can communicate with speakers from different language background, both native and non-native. Through well-designed communicative tasks, learners will be able to reflect

on how intelligible their speech is for other speakers of English. At the same time, they will also learn to decode Englishes spoken by a great variety of speakers. In an ELF context, the world is well-connected by the web. Web-based learning is a logical and necessary step forward.

While the internet has housed many resources for learners to learn independently, it is also a major source for learners to be exposed to the many different varieties of English. For example, 'the speech accent archive' constructed by Weinberger (2014) and his colleagues has provided speech samples from more than 300 in L1 language backgrounds for comparison. The speech samples were collected based on a short reading passage, so it is easy to examine the differences among speakers. Each speech sample contains an audio recording, together with the reading passage in ordinary orthography and in phonetic transcription. One useful feature of this website is that each sample includes a description of all the special features for each speaker. For example, a Hungarian speaker produced [v] instead of [w] for the words we and Wednesday. These two words are highlighted in red. By listening to the recording and looking at the transcription, teachers can easily show how a Hungarian learner's speech is different from the GA variety.

A website similar to the speech accent archive is IDEA (International Dialects of English Archive) (Meier, 2015). The main difference between these two archives is that the speech samples in IDEA contain both scripted and spontaneous speech while those in the accent archive are recorded based on a scripted short passage. Another special feature of IDEA is that it welcomes submission from the public. In other words, learners can submit their speech sample to be archived on the website. The website showing the different varieties of English "Accents of English from Around the World" developed by a team of experts at the University of Edinburgh. This allows users to compare the pronunciation of 110 different words from a wide range of regions including England, Ireland, Scotland, Canada, US, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, Nigeria, India, and Singapore.

One can listen to the pronunciation of all the words said by a Londoner, or a Singaporean, or an Indian. On the other hand, one can browse the website based on single words. For example, the page of the word, day, will show the pronunciation of this word by all the regional speakers indicated by a phonetic transcription, each of which is linked to a sound file. Therefore, a variety of accents are clearly revealed at one's finger-tip. Such rich resources can only be with the advanced technological development accompanied by the fast growing capacity of the internet. In an ELF context, these websites are most precious for teachers and learners.

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Lesson-28

TEACHING SPEAKING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Topic-136: Introduction: Teaching Speaking in a Language Classroom

In today's English classrooms, it is observed that language learners sit in pairs and groups talking or working together on a task. Such kinds of activities are aimed at helping learners gain confidence and fluency in speech and are necessary in countries where English is not widely used. This practice is based on the assumption that through frequent practice with their peers, learners will transfer speaking skills from the classroom to real-life communication. This approach was identified in a review of speaking instruction by Burns (1998) as the indirect/transfer approach. The other approach in which learners focus on getting the forms of the language right through direct instruction of grammar and pronunciation through drills, structure manipulation and consciousness-raising activities is the direct/controlled. This direct approach was common before Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methods and became influential in many parts of the world resulting in the currency of the indirect/transfer orientation in speaking activities.

On the whole, there have been no perceptible paradigm shifts in methods and practices for teaching speaking (Goh & Burns, 2012; McCarthy& O'Keeffe, 2004). Nevertheless, new understandings of discourse analysis and features of spoken English have resulted in an expansion of the scope of the direct/ controlled approach. This expanded approach, informed in part by genre theory, introduces learners to a variety of spoken texts and their respective discourse structures through direct teaching of language and discourse knowledge needed for successful oral communication (Burns, 1998). Additionally, corpus research work such as the CANCODE spoken corpus (McCarthy & Carter,1995) has provided evidence of significant differences between spoken and written English and their pedagogical implications (Carter, 1998).

Taking the pedagogical landscape for speaking instruction into consideration, it is proposed that a comprehensive and holistic approach, which integrates the combined strengths of direct and indirect instruction with the power of learners' metacognition. This approach is further proposed by recent research findings on pedagogical processes that can scaffold the development of L2 speaking. So, the construct of speaking and highlight pedagogical procedures can contribute positively to speaking performance and the implications of such understandings suggest pedagogical principles that can enhance current practices to facilitate second language speaking development in and outside the language classroom.

Topic-137: Second Language: Speaking Activities

Understanding the speaking skill a good speaker is the person who speaks L2 confidently, fluently and grammatically correct. In some learning contexts, a person may be considered a good speaker if he or she sounds like a native-speaker countries of UK or USA. Some people may say that a good speaker is someone who is able to influence others with his or her words. While 'good' speaking may seem a self-evident phenomenon, the construct of speaking is simple. Let us examine L2 speaking by discussing the concept of speaking competence and the processes involved in speech

production. There are research highlights that offer pedagogical procedures for enhancing L2 learners' speaking performance.

Speaking Competence

Speaking involves dynamic interactions of mental, articulatory and social processes. To express a message, speakers need to decide what to say and use their linguistic knowledge to construct utterances and encode messages in sounds and sound patterns which can be recognised and understood by their listeners. They also need to consider the context of interaction and engage their listeners in socially appropriate ways through various linguistic choices and forms. For example, speakers may choose to use certain vocabulary or register when speaking with people with whom they have shared knowledge and experience. Speaking is also influenced by varied cognitive and affective factors, such as the ability to process speech quickly and feelings of anxiety. It is instructive to examine a description of L2 oral communication by Johnson (1981) that is still relevant today.

Consider what is involved in producing a conversation utterance. Apart from being grammatical, the utterance must be appropriate on many levels at the same time; it must confirm the speaker's aim, the relationships between the speaker and listener, the setting, topic, linguistic context, etc. The speaker must also produce his utterance within severe constraints; he does not know in advance what will be said to him, yet, if the conversation is not to flag, he must respond quickly. The rapid formulation of utterances which are simultaneously "right" on several levels is central to the spoken communicative skill.
Johnson identifies critical aspects of L2 speaking as follows:

Enabling Skills

An important characteristic of competence is the ability to produce utterances that are grammatically accurate. Accuracy alone, however, is insufficient, competent speakers need to use language for myriads functions to achieve a range of communication goals. They use various subskills that enable them to navigate the social elements at work in any interaction. So what is said should not only be cleared but should be appropriate to the context and acceptable to their listeners. They need to determine what type and amount of information is needed, as well as effective ways to express their meaning, organize their speech and articulate the sounds that accompany their speech intelligibly.

The main aim of skills in the conceptualization of speaking competence is demonstrated in various discussions of the construct of speaking in which a number of production and interaction skills have been identified. Goh and Burns (2012) have grouped speaking skills into four sets or clusters of skills, each with many sub-skills respectively that are appropriate for the learning and communication needs of learners.

Pronunciation Skills

The articulatory and phonological skills enable speakers to produce sounds at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. At the segmental level, learners need to articulate discrete sounds such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs, and clusters of these sounds through movement with and inside of their mouths to produce intelligible sounds through the articulatory tract. The suprasegmental level concerns overall sound patterns of utterances or parts of an utterance and are realised mainly but not exclusively through prominence (stress of selected syllables in key words) and tones (pitch movements in selected key words).

Suprasegmental features are not mere reproduction of sentence stress patterns to show attitude or emotions, as suggested by some instructional materials for pronunciation. Instead, they have important communicative value and are produced in response to the real-time unfolding of meanings in discourse during any interaction (Brazil,1985 :1997). Consider the following example:

A: Where's my bag?
B: //UNder the TA ble//
A: (Looking at the top of table) Where?
B: //NOT ON the table// UN der it//

B's first reply shows what would normally be considered as "correct" stress pattern because the key content word 'table' is given the more prominent stress. In B's second reply, however, the stress is not on the word 'table' because this information is no longer new but is given or shared. Instead, the stress is found in grammar words in the form of the prepositions 'on' and 'under' where greater prominence has been assigned to show the contrast in the location of the bag.

Speech Function Skills

We use speech to perform speech acts, that is to say we produce spoken language to get things done. To achieve this, speakers need to produce utterances that can convey desired communicative functions through a combination of appropriate language use, vocabulary choice and grammar. Inventories of language functions for speech can be found in many skill-based language syllabuses or documents such as the 'Common European Framework Reference' that specify the competencies of language learners to be expected for the achievement at various levels of proficiency. There are basic language functions that learners need to show, for example, inform, accept, decline, request, explain and describe. Individual learners' functional repertoire will depend largely on their contexts of interaction and the purposes for which speech can fulfil. Compared to young learners, adult learners in academic or professional situations would need to convey more complex functions such as negotiate, advise and argue.

Interaction Management Skills

Some speech functions are directly related to the ability to manage an interaction or regulate the flow of conversations. Just as children learning their first language need to learn how to initiate and

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sustain face-to-face interactions, language learners need to develop skills to do so in another language. These include but are not limited to initiating an interaction or conversation, taking turns, giving turns, asking for clarification, changing topics and closing an interaction. Adult learners' prior experience would allow them to understand the moves needed in face-to-face interactions, but they still need to learn to use the language to convey these moves. Formulaic expressions for indicating the specific functions are an important part of learners' repertoire of interaction management skills. Moreover, because of cultural differences, language learners will also need to recognise their interlocutors' moves as well as creating moves and utterances in socioculturally appropriate ways themselves.

Discourse Organization Skills

Most spoken interactions occur in the contexts where participants have equal or similar opportunities to talk. Very often, however, language learners may have longer turns and are required to produce extended pieces of discourse, for example, when giving a presentation, explaining or describing procedures and narrating an event or a story. They will therefore need skills to construct these spoken texts in ways that are consistent with the sociocultural conventions for the respective genres in the language being learnt. In addition to know about discourse routines (the stages and moves that are typically found in specific contexts), learners need relevant language to frame the moves. For example, in giving a presentation, learners must make use of discourse markers to signpost transitions. These markers can be simple such as using the word 'Next' or complex such as including a summary of what has been said and progressing to the next 'We have just examined X, let's now consider Y.'

Young learners learning to tell a story in the target language will need to know the structure of a narrative (orientation-problem-resolution-coda) and use markers to indicate these transitions.

Communication Strategies

Communication strategies are special techniques that learners need to employ during oral communication. They can have a social function for enhancing interaction or a psycholinguistic function that compensates inadequate vocabulary and other language-related problems (Nakatani and Goh 2007). Given the constraints of time and inadequate language mastery, learners also often need to employ communication strategies to keep the conversation going or to prevent flagging (Dörnyei, 1995).

For example, learners may use interactional strategies such as asking for clarification or repetition and comprehension checks before responding to their interlocutors to ensure that they can give a correct response and gain time while formulating a response. Less proficient learners who do not understand what they hear and are unable to express their meanings immediately can ask for assistance directly. They may also adjust their message according to their competence by reducing what they say to the minimum or steering the conversation away to a new topic which they are more familiar with.

Learners may also use formulaic expressions or discourse markers, such as 'Well', 'Yes, that's a good point' as hesitation devices to gain more thinking time, and use generic terms or vague words such as 'thing' to substitute a more precise term which they do not know in the target language. This last strategy is also called approximation and an example of cognitive strategies used for problem solving when L2 speakers encounter gaps in lexical knowledge and related linguistic problems. Other cognitive strategies include paraphrasing, circumlocution, word coinage and borrowings from L1. Learners can also use metacognitive strategies to plan what they want to say, self-monitor during speaking and evaluate their language and message after speaking (Bygate, 1998). As learners of English an international language, they must also develop strategies to communicate across cultures.

Language and Discourse Knowledge

Johnson's (1981) was concerned mainly with syntactic (word order) and morphological features such as verb inflections, and noun plurality. In recent decades, our understanding of grammar has expanded to include knowledge and use of grammar in relation to spoken genres as well as structuring different kinds of spoken genres, i.e., types of texts produced in different communicative events, such as conversations, lectures and interviews, according to the sociocultural context (Burns, 1998). Speakers need to use grammar that supports the production and organization of the respective genres. For example, in producing oral narratives or stories, various forms of the past tense are most common whereas giving instructions or directions (e.g., procedural texts) will require the use of the imperative forms of verbs. Another extended notion of grammaticality is the speakers' knowledge of and ability to use spoken grammar, as it would no longer be possible to ignore the compelling evidence from spoken language data in any discussions of speaking pedagogy (McCarthy & O'Keeffe 2004).

Topic-138: Processes in Speech Production and Designing Activities

L2 speaking models have been used to understand the speech production in cognitive psychology. The model that has been adopted in several L2 speaking discussions is Levelt's (1989) framework of conceptualization, formulation and articulation based on first language speakers (Bygate, 1998). Conceptualization is a speaker's mental planning process to determine what he or she intends to say. Information is selected and intentions of speech acts are activated at this stage. Such a mental concept or plan may exist as a general idea, but the message still has to be expressed in relevant words that are strung together grammatically.

This requires the access and retrieval of vocabulary that is stored in long term memory in the form of individual words, phrases or even complete chunks of utterances as well as the application of grammar knowledge of the language. During the process of formulation, speakers will actively draw on their knowledge of the language to express their meaning as clearly and precisely as possible. The actual expression of the ideas for the listeners occurs when the words are said aloud through phonological encoding at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. This physical process which is called articulation is brought about by the activation and control of components of the articulatory system.

Directions of Speech Processing

According to Levelt (1989), the processes of conceptualization, formulation and articulation often occur interactively, they can also take place in a linear manner. This is to say that one process may occur while another is still taking place, but it is also possible that speakers may engage with the processes separately before speech acts are performed through a demonstration of the individual or collective functions of the utterances. Interactive speech processing occurs more commonly in spontaneous speech production where speakers have to decide what to say, how to say and say it aloud. In L2 speaking this also presents the greatest challenge for learners and they have to resort to communication strategies. They also have to process their speech in such a manner that one process (for example, articulation) occurs only after another (for example, formulation) has completed.

Metacognitive Processes

In addition to these cognitive and articulatory processes, speech production also involves metacognitive processes. These are mental processes operating at a level beyond the direct manipulation of language and ideas. Metacognitive processes manage and regulate speech as it is processed cognitively and articulated physically. A primary metacognitive process is monitoring (Bygate,1998). This happens when speakers check the accuracy and appropriateness of what is being said and how it is being said all the time. Another metacognitive process is evaluation which takes place following speech production. Speakers may review what they have just said and decide whether they have been effective in conveying their thoughts, ideas or information and the achievement of their communication goal. This may occur immediately after an utterance is articulated or at the end of a speech event. Another key metacognitive process is planning and this may overlap with the conceptualization phase in situations when speakers have plenty of time to think about what they want to say, for example in preparing for a presentation.

L2 Speaking Performance

Although language learners also engage in similar processes of speech production, they encounter various challenges that can affect their speech fluency. To explain L2 speaking performance, a multidisciplinary, cognitive science framework was proposed by Segalowitz (2010) that is informed by neurocognitive science and social psychology of bilingualism. It explains L2 speech performance in terms of the dynamic relationships among a number of variables or sources, which can variously exert demands on L2 learners' speech. These are cognitive perceptual systems that underlie speech production, utterance fluency features (e.g., speech rate, hesitation and pausing), motivation (e.g., willingness to communicate, beliefs, language and identity, and the concept of L2 self), the social or interactive communicative context, and fluency-relevant perceptual and cognitive experiences (e.g., exposure, opportunities for repetition practice). L2 fluency is therefore affected by many demands, such as a limited cognitive processing capacity because conceptualization, formulation and articulation need to take place within constraints of limited content, language and discourse knowledge. Some learners may also be hampered by inadequate cultural knowledge that can otherwise enhance their oral communication and enhance their confidence when talking with English speakers from other countries.

In a face-to-face communication situation where there are time pressures to 'perform,' learners will focus more on conveying the meaning of what they want to say rather than worry too much about the accuracy of their language (Skehan, 1998). In other words, many learners may not have the luxury of time and processing capacity to monitor what they say constantly. Language learners do try to check on what they say whenever possible in order to enhance their performance and their self-monitoring processes are evident in the presence of self-repairs. Learners do notice their mistakes or lack of clarity and correct themselves. At the same time, language learners also employ communication strategies to seek assistance, gain extra time or improve what they say. The ability of language learners to maintain interaction no matter how challenging this proves to be as well as compensating for a lack of lexical knowledge shows they also engage in the metacognitive processes of planning, self-monitoring and evaluation.

Topic-139: Classroom Speaking Tasks

Teachers plan a range of speaking tasks with various levels of demands and outcomes for learners to practice their spoken English. Some of these tasks may require learners to talk together in groups to arrive at a solution to a given problem while others may simply require them to exchange specific information.

There are broadly three types of speaking tasks that encourage genuine communication among learners: communication-gap tasks, discussion tasks, and monologic tasks (Goh & Burns, 2012). In communication-gap and discussion tasks, learners interact with a partner or others in small groups to convey information and viewpoints to achieve a communicative outcome. There are many forms of 'gaps' in communication-gap tasks and these include missing information or details which one learner will have to describe, narrate or explain to their partner.

In comparison, discussion tasks create an even more authentic context for speaking and interaction because learners share their personal views with one another. When they have to discuss an open or controversial topic, for example, learners can draw on their own background knowledge, experience and beliefs. When a consensus or solution is required, they will have to negotiate with one another for an outcome that everyone can agree on. Sometimes, group discussions can also occur through simulations, which are classroom activities that reproduce or create a situation that is close to real life concerns. In simulations, learners are given scenarios in which they take on a role, such as a doctor, a Member of Parliament, a school counselor, and a parent to discuss an issue with others taking on other roles.

In contrast to these two kinds of tasks, monologic tasks require learners to present ideas, information and views individually to a single listener or a group of listeners. For example, they may give a talk, tell a story or present a report. They may also speak extensively on a topic or a theme without interruptions. They may be asked to give spontaneous and unedited talks or planned and rehearsed ones. These 'performances' can be done in front of the whole class, but doing them in small groups is preferable because it reduces anxiety for the speakers and enables peers to ask questions and give feedback in a less threatening environment. Teachers can plan different kinds of monologic tasks and vary the duration of the monologue according to learning objectives.

Topic-140: Enhancing Second Language Speaking Performance and LTM

Speaking in a second language clearly presents many challenges to language learners. These challenges do not always get addressed in the classroom. Although students have opportunities to develop their confidence and fluency through oral activities, they do not receive much of the scaffolding they need for learning and improvement to take place during the instructional process.

Spurred by their motivation to succeed, many learners may put in extra time and effort to practice their spoken English by using self-study techniques or seeking opportunities to speak with more competent speakers of English. Some learners may find their progress slow while others may feel that they do not learn enough by just practicing in class with peers who are not better than themselves. These are genuine concerns, and there are ways for teachers to support learners and help them to succeed. Recent research has provided new understandings about cognitive and general learning processes for L2 learners, and these understandings can provide further directions in the way to enhance speaking pedagogy. These three strategies can enhance L2 learners' speaking performance.

Pre-task Planning

Some researchers have investigated whether it was useful to give learners time to plan and prepare for a speaking task or how pre-task planning might have an impact on their fluency, accuracy and language complexity? Varying degrees of positive effects have been reported for all three dimensions of speech but the effect on accuracy is still inconclusive.

Another type of pre-task planning focuses on the strategies that learners could use during the task to facilitate communication and intelligibility. Strategy training conducted at the pre-task stage enabled some learners to apply strategies during speaking and produce speech that was significantly more fluent than that of learners who did not receive any training. In addition, pre-task planning time has allowed some test-takers to prepare themselves for a speaking test by using language-related strategies as well as strategies for content and discourse organization (Wigglesworth & Elder,2010). Some researchers speculated that pre-task planning was helpful for learners but individual differences such as the ability for self-monitoring and repairs could confound the effects of pre-task planning, so other ways of helping learners improve their speech production such as task repetition should be explored.

Task Repetition

Task repetition is the repeated use of the same or similar communication task or discourse sequences by learners with the same or different people (Bygate, 2001). Research has shown that when learners repeated a speaking task they produced more accurate and natural speech and demonstrated better framing of their narratives (Bygate & Samuda,2005). When repeating presentations to different audiences, the learners integrated lexical knowledge generated from the first task, showed a wider range of lexical items and increased their accuracy in grammar and

pronunciation (Lynch & Maclean 2000, 2001). Allowing learners to repeat a task can free up valuable cognitive space for learners which would otherwise be severely challenged by the need to attend to different aspects of their performance. For example, when task repetition was combined with a form-focused activity, learners were able to direct their attention more effectively at form in the repeat performance (Hawkes, 2012).

Metacognition Enhancement

Flavell (1976) described that metacognition is an individual's ability to consider about his/her own thinking and learning. It encompasses knowledge of one's own learning (person knowledge), the nature and demands of learning tasks (task knowledge) and how to approach these tasks (strategy knowledge), and the actual use of strategies for problem-solving as well as monitoring, regulating and orchestrating thinking and learning processes. The role of metacognition in learning has been discussed extensively in educational psychology. In L2 speaking, it has been examined specifically in two areas. The first is the use of communication strategies as previously explained and the other is the development of learners' metacognition about speaking through awareness-raising and strategy-instruction activities (Goh & Burns, 2012). A recent study reported that a group of learners' metacognitive knowledge about speaking improved substantially when they were given the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) level descriptors for speaking to support their learning (Glover, 2011). The learners were also able to use the descriptors effectively for self-evaluation of their speaking development. In another study involving learners of Chinese as a second language, the learners' speaking improvement was attributed partly to the use of metacognitive reflections in an intervention programme (Tan & Tan, 2010). The learners was evaluated, monitored and planned their speaking performances in that programme. Improvements in the pronunciation of a group of EFL learners were also attributed to their engagement in metacognitive processes.

A Comprehensive and Holistic Approach for Teaching Speaking

The teaching practices for speaking do not adequately offer scaffolding processes that allow language learners to benefit more extensively from time spent in and outside the classroom. This limitation calls for an enhanced approach guided by a coherent understanding of the construct of L2 speaking. How relevant research findings can help pedagogically for speaking development with potential metacognitive language learning tasks in and outside the classroom? Such an approach addresses these ideas comprehensively and responds to learner needs holistically. Based on earlier discussions about L2 speaking, a number of implications and pedagogical principles can be drawn for such an approach. It is observed that pre-teaching of the forms and structure of language and discourse is not always effective for accurate language production. There ia a need to take a comprehensive and holistic approach for teaching speaking skill. This approach combines the strengths of direct/controlled and indirect/transfer ways of teaching speaking, and integrates them with supportive metacognitive processes to provide learners with maximum benefits for speaking development. The objective of speaking instruction is to help learners develop their fluency and accuracy like expert speakers who can convey their message clearly and effectively in socioculturally appropriate ways. Burns (1998), believed that discourse analysis and conversation analysis have prompted a renewal of the direct approach by understandings the cognitive and

learning processes in L2 speaking. An issue with speaking instruction is the transience of spoken language. Teachers seldom have a record of what their students' said, especially when they are talking in groups and the teachers have to walk around the class. More importantly, students themselves do not have a record of what they have said. This lack of permanence in learners' speech production hampers opportunities for noticing and analysis, the two important processes in learning. It is important therefore to find ways of giving transient spoken language some stability through the use of technology.

For example, students can record their speech in their smart phones for later review. The audio recordings can be uploaded to a common platform used in the school or institution. Equally important is for teachers to make the speaking process noticeable to learners by giving the learners opportunities to focus on the knowledge and language that support the skills and overcome their limitations. As video recordings are widely available nowadays on the internet, teachers can look for suitable recordings of expert speakers doing a similar task, such as giving a talk, or participating in an interview or a discussion. These can be used to show learners the way specific language and discourse items can be used to enhance effectiveness.

Teachers should also insert fruitful activities when working on pre-task planning and task repetition in the light of previous researches. These pedagogical processes are still rare in most of the speaking classrooms. Most teachers would agree that learners can benefit from getting extra time to prepare what they have to say. Preparation is believed to help them more fluent in their speech, use more appropriate vocabulary and generally become more grammatical in their production. On the contrary, the content of the speech or utterances will be expected richer because the students will have time to gather their ideas about what they want to say. This would enable learners to monitor their speech and do self-repairs where necessary to enhance the clarity of their message and the accuracy of their language. Including task repetition as a pedagogical procedure gives learners a second chance to improve their performance after the 'rehearsal' when the task was first carried out. When learners do a speaking task just once, they typically do not give a complete and polished performance and mistakes are common.

By repeating a task, they get a chance to integrate knowledge constructed in the first attempt into the repeat performance. They also get the benefit of evaluating their own performance and becoming more aware of the nature and demands of the task based on their prior experience. In most classrooms, learners do a speaking task before they move on to other language learning tasks for reading and writing. In some situations, speaking is seen as a pre-reading or pre-writing task instead of a learning task in its own right. By asking learners to repeat a task, teachers are highlighting to students that they are not just doing a speaking task but learning how to speak.

The approach presented in this article can be seen in the Teaching Speaking Cycle (TSC) by (Goh &Burns, 2012). In the TSC, learners develop their speaking through a number of activities and tasks as the teacher guides them systematically through each stage of the cycle. It engages learners, individually and with peers, through planned reflective processes, oral practice with selected types of speaking tasks, activities for noticing and analyzing language and discourse, repetition of the speaking task as well as input and feedback from teachers and peers. The seven stages in the TSC

consist specifically of the following: focusing learners' attention on speaking, providing input and/or guide planning, conducting speaking tasks, focusing on language/discourse/skills/strategies, repeating speaking tasks, directing learners' reflection on learning and facilitating feedback on learning.

Lesson-29

TEACHING LISTENING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Topic-141: The Importance of Developing L2 Listening Skills

The position of listening in second or foreign language programs has undergone a substantial change in recent years (Richards, 2005). The most fundamental change is in understanding of the role of listening in L2 acquisition. Listening had been considered a passive skill and its main purpose was to extract meaning from texts; however, listening is now also considered a skill that can support the growth of other aspects of language knowledge, such as speaking or reading speed (Chang & Millett, 2015). Some empirical studies have also shown that linguistic elements can be acquired through listening (Vidal, 2011; van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013). This change is important because to acquire a language, a learner normally learns both written and spoken forms unless the language has only one form, with some dialects. If a learner knows one language form, s/he may not learn the language as efficiently as one who knows both forms because reading the written form and listening to the spoken form are equally important input channels and they can work complimentarily. More important, students spend more time on listening than reading, speaking or writing.

When learning first language, listening skill normally precedes reading skill, therefore, for L1 learners, the listening skill is usually used to support the reading skill. However, for L2 learners, due to lack of linguistic input environment, the two skills are often taught at the same time, though some learners may develop one skill faster than the other. Normally, the reading skill is considered easier to develop than the listening skill because a reader can control more variables during the reading process; for example, reading a text at their own pace, consulting unknown words in the dictionary, and rereading the text if not comprehending. These controllable conditions while reading are not available for real-life listening, such as listening to radio broadcasting. Therefore, listeners often face more challenges than readers. Here, some features of the spoken language will first be briefly introduced, followed by a discussion of what the literature has shown about L2 listening difficulties. Based on the theoretical and empirical evidence of L2 listening difficulties, a typical or a well-designed listening lesson will be presented. Finally, some activities that learners can do outside the class to improve their listening skills are suggested.

Topic-142: The Features of Spoken Language and classroom activities

It is useful to know about some major features of a spoken language during learning or teaching. The following are some common features of spoken language (cf. Chafe, 1985):

- Spoken language is made up of different sounds. The sound is fleeting and transitory.
- Spoken language varies from person to person. When human beings speak, their accent, intonation, pitch, stress, volume and pace are varied, and they may choose different words to express the same ideas.
- When we listen, we do not hear every sound that is shown in reading because some letters may be silent in some words. For example, we do not hear the sound /h/ in hour or /gh/ in though.

- Often a foreign language learner may just hear a string of sounds linked together; for example, the phrase first of all may become 'firsdavall'. Word boundaries become indistinct due to phonological change; some sounds may be dropped or changed, and others may be added.
- Spoken language is syntactically simpler than written language and may contain incomplete sentences; idea units are shorter, and generally joined by coordinators, such as and, but, or so.
- Spoken language, particularly spontaneous speech, contains various disfluencies, such as fillers (you know, well, ok …), hesitations, false starts, and self- corrections, which give the listeners more time to think about what has just been said if listeners understand those are fillers. If listeners cannot identify them, it may cause more difficulties.
- Compared to written language, spoken language contains more colloquial expressions, slang, and nonstandard grammar, which are considered unacceptable in writing.

The features listed above are just the tendencies of spoken language that listeners should be aware of. However, from a linguistic perspective, spoken and written language does not have clear cut divisions (Biber 1988). Also, language use depends very much on the situation in which it takes place, whether the speaker is educated or not, or whether the speech is prepared in advance. All of these variables pose significant challenges to L2 listeners. These factors need to be kept in mind while designing classroom activities.

Topic-143: Factors Affecting L2 Comprehension

Factors affecting listening difficulties have been widely discussed both in first language (Wolvin & Coakely, 1996) and second language (L2) listening (Anderson & Lynch,1988 ; Boyle, 1984 ; Goh 1999 , 2000 ; Hasan, 2000 ; Huang, 2004 ; Miller, 2009 ; Rost, 2005). Theoretically, comprehension takes place when listeners can infer what is said based on their linguistic background and contextual knowledge (Buck, 1995, 2001). However, unlike written language, which tends to be more stable, variations in spoken linguistic features may occur from person to person or region to region (Biber, 1988; Chafe,1985). Accordingly, listeners face a number of challenges, e.g., fast speech rates, unfamiliar accents, transient information, or colloquial usages and slang, which seldom appear in formal L2 textbooks.

Samuels (1984) classified L1 listening comprehension difficulties into external, medium, and internal factors. External factors refer to the learning environment (Rost 1994, 2005), practice opportunities (Boyle, 1984), and speaker factors, such as speech rate, accent and pronunciation, and effectiveness of a speaker's talk (Samuels, 1984). Medium factors relate to text type, task type and the context in which listening takes place (Anderson& Lynch, 1988). Internal factors are about listeners themselves, for example, their listening proficiency, motivation, background knowledge, physical condition.

External Factors: The Opportunities of Input and Speaker Factors

The Opportunities of Input: Two most important external factors are opportunities of input and speaker factors. Understanding our first language requires considerable cognitive development and constant exposure to different contexts over a period of several years; learning to listen in a foreign

language is even more difficult because there are more challenges to confront. In a foreign language setting, communication is usually dominated by learners' first language, thus exposure to the target language may be very limited, often confined to the classroom. In a comparison of L1 and L2 listening, Rost (1994) considered motive, transfer from the native language, the opportunities for input, and the age of learning a second language, are the major factors making L2 listening more difficult than L1 listening. Among these four factors, the opportunities for input seem to affect listening because foreign language learners are deprived of ongoing opportunities to develop their listening ability. Due to the lack of exposure to spoken language, some learners try to develop social strategies like making friends with native speakers of the target language to get right kind of input. Significant development in L2 requires a great amount of listening, certainly in the order of hundreds of hours per year (Rost, 2005). Rost's claims are supported in a survey by Boyle (1984) of 30 Chinese teachers and 60 students in Hong Kong, who found that both teachers and students considered practice opportunities to be the most important factors in their own listening comprehension.

The speaker factors: The two most salient and most heard speaker factor complaints involve speech rates and pronunciation or accent. The normal English speech rate is between 150 and 180 words per minute (Buck, 2001). Fast speech rates usually result in a significant reduction in comprehension (Griffiths, 1990; Renandya & Farrell 2011); however, conflicting evidence was also reported by (Derwing & Munro, 2001), and (Jensen &Vinther, 2003), whose studies did not support the proposal that slower speech enhanced listening comprehension. A possible reason for the inconsistent results could be that different text types have different 'normal' rates (Tauroza & Allison, 1990), while another reason could relate to participants' language proficiency. The participants in the study by Derwing and Munro (2001) were more advanced ESL learners, for whom speech rate might not be a key factor. Another reason could be due to participants' different language systems. Participants from Indo-European languages may used to English speech rates than non-European language participants. However, Griffiths (1990) found that low intermediate level students performed best when the speech rate was delivered at approximately 127 words per minute. Therefore, in teaching L2 listening, the teacher may have to consider their students' language background and start with a speed that most students are comfortable with.

In terms of intelligibility of pronunciation or accent, a number of studies have shown that familiarity with a speaker's accent is the most important factor in comprehension (Major et al., 2005; Matsuura, 2007; Scales et al., 2006). Some studies show that ESL learners comprehended better when the language was spoken in a local accent (Ekong, 1982). Other researchers considered that a standard accent in English is more easily understood than English spoken with a heavy local accent when speech rates are the same (Ortmeyer & Boyle, 1985). According to Tauroza and Luk (1997), accent or pronunciation can be a "temporary" variable in listening comprehension; meaning that once listeners are used to listening to a different accent or blended sounds, pronunciation is no longer a problem. Therefore, if a learner is exposed often to a variety of spoken English, it may not take long for him/her to become familiar with it. The advancement of modern technology and the popularity of internet can be used to overcome this difficulty, as learners can access the internet to listen to a variety of talks featuring very different accents from all over the world, i.e., TED talks and BBC's learning English.

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Medium Factors: Text, Task, and Context

Anderson and Lynch (1988) note that although there are some medium factors influencing the degree of listening difficulty, they all fall into three categories: text type, task type, and the context in which listening takes place.

Text type: If the text contains only necessary information, it will be easier than one containing redundant facts. Texts involving fewer individuals and objects, and those which are clearly distinct from one another are also easier to understand. Furthermore, texts containing simple spatial relations and with the order of telling matching the order of events are easier to understand as well. Text types can also refer to a conversation type or monologue type, or whether these texts are scripted, semi-scripted, or spontaneous. The study by Shohamy and Inbar (1991) found that lecture and dialogue were significantly easier to understand than a monologue.

Contradictory results were found in studies by Read (2002), which showed that participants performed significantly better on the lecture type or monologue type. One possible reason could be that the texts used in these studies were not comparable or that a single factor is not sufficient to determine the level of difficulty of a text.

Task type: Different tasks may present the listener with varying degrees of complexity. Anderson and Lynch (1988) said that summarizing a message may be difficult because it is like an evaluative task, listeners have to weigh what is important, and what should be excluded from the summary. On the other hand, tasks requiring an immediate response, such as matching pictures or multiple- choice, tend to be easier than delayed recall tasks such as summarization.

Research focusing on the effect of task characteristics on listening comprehension (Freedle & Kostin, 1999; Jensen & Hansen,1995; Shohamy & Inbar, 1991) has found that test-takers performed better on local items than on global ones. Multiple-choice (MC) tasks are easier than other question types that require learners to construct correct answers; MC tasks can be rather difficult for less advanced students if they lack the reading skills to understand the test questions (Chang & Read 2013).

Listening context: Listening context is embedded in the task type and involves three factors: ways of minimizing the information processing load, the provision of visual support, and group work. The processing load is the amount of information that has to be processed and the amount of time available to finish the task.

In this regard, Anderson and Lynch (1988) note that adequate pre-listening activities can facilitate the task by making clear the listening purpose and the specific details. Group work in the classroom can increase interaction and cooperation among students, which is believed to be effective in enhancing listening comprehension.

Finally, the provision of visual support can assist the listener to interpret the information, or

when the environment contains objects to which the listener can refer, comprehension is facilitated. A number of empirical studies have shown that visual support presented either as still pictures or full-motion videos can make a difference to listening comprehension (Chang & Read, 2006, 2007; Herron et al., 1995).

Internal Factors: Language Proficiency and Background Knowledge

In the previous section, we found that some research results concerning certain factors, e.g., text type on comprehension, were inconsistent, which may imply that one variable does not affect the difficulty of listening comprehension in isolation. Other variables, such as listeners' language proficiency, may come into play. Now, let us turn to some internal factors, which are variables relevant to listeners themselves (for examples see Samuels 1984), such as language competence (being able to automatically decode linguistic elements or having the ability to comprehend concepts) or emotional and physical issues (e.g., anxiety, nervousness, being tired or hungry), and above all, listeners' topical/background knowledge and strategy use. The former relates to a particular area, such as topical knowledge of a discipline or background knowledge of a particular culture. The general findings indicate that topic familiarity has a significant effect on listening comprehension (Chang &Read, 2006; Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Jensen & Hansen, 1995; Long, 1990; Markham & Latham, 1987; Schmidt &Rinehart,1994). The strategy use concerns whether listeners are able to apply listening strategies that suit their language proficiency and listening purposes. For example, the most frequently mentioned metacognitive pedagogical model proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) aims to help L2 listener to become self-regulated listeners.

Topic-144: Format of a Well-Designed Listening Lesson

In the above two sections, we have seen some unique features of spoken language, and found varying listening difficulties in the empirical studies. As previously mentioned, good listening skills can accelerate language acquisition. Therefore, an important task for language teachers is how to teach L2 listening efficiently? A theory-based listening lesson involved three stages: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening.

The Pre-listening Phase

The pre-listening phase is a particularly important stage for beginner listeners. If a teacher can prepare students well before a listening task begins, then the students are more likely to experience feelings of success. The L2 teacher can use one or more of the following pre-listening activities.

1. Establish the purposes for listening activities: Conventionally, the teaching of L2 listening is to extract meaning from texts. Once meaning has been identified, then the task is over. This is also what L2 listeners usually consider listening to be. However, the teacher should tell students that listening is another way of facilitating language learning. Before a task begins, the teacher can tell the students the purpose of a listening activity: to comprehend a text only, to understand a joke, to complete a task, to learn a concept, or to learn a term that is explained by the input text. By telling students the purpose of a listening task, students then can listen selectively rather

than completely.

2. Activate necessary background knowledge for comprehending the text that the students are going to listen to: Beginner learners usually have limited working memory because they have to decode the language heard and at the same time comprehend the message. Having familiar topical background knowledge can guide listeners to directly focus on the relevant information rather than listening for everything to guess the topic. Activating background knowledge can be done in several ways.

- Class discussion: In a well-planned listening lesson, the teacher can ask students to search for relevant knowledge before they come to the listening class, then students can share what they know about the topic. If students can access the Internet during the lesson, the teacher can allow students a few minutes to search for background knowledge of the topic they are going to hear.
- Pre-reading a short text written in L2 or L1 (Chang & Read, 2007). A short written text presented through PowerPoint is an efficient way to activate students' topical background knowledge.
- Present pictures or photos to students and allow a few minutes for discussion (Chang & Read, 2007). Sometimes a pleasant, funny picture relating to the text can quickly arouse students' interest and draw their attention to the listening task
- Previewing task questions was found to be another way of providing background knowledge (Chang & Read, 2006). The teacher can ask relevant questions or show students task questions or activities. This is the most straightforward and time-saving pre-listening activity.

3. Provide linguistic support: Linguistic support involves pre-teaching key words, unknown words, phrases or grammatical structures. Vocabulary knowledge is one of the major concerns for L2 learners across all levels of proficiency because unfamiliar words may lead to listening comprehension breakdown or misunderstanding; therefore, it is always very useful to pre-teach some words that students may not know before listening. Linguistic support can be done in many ways.

- Ask students to preview a list of words, in particular key words that students will hear in the task. The target words can be presented on the board or through PowerPoint. While previewing the word list, the students have to know not only the meaning but also its spoken form. It is useful to ask students to read the list of words chorally. While doing so, the teacher can easily detect whether students have any difficulties in recognizing the aural form of the target words.
- Pointing out the pronunciation of some words that may not be familiar to students, in particular proper nouns, such as Worcester, or Gloucester, or words containing mute letters, like wrist, or honor.
- Pre-teaching phrases or collocations that do not have transparent meaning, for example, the 'apple of my eye.' Students may know apple and eye, but when the two words are put together, the meaning changes.
- Some grammatical structures may be confusing and need to be pointed out.

4. Set up a listening goal for the comprehension level. For example, tell your students how many times they will listen to texts, so that students can prepare how they are going to listen and what strategies they can use. Thus, if they are allowed to listen three times, then tell them to listen for the gist of the text at first listening, then for more details at the second listening, and by the third listening the students should be able to explain their listening difficulties.

The While-listening Phase

1. Do simple easy tasks that require little writing or reading: While students are listening, they should do tasks related to the information they hear from the text. These tasks can involve sequencing pictures according to the input text, filling out a form, or labeling, all of which require little reading or writing. Doing such tasks can also reduce the load of students' working memory and enhance concentration.

2. Do graded tasks: Most listening texts used in the L2 classroom are pre-recorded audio recordings and can be played repeatedly. Each time teachers can ask students to focus on different aspects of the information. For example:

- 1st listening: Ask students to listen for the gist of the input, the tone of the speakers (happy, sad or angry), the place where the conversation or talk takes place, or the relationship between or among the speakers if there are two or more in number.
- 2nd listening: Ask students to listen for more details, such as the time and the date, and to complete the while listening task (e.g., sequencing pictures).
- 3rd listening: Students normally are not interested in listening more than twice. If students are willing to listen third time, then ask them to focus on areas that are unclear to them.

The Post-listening Phase

The post-listening phase can serve some useful purposes: to confirm comprehension, clarify uncertain points, and reflect on listening problems. If the purpose of the listening is to acquire some linguistic elements, then post-listening activities can direct students' attention to the language of texts with so-called acquisition-focused activities (Richards & Burns, 2012). Post-listening activities can also serve as remedial work on learners' problems (Field, 2008). These can include:

1. Reviewing the transcript of the recording by reading while listening or reading alone. Reading the transcript of the recording allows students to confirm their comprehension or to clarify unknown points from the previous stage.

2. Evaluating the process of the while-listening phase. Students can reflect on the difficulties they encountered (if any) during the listening stage by evaluating whether the difficulties come from personal factors, e.g., cannot concentrate, forget what was heard; or from external factors, such as fast speech rate, an unfamiliar accent; or medium factors, for example, the text being too difficult, or the task questions too tedious. Through the reflection, students may discuss ways to

deal with these difficulties in the future.

A Word of Caution

Although a number of suggestions have been made about formats of listening lessons, this does not mean that all the suggestions in each phase have to be included in every lesson. Language teachers must be cautious not to spend too much time on the pre-listening stage and so sacrifice opportunities for listening or for remedial work in the post-listening stage. Therefore, language teachers should balance their time in each phase. I would suggest the following proportions of time in each phase for low level students.

Topic-145: Suggested Approaches to Listening Practice

A number of listening difficulties have been revealed by researchers and many suggestions have been made to improve listening instruction efficiency; however, simply relying on teachers' instruction in the classroom is not sufficient to improve one's listening competence. Therefore, teachers should give their students guidance on doing listening practice outside class. Three approaches: narrow listening, repeated listening, and reading while listening, are suggested.

Narrow Listening

Narrow listening originates from narrow reading, and has been found to be helpful for language acquisition (Krashen, 1981). Narrow listening means that learners focus on one topic, e.g., weather or sports, or one author, like Conan Doyle or Agatha Christie, and do a great deal of listening in the area they choose. This approach is suitable for learners across all proficiencies and is definitely interesting for the L2 learner because the learners themselves choose the topics. In 1996, Krashen provided some guidelines for doing narrow listening; however, over the years, advancing technology has made this learning approach much easier than previously.

Nowadays, many original classics have been adapted and graded to help L2 learners expose themselves to reading literature in the target language as early as possible. Some websites, for example, https://www.ted.com, provide all sorts of modern topics for learners, like technology, education, entertainment, and so forth.

Not only can learners select the kinds of material they want to view and to which they want to listen, but they can also determine the duration of these videos that they want to watch.

Repeated Listening

Repeated listening also derives from an L1 source, repeated reading. Repeated reading is one of the most common methods for developing reading fluency. It was developed by Samuels (1979) as a pedagogical application to use with L1 readers who have reading difficulties. The theory underlying repeated reading is to make word decoding more efficient through repeatedly practicing the same text. It is assumed that if much attention is paid to decoding word meanings, then little time is left

for comprehending text meaning. Repeated reading is used as a means to assist unskilled readers to practice a very basic skill (word recognition) and help them move from the non-accurate to the accurate stage and eventually to the automatic stage (Samuels, 1979). By the same token, if a listener listens to a text many times, then she or he may require very little time for word recognition, so more time can be allotted to comprehending the message.

However, in a difference with L1 repeated reading, repeated listening in L2 learning has been commonly used as a strategy to clarify what is heard (Chang & Read 2006, 2007). It has not been used to develop listening fluency, and although up to the present there has not been any empirical study on repeated listening, it has been suggested by Nation and Newton (2009) as one activity for developing fluency.
The following are some tips on how to adopt repeated listening in L2 learning.

Shorter texts are more suitable than longer ones for practicing repeated listening. In the language classroom, learners can choose passages from their course books and listen to them repeatedly. The original speech rates of the passages are normally slower. I would suggest the learners download the software "AUDACITY." The software is free and can help listeners adjust the speech rate. For example, at the 1st listening, the speech rate can be set at 100 words per minute (wpm). At the second time, the rate can be increased to 110 wpm. At the third listening, the learner can increase the speed to 120 wpm. 1 When a learner becomes used to faster speech rates, she or he can select higher level texts, which are also spoken at faster rates.

Despite repeated listening being efficient in improving reading fluency, it has to be used cautiously as this activity can be rather boring for some students unless they have a strong belief that this approach is good for them and are willing to persist in doing it.

Simultaneous Reading and Listening

Simultaneous reading and listening is also termed "reading while listening" if the focus is on listening. Reading and listening at the same time can help beginner learners to develop awareness of form-meaning relationships and word recognition skills. However, it has to be noted that the post-listening phase in a listening lesson also involves reading while listening, but their purposes are different. Reading while listening at the post-listening stage is to confirm or clarify what one hears during the listening stage. Reading while listening after class is to enjoy reading and listening to all sorts of materials. Some empirical studies have also found that reading while listening improves students' comprehension (Chang, 2009; Chang & Millett, 2014).

Students also reported that the sound effects made them concentrate better and that it often brought a smile to their face. Most graded readers are now accompanied with audio recordings. The recording quality is very sophisticated, and some narrators use dramatic voices to read the stories, while some recordings also include sound effects and background music, which truly make the audio recordings very interesting and motivates students to listen. Apart from graded readers, many online materials also involve both written and spoken texts, for example BBC's learning English website and TED talks. The learner can listen first and then read afterwards, or read and listen at the

same time. Some caution is necessary while doing reading and listening activities. Some learners may over rely on the printed texts and ignore the aural input. If so, the effect of reading and listening may not produce the best results for improving listening competence. Although the best way is to end the listening practice cycle with listening only if the purpose is to enhance listening competence,, as it is an after class learning activity, it is suggested that students sit relax while reading and listening to anything they like, if they wish to improve that respective skill.

Lesson-30

TEACHING READING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Topic-146: Introduction to Teaching Reading in a Language Classroom

Reading is a commonly offered in many second and foreign language curricula for different age groups, yet it is not a skill easily acquired by the learners (Nuttall, 1996). Keeping in mind the significance of reading and viewing in real life and in the curriculum for assisting the development of other language skills (speaking, listening, vocabulary, and writing), teachers' instruction is crucial for students' success. In traditional reading lessons, teachers seldom consider blending reading into viewing and viewing into reading to make the lesson dynamic and interactive. The researches provide framework for teachers to develop not only students' language skills but also strategies for further skill development through reading and viewing. Such a framework takes an inclusive approach to instructional design, which brings forth the theoretical perspectives on such instruction as well as practical strategies for teaching reading and viewing. Strategies such as activating schemata, previewing, predicting, skimming, scanning, reading and linking, viewing and connecting, using packaged instructional procedures such as D-R-T-A, K-W-L, among others, which are the bases of classroom instruction, are elaborated with reference to reading and viewing activities as an organic combination of extensive and intensive reading and viewing.

Reading and viewing as language skills are multifaceted processes and involve multiple aspects related to the ultimate goal of comprehension. Reading is usually understood as a process of deriving meaning from the printed words, sentences, paragraphs, or a whole text. Similar to reading in terms of the goals students have, viewing, as a processing skill, can be defined as the viewer's effort for meaning making, but the media through which the act of meaning is actualized are not print-based. As a comprehension process and an act of understanding what is being seen, viewing usually involves the use of the computer or its equivalent such as smart phone or other digital tools for acquiring and processing information presented to the viewer in multi-modalities (concurrent appearance of video, audio, and images mingled with words, sentences or paragraphs) requiring multiliteracy skills. In many ways, readers and viewers have to be equipped with the essential vocabulary. In the case of viewing, viewers need to have developed a listening ability to have a successful viewing experience despite the images and sound effects offering further stimuli that might facilitate or disrupt comprehension.

Additionally, both readers and viewers need to be strategic in order to receive and understand the information as the reading and viewing processes proceed (Stoller & Komiyama, 2013). What equally significant is that readers' and viewers' processing strategies are guided by their rich metacognitive knowledge (Zhang, 2010), utilized for processing information in print or on the screen of a computer, a smart phone, other digital devices, or through various available electronic resources such as the Internet.

If the purposes of reading and viewing are primarily for readers and viewers to derive meanings

out of the process, then they are better defined in terms of how much comprehension is achieved. Accordingly, meaning making becomes an immediately pertinent pursuit. Understandably, the reading or viewing act itself for meaning-making is determined and affected by at least three important variables:

- text (including multimodal texts, images, visuals and sounds) characteristics;
- reader/viewer characteristics; and
- social context.

The complexity increases when contemporary approaches to reading and viewing examine the phenomena from sociological and cultural perspectives, where critical reading and viewing become an essential part, Given the popularity of multimodal texts, our knowledge of and experience with texts expressed in different modes brought to bear and color what we take from any new text, although we may not be consciously aware of what we automatically do in approaching and comprehending these texts. Readers and viewers in today's world need to know how to access and understand the multiplicity of reading and viewing that take place either in print or in multimedia environments. Some important issues about how reading and viewing can and should be taught arise from these perspectives (Grabe, 2009). In order to explain these points, four important views on reading (and by inferencing, viewing), are popular as 'models of reading,' are taken into consideration to organize activities in the classroom.

Topic-147: Views on Reading and Viewing: Classroom Activities

Reading as a field of academic and educational inquiry in cognitive psychology and educational psychology has different research foci. It is noted that during the era of behaviorism, especially in the USA and Canada, reading was once banned as a research agenda for psychologists. One of the main reasons is that the reading process was too mentalistic to be accurately measured by any psychometric system. Emanating from this behaviorist doctrine anything mentalistic in nature had to be clearly outlawed by the academia. Therefore, theoretical models thrived after the ban disappeared with the gradual unpopularity of behaviorism in mainstream psychology. There are three main groups of models, Top-Down, Bottom-Up, and Interactive models. Our understanding of viewing is greatly influenced by our understanding of reading.

Top-Down and Bottom-Up Models

Contemporary cognitive psychologists examine how reading takes place in the human brain, the problem-solving nature of reading, and the process of memory and recall of text. Research along this line can be on minute processes such as lexical access, storage and retrieval, namely, how individual words are learned, remembered and later accessed for usage in either receptive (listening, viewing, and reading) or productive (speaking and writing) language-use activities.

Reading can be regarded as a process where the centrality of meaning is almost axiomatic (Goodman, 1996), or as a process where the primacy of decoding is emphasized (Samuels, 2004; Stanovich, 2000). Viewing can also be theorized in a similar fashion. The former is known as taking

a 'top-down' approach, where the meaning-driven or reader-driven nature is explicit. As Goodman (1996) states, reading is 'a psycholinguistic guessing game,' where much of the meaning resides in the reader, who needs to interpret the text to derive it. He argues that readers' top-down processing is essential to successful reading, and that in many instances, reading involves readers' existing schematic knowledge. Such a view is also widely shared among L2 researchers on bilingual readers because there are non-decoding factors that contribute to reading success (Yorio, 1971; Zhang, Gu, and Hu, 2008).

'Bottom-up' models view reading as a process in which the reader has to go through the text in a more linear fashion, starting from the smallest unit in print. Frequently, such a process is mainly text-bound, without any opportunity of the reader actively interpreting the text meaning. In this view, meaning is self-evident as soon as you are able to decode all the words. Bottom-up and top-down models of reading are two polarities of the reading models mentioned above (Ehrich et al., 2013).

Interactive Models

In his 'interactive-compensatory model' Stanovich (2000) argues that, although top-down processing is necessary, bottom-up processes play a significant role in reading, especially for beginning readers. In fact, both processes are very important in learning how to read. He points the reason why poor readers do not guess as accurately as skilled readers. The skilled readers possess accurate and automatic perceptual abilities in word recognition that they do not usually need to guess; whereas poor readers usually guess, and their guessing is frequently short circuited by their limited linguistic proficiency. Following this line of explication, one can see clearly that learning to read becomes a matter of developing highly accurate decoding skills. This means that there is a 'short-circuit' effect for L2 learners whose linguistic proficiency is too low to make efficient reading activity (Yorio, 1971). Interactive models of reading in their broad sense have also been advocated for L2 reading instruction (Carrell, 1988) despite controversies over their practicality and their technical nature that detaches them from practical applications.

Related to the reading models discussed above, the central issue of whether reading in a foreign or second language is a problem or language problem has been extensively debated and researched (Alderson, 1984; Carrell, 1991). Due to the fact that viewing is an area of academic and pedagogical inquiry, there is little discussion based on empirical evidence as L2 learning is concerned.

So the question of whether reading in a second/foreign language is a reading problem or a language problem is now clear that reading in a second/foreign language is not only a language/linguistic problem but also a reading problem, i.e., how to read is also essential for efficient L2 reading comprehension (Grabe & Stoller 2011). Viewing can also be comfortably understood in the similar way.

Use of Reading/Viewing Strategies

Strategic reading comprehension is more often associated with top-down and interactive reading models, where readers are expected to make use of their knowledge base. Pressley and Afflerbach

(1995) define reading strategies as readers' deliberate and effortful mental or physical problem-solving moves in approaching a text for comprehension. In connection with the above positions, researchers have investigated readers' use of strategies in both L1 and L2 reading. As part of the larger field of language learning strategy research, reading strategies have been given attention by L2 learning strategy researchers right from the outset, but extensive investigations into reading strategies among L2 scholars started approximately three decades ago (Block, 1986 ; Zhang, 2001).

Sociocultural Perspectives on Reading and Viewing

Sociocultural perspectives on reading have become prominent in recent times. Neither cognitive nor educational psychologists have given sufficient attention to them. It is a perennial concern for many researchers and educators to go beyond understanding reading and viewing purely as cognitive mechanisms. They stress the importance of sociocultural contexts in which reading and viewing take place and learners' live experiences might possibly shape their interpretation or comprehension of texts (written texts or multimodal texts). The processes of reading and related factors such as reader variability need to be contextually understood as well. So, learning as 'situated' acts characterizes both the reading/viewing process and the reading/viewing product.

According to Heath (1996) reading and viewing are multi-literacy practices and as 'literacy events' carry social meanings that causes human development and social change. The critical reading and viewing pedagogy has a similar concern. The reason, why sociocultural perspectives have direct implications for critical pedagogy, is their relationships with real issues that learners face in life outside the classrooms. Critical pedagogy invites learners to approach the learning materials with an attitude to question the text and its author.

Teachers of critical pedagogy usually ask learners to consider the text (print or digital) with reference to author, purpose of writing the text, the intended audiences, the context, promotion of cultural practices. . Critical reading and viewing take place when students are engaged intensively with the text, including the visuals, sounds, images, among others. They read between the lines and view for implied meanings, analyze underlying meanings of visual images, offer interpretive judgments, question and evaluate reading material, including the writers' or producers' intentions and arguments. The key questions in the reading and viewing classroom are: To what extent are students exposed to such skills in an L2 English classroom? How can L2 English teachers ensure that students are equipped with the necessary skills to be critical readers and viewers? The teachers are advised to raise students' awareness of the social issues presented in the text and read the text with a critical eye. As Luke and Freebody (1997) argue, no text is in reality neutral.

Different ideologies and political motifs are the driving force for the writer to compose, so readers and viewers are not exempted from being subjected to a particular condition (Gee, 2004). Dialogic interactions with students are recommended as classroom procedures so that students can become critical readers and viewers who do not accept the ideas as they are presented. This pedagogical orientation leads to a dynamic classroom with maximum interaction (Zhang & Zhang, 2013).

Topic-148: Factors Affecting Reading and Viewing Success in a Language Classroom

Three important variables affect reading or viewing in both L1 and L2 contexts are: (1) text characteristics; (2) reader/viewer characteristics; and (3) social context. Text characteristics vary according to the different text types with which a reader is familiar. If the text is a narrative, its specific characteristics include organizational structure (e.g., orientation, events description ,complication, resolution, conclusion and linguistic features (dominant past tense use, descriptive adjectives, action verbs, sentence structures that are different from those used in argumentative texts, use of indirect and direct speech). Expository text has plainly dissimilar structure as compare to the narrative text. Its major exposition moves are compare-contrast, problem-solution, listing, cause-effect, and so on.

Different readers and viewers approach the same text in different ways due to diverse metacognition, repertoires of reading/viewing strategies, lived experiences, social and world knowledge, linguistic proficiency, reading competencies, gender, and attitudes toward reading/viewing and socioeconomic backgrounds. Because of the different reader/viewer characteristics, teachers' instruction in reading/viewing needs to take into account such diversity when designing lesson plans.

The studies highlighted that different sociocultural contexts in which students learn to read and view and read or view to learn require different reading/viewing strategies. Readers and viewers derive the meanings on the basis of their cultural models and knowledge. The sociocultural schemata they bring into the reading and viewing event can be strengthened if properly utilized.

Topic-149: Effective Instruction in Reading and Viewing: A Language Classroom

Teachers' instructional practices have an impact on their students' reading and viewing processes. Therefore, teachers' explicit delivery with sufficient scaffolding makes a difference in helping students to read/view and in reading to learn/view in both L1 and L2. Educational psychologists devise approaches and tried them in classrooms to examine the effects of various pedagogical interventions with the help of control and experimental groups (Zhang, 2008). It helps learners make faster progress in learning especially in the case of reading and viewing, improving comprehension skills and gaining scores. Much progress has been made in research regarding instruction in L1and L2 reading (Pressley, 2007; Bernhardt, 2005; Debarera et al., 2014), but relatively little about instruction in viewing.

Research-Informed Pedagogical Recommendations

Strategies-based reading instruction has been the major trend in the educational psychology literature. The field of L2 reading has also followed a similar trajectory since Carrell et al.'s (1998) proposal for explicitly teaching reading strategies to L2 readers. Social constructivism has been incorporated into this pedagogical innovation in L2 reading (Zhang, 2008). Social constructivists

argue that in the learning process meaning is constructed through dialogue and learning takes place at a level beyond the current competence of the learner, i.e., within her/his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) through the co-construction of knowledge (Vygotsky, 1986). Dialogic learning is crucial to success in reading, as is the case of instruction in viewing.

Topic-150: Teaching Reading and Viewing Inside and Outside the Classroom

Developing Metacognitively-Strong Readers and Viewers

The self-regulated learning (SRL), has become an accepted pedagogical approach to SBI in reading/viewing on the basis of learners' knowledge, experiences, and strategies, metacognitive instruction. In North America and other parts of the world this approach is highly advocated in L2 reading for specific educational goals, classroom procedures, and assessment (Greene & Azevedo 2007). As an umbrella term referring to both the metacognitive and cognitive aspects of problem-solving in reading comprehension, SRL regards two main domains of human cognition. The first one is about learners' personal beliefs, including learners' self-efficacy, task value, and motivation, the prerequisites to develop self-regulation. The second one is a cluster of variables that includes learners' goal-setting, strategy selection, strategy use and monitoring, self-evaluation of the progress in reaching the target goals, and the success of strategy choice, use and monitoring. Reading researchers and educators both are interested in investigating learners' successes or failures through the lens of SRL. It is anticipated that scholarly work will also be devoted to investigating successes or failures in students' viewing.

A Proposed Pedagogical Cycle for Teaching Reading and Viewing

Modern technologies and reading have been connected more closely in recent times. As a result, there is a need developing highly competent skills and strategies to deal with texts that the reader or viewer encounters in daily experiences. For example, knowing how to view a media text on the CD-ROM, VCD, DVD, MP3/MP4, iPhone, iPad, Podcast, and other applications is just an illustration of such a literacy competence.

The concept of reading and literacy is no longer confined to the conventional notion of reading printed texts and writing with a pen or pencil on paper. The Internet Knowledge is essential to understand the highly frequent nature of intertexuality representations in digital texts, where a word or a sentence is linked to another meaning that is hosted on a separate website of the Internet with rich meaningful transactions. The practice of intertextuality of multidimensionality and multimodality is a generic feature, presented with sound, pictorial images, video clips, animations, and the related multi-layered links, with captions or dubbing in words and sentences. This practice of relative modernity and novelty in text presentation/representation and its ever-changing nature are seldom found in conventional printed materials.

In educational contexts, the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in meaning conveyances challenge the educators and teachers to learn new skills and technologies to keep updated with the time. This happens not only in developed countries such as Australia, Canada,

New Zealand, Singapore, USA, UK, but also in China, India, Mexico, South Africa, and many other Asian, American, and African countries. Teachers need to understand how the reader approaches texts of various forms due to the multimodality features of texts (Zhang, 2016). This means that the reader/ viewer need to develop strategies for understanding multimodal texts and using such multiliterate skills for his/her own benefit. Approaches to teaching reading and viewing are dependent upon students, materials, and contexts.

A reading and/or viewing lesson is comprised of two levels serving its purposes. Briefly, the focus of teaching can be meaning-driven for comprehension or acquisition-driven for language acquisition. In a typical meaning-focused reading and viewing lesson, the teacher wants to design the lesson in such a way that there is a progression from micro-level comprehension to macro-level comprehension or an opposite approach can be taken. Either way allows the teacher to focus on meaning and comprehension, without the teacher having to deviate from textbooks if they are institutionally prescribed.

In a typical language acquisition-focused reading or viewing lesson, the teacher might want to place an emphasis on an intensive study of a text (Nuttall 1996). Teaching activities can range from word recognition practice, syntactic parsing practice (e.g., grammatical analysis of words and sentences), vocabulary/word study, paraphrasing, and translation practice, with an overall aim of further improving linguistic proficiency to get ready for more competent reading comprehension. Such 'lower-level' processes are the necessary conditions for successful reading and viewing comprehension.

Teaching Reading and Viewing in the Classroom

Many useful strategies have been informed by researches and successfully used in the reading classroom (Grabe 2009). Some them are more useful in the pre-reading/viewing stage; some are more relevant to the during-reading and viewing stage; and others are more suitable for post-reading/viewing stage. Teachers are encouraged to organize their teaching by engaging students to approach texts with reference to this non-exhaustive list of strategies of teaching reading and viewing.

As a typical procedure, teachers usually distribute the chart to each student, clearly indicating the three columns with the three letters, K, W, and L. Students are well informed of the purpose of this chart. Once students get the text to be read, the teacher's teaching activity can proceed from K (what I already know), which typically serves as a pre-reading activity, leading to generating many useful ideas, vocabulary items, and key issues that students might have already known. Then the teacher moves on to the next stage, W (what I want to know). Students can be encouraged to use a variety of reading and viewing strategies (e.g., note-taking, summarizing, reading and viewing and connecting, monitoring comprehension). Such activity can take different forms, either individually, in pairs, or in groups. Students are given opportunities for anticipating and predicting what is to appear in the text based on the topic of the text they already know. When expressing anticipations, students are expected to justify the ideas or vocabulary items that they think they are going to learn from the text. Such preparation for tackling the text is equivalent to activating students' schema

knowledge to get them ready for the reading task lying ahead. Students then are allowed enough time to finish reading the text. The next immediate step is naturally L (what is learned).

More often, individual reading is more productive due to the preparation provided in the K and W stages. Any other activity to finish off the lesson works perfectly well for consolidating the strategies used and the comprehension activity just completed. What needs to be pointed out is that the K-W-L chart is not only useful when teaching student expository texts, it is also useful for teaching narrative texts as well as content-area knowledge.

Lesson-31

TEACHING WRITING IN A LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Topic-151: Introduction to Teaching Writing in a Language Classroom

This is not surprising that many pre-service teachers are trained as English Language teachers, rather than writing teachers (Cheung, 2011; Lee, 2008). Most of the teachers learn how to teach writing through imitating their writing teachers, or through senior colleagues at workplaces. It is beneficial for teachers to have a systematic understanding of different approaches to teach academic writing. There have been paradigm shifts in approaches for teaching academic writing over the last few decades (Paltridge et al., 2009). From the mid-1940s to mid-1960s, controlled composition was widely practiced in writing classes. Such teaching approach aims to improve the students' written work's accuracy, based on behaviorist view that repetition and imitation will lead to habit formation (writing grammatically correct sentences). An example of controlled composition is to give sample sentences of chosen structure, and then students are asked to write few more sentences following that pattern. Later in the mid-1960s, English Language teachers realized that students needed to focus not only on grammatical accuracy of the sentences they produced, but also the functions of writing. Thus, teachers adopted a rhetorical function approach where they shifted the teaching focus from sentence level accuracy to a discourse level with the purposes of writing such as description, comparison, and contrast. Since 1970s, the process approach to writing has gained popularity. Instead of focusing primarily on the form/correctness of the writing, teachers now encourage students to pay attention to macro-level communicative purposes. The aim of the process approach is to let the students' ideas decide the form of a piece of writing (Silva, 1990). Another approach to writing instruction was introduced to help students acquire the mastery in order to succeed in writing about specific topics. Under this genre approach, through reading model texts from a subject area and guided practice, students master the language, text structure, and discourse practices for specific kinds of communication. We should note that understanding the genre approach depends on genre traditions, such as English for Specific Purposes (UK), New Rhetoric (USA), and Systemic Functional Linguistics (Australia). These three genre traditions differ in both form and function (Hyon.1996).

Despite the variety of writing approaches that teachers have developed and adopted in their classrooms, a common underlying objective is to make sure that students recognize what they write in order to accomplish deliberate functions. A practical approach to teaching writing manifests a socio-cognitive pedagogy that explicitly trains students in thinking processes that are conducive to develop and express idea considering their audiences.

Second Language Writing

What makes an essay successful? In a study on ways to write good essays, Crossley et al. (2014) suggest that "Successful writing cannot be defined simply through a single set of predefined features. Rather, successful writing has multiple profiles". Specifically, some successful writers compose longer essays with more infrequent vocabulary and fewer grammatical, spelling, and punctuation errors. Other successful writers produce essays with more syntactically complex

sentences and with a better control of text cohesion (Crossley et al., 2014). Besides a basic goal to write texts accurately, free of grammatical errors, student should consider stylistic factors such as choice of words, sentence complexity, text cohesion, and length of their essays. In fact, achieving good composition is a complex and difficult task for both native and non-native speakers of English. If one writes in one's own language, discipline is requisite for precision and form. Widdowson (1983) pointed out to achieve the mastery of words even if one is familiar with these words.

In order to teach writing effectively, teachers must be explicitly aware of the skills and processes involved. This view treats writing as a profession, a qualification to be attained with discipline and hard work, rather than an innate ability or subconscious habit. Indeed, "even in one's native language, learning to write is something like learning a second language. No one is born with writing proficiency. Everyone learns to write at school (Leki, 1992). If students want to write well, they need to learn the skills explicitly and adopt deliberate strategies to enhance their writing competence. There are some basic skills for writing competence. First we will discuss the non-linear process of academic writing that teachers can introduce to students in writing classrooms to raise their awareness then explain the practical methods for enhancing students' writing performance in second language classes.

Topic-152: Writing Competence and LTM

Writing competence is composing an effective piece of written work to fulfill a specific purpose. For example, when writing an entertaining and engaging story, students adopt a narrative style and rhetorical moves in order to fulfill the requirements of that genre. If students get aware of the importance of the purpose, audience, and context of the writing, they can employ the following academic discourse skills to achieve effective implementation.

Paraphrase and Direct Quotation

Paraphrase is to present an original writer's ideas with different word choices and rearrangements of word/sentence order from an original text. Direct quotation is used when students want to retain the original wordings of the quoted texts. Students should be explicitly taught that while paraphrasing the meaning conveyed by the original author must be apprehended in real essence and not distorted. Whenever students paraphrase or directly cite an original text, they need to acknowledge the original source both in the body of the essay and the reference list. Students should not only include the last name of the author and the year of the publication, but also the page numbers if available. They should put direct quotation marks around the original texts. Students should be taught the reasons to cite or paraphrase in a particular context, to define key terms, to establish common ground between the reader and writer, to back up their own position, or to substantiate opinions on a particular topic.

Lexical Variety

Lexical variety refers to "interesting word choice or effective use of vocabulary in writing" (Ferris 2014, p. 89). Lexical variety is an important part of successful writing because it can make an

essay sophisticated and interesting. Texts with greater lexical variety tend to score higher and leave a better impression for the readers. Students can consult a built-in thesaurus and dictionary in word processing software regardind the sentence context and maintain a consistent level of formality in their writing (Ferris 2014, p. 100–103). However, lexical variety alone is insufficient for creating a good essay, other aspects as content, development of ideas, quality of argumentation, correct use of grammar, and mechanics are equally important.

Use of Passive Voice

Teachers usually advise their students to use the active voice rather passive one. However, the passive voice can be preferred for two reasons in academic writing. First, appropriate use of the passive voice can enable writers to focus on a specific object for its importance, away from the actors who play a secondary role. Ferris (2014) draws the reader's attention to the experiment as a cornerstone of noteworthy results, independent of the actors who carried it out. A second reason for the use of the passive voice is to let writers deliberately distance themselves from their statements. By downplaying their identities through the passive voice, they could increase the statements' objectivity, which is significant in scientific writing.

Thinking Processes: Information Focused Approach vs. Knowledge Transformation Approach

The information-focused approach vs. the knowledge transformation approach to writing explains differences in the thinking processes of novice vs. experienced writers during different stages of their compositions (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). The information-focused approach is often used by novice writers, who note down all the facts and information about a topic, without establishing a focused macro rhetorical goal before starting to write. The macro rhetorical goal is something that a writer wants to achieve in his/her overall essay (Chandrasegaran & Schaetzel, 2004, p. 46). The information-focused approach vs. the knowledge transformation approach differentiates the novice and experienced writers throughout the different stages of the composition (planning, organizing, writing/revising). In the planning stage, novice writers tend to ask themselves; What they know about the topic, whether they have sufficient points for inclusion into the essay, where they can find more information, or how to make a piece of information relevant to the essay topic. On the contrary, experienced writers are more concerned about the rhetorical situation (i.e., purpose, audience, and context) in writing a particular piece. They think carefully about what information and rhetorical moves will best fit in the situation and use this strategic thinking to guide the inclusion or rejection of materials. In the organization stage, novice writers tend to present information in a chronological order. In contrast, experienced writers tend to consider how organization of the material helps them fulfill their rhetorical goal. They anticipate what the reader would like to know in their essays, or their support/disagreement with certain points. In other words, they consider the reader's expectations and reactions in their writing process,. In the writing/revising stage, novice writers often have difficulty to decide what to say next in the sentence. They tend to re-read the previous sentence before they proceed. They are more concerned about mistakes in grammar and spellings, so they use simple vocabulary and sentence structure. On the other hand, experienced writers, when deciding what to say next, refer to the macro rhetorical goal, that anticipates the reader's expectations and possible agreement/disagreement. They ensure that the organization and

content will help them achieve the goal, and they choose suitable words for the overall rhetorical situation. They tend to re-organize or re-write texts in larger units (e.g., paragraphs) guided again by the macro rhetorical goal. It is noted that writers exhibit different thinking processes in the information- focused approach and the knowledge transformation approach to writing. It is very difficult to observe how novice writers make the cognitive transition to a knowledge transforming model, nor do they spell out whether the process is the same for all learners (Hyland, 2011, p. 19). Depending on the genres, writers make use of the information-focused approach because it is more suitable, e.g., when they write information reports or entries in an encyclopedia, the author's job is to explicate and pass on the information they know about their topics.

Structuring and Developing Argument at the Macro and Micro Levels

We have learnt in the previous section that an awareness is necessary to include suitable information at the macro rhetorical goal to structure and develop arguments in an essay. Apart from developing argument at the macro level, the Toulmin Model of Argumentation highlighted to structure arguments at the micro level. The elements in this model of argumentation include (i) claim – a statement that the arguer wants to show is true; (ii) data – the evidence offered in support of the claim; (iii) warrant – an assumption that underlies the claim; (iv) backing – evidence for the warrant; (v) qualifier – something which is added that in some way limits the applicability of scope of the claim; and (vi) reservation – a statement or a situation which, if true, renders the claim invalid (Toulmin, 1958). Teachers need to teach students explicitly how to structure and develop arguments at both macro and micro levels in their essays.

Topic-153: Writing Process and LTM in a Classroom

Traditionally, writing teachers explain the writing process as a linear process (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Paltridge et al. (2009) identifies four distinct sub-processes in writing. First, in the conceptualizing stage, writers generate and select ideas that can be used in their writing, and then organize the ideas in an ordered way (e.g., an essay must have an introduction, body, and a conclusion). The second sub-process is called formulating, putting ideas into sentences. The third sub-process is revising, where writers rewrite and improve the essays. The revisions can be related to the content, grammar, and mechanics. The fourth sub-process is reading. Writers read the essay's instruction and gather information for the essay topic. They re read their writing to make sure that they are answering the essay's prompts. The linear process model may under-conceptualize and oversimplify the writing process (Emig, 1971, p. 98). This oversimplification may be problematic because it can be inflexible and limits the freedom to explore, whereas writing in practice could be an unstructured process of self-discovery. Recently, some writing scholars suggest that writing is a recursive, nonlinear activity. Clark and Ivanič's (1991) highlighted that both novice and experienced writers go through various stages of the writing process several times and may not follow a fixed and particular order. Clark and Ivanič (1991) identify 16 (equally important and inter-related) stages of the writing process, involving the following: accumulating knowledge and opinions (e.g., doing the necessary reading to gather information about a particular topic, or gathering primary data through surveys and interviews to find out the participants' opinions on a particular topic); decide how to take responsibility: whether to mask or declare the writer's own position (e.g., using first person

pronouns vs. passive constructions in presenting the writer's view); analyzing the assignment (e.g., the question prompt and the instruction words, and the purpose of writing the assignment); planning (e.g., information to be included in the assignment so as to achieve the macro-rhetorical goal of the paper); establishing goals and purposes (e.g., setting the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay, and the goal of each paragraph); establishing the writer identity (e.g., showing the writer's commitment to a particular position/argument); drafting (e.g., putting together the ideas to construct an argument); considering constraints of time and space (e.g., deadline of submission of work and the word limit); formulating the writer's own ideas (e.g., the writer's own opinion on that particular topic); experiencing panic, pain, and anguish (e.g., going through the complicated and difficult process of writing); experiencing pleasure and satisfaction (e.g., finishing the assignment, and learning something new from the writing experience); revising (e.g., making sure that the arguments are persuasive, and the macro-rhetorical goal is achieved); considering the reader (e.g., making the writing reader-friendly and anticipating possible counter-arguments from the reader); clarifying writer commitment to his/her idea (e.g., confirming the writer's stance about a particular issue); putting knowledge of the language to use (e.g., choosing language that can help the writer achieve the macro-rhetorical goal of the paper); and making the copy neat (e.g., checking the overall presentation of the paper).

Topic-154: The Use of Technologies to Enhance the Teaching of Writing

The Australian 'teaching and learning cycle' for genre instruction outlines the teaching of writing in three distinct stages: modeling, joint construction of text, and independent construction of text (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). At the modeling stage, teachers introduce the text type, purpose, audience, context of the text, as well as the vocabulary, grammar, and organizational structure, which are used in realizing that particular text type. For example, when teaching the genre of a complaint letter, teachers can make use of a short authentic letter from a local newspaper. Teachers can jumble the paragraphs, and then ask the students to rearrange the paragraphs and write down the proper order of a jumbled text following the situation-problem-solution- evaluation structure. Students can undertake this task individually if the class size is small, or in small groups with large class size. At this stage, teachers may also introduce the Michigan corpus of upper-level student papers http:// micuspelicorpora.info, an online database of successful writing that can be used by students to improve their writing. Students can directly interact with the database to learn about features of academic writing in an original way. After the modeling phase, teachers move on to another stage called the joint negotiation of text. This stage includes negotiation of ideas between teachers and students. Teachers can include activities such as class discussions and role plays, so as to help students brainstorm and gather possible ideas for writing.

Using Weebly http://education.weebly.com or Wikipedia http://www.wikipedia.org , for example, teachers and students co-construct an essay in the same genre that they learned earlier in the modeling stage. Teachers may also use Google Docs http://www.google.com/docs to give students quick written feedback. The stage of independent construction of text comes after the joint negotiation of text. Teachers should explicitly tell students the purpose of writing the particular essay, which may be neglected by some novice teachers. After brainstorming some ideas on the essay topic, students will independently compose their own essays. When the first draft is

completed, students may make use of an automated essay system (e.g., Criterion ® https://www.ets.org/criterion) to receive feedback on mechanics and grammar. After that, teachers may conduct in-class trained peer review sessions. Teachers must provide training to students before they conduct the peer reviews, as trained peer review feedback can positively affect the quality of post-revision drafts and the student-writers' revision types (Min, 2006). Teachers may consider using peer assessment software (e.g., Perceptive: http://www.peerceptiv.com) to implement the peer review activity. Such a computer-mediated feedback system may facilitate students' submission or viewing of multiple peer reviews on a series of writing drafts, because they can do so conveniently whenever there is Internet access. More importantly, computer-mediated feedback solves the need to "save face," which can be an issue for peer reviews carried out face-to-face. Through a peer assessment software, students' names can be anonymized readily. And if their names are not revealed, the students are more likely to give honest feedback. Computer-mediated peer feedback may also supply social motivation for students to revise their work, because it is feasible to solicit feedback from a wide readership, including not only teachers but also a sizable peer group. Students, indeed authors in general, tend to pay more attention to their writing when they perceive a broad readership of their work.

Enhancing Second Language Writing Performance

Students who are determined to improve the quality of their academic writing should be prepared to change their habitual approach to writing (Chandrasegaran, 2001, p.6). In other words, some students would need to move away from the information focused approach to writing (i.e., merely giving information about what they know about the topic without considering the readers). Instead, they need to adopt an alternative approach to writing that emphasizes an awareness of the purpose and audience of the writing. Students would need to learn to become aware of the thinking processes that take place in the writing. Recent research has indicated that the socio-cognitive approach to writing can be effective in enhancing student performance in writing English as a second language. These practical strategies can be used by teachers to improve the students' performance in writing.

Using a Socio-Cognitive Approach to Writing

Cognitive and genre theories are common approaches to teaching academic writing to students at upper primary and secondary schools, and in university-level ESL writing courses. However, the cognitive approach to teaching writing focuses on idea generation and planning strategies. This approach neglects socio-cultural factors, such as the target readers' possible reaction to texts (Hyland, 2002). The genre approach to teaching writing focuses on rhetorical moves and organization structure (Sawyer & Watson, 1989), rather than the thinking processes that are involved in the enactment of the discourse moves (Chandrasegaran, 2013). The prescriptive nature of a genre approach to writing may inhibit students' creativity (Hyland, 2002). Motivated by the limitations of cognitive and genre approaches to writing pedagogy, Chandrasegaran (2013) suggests a socio-cognitive approach to writing, which takes into account the socio-cultural contexts, thinking processes in enacting each genre practice, and reader expectations, to overcome the shortcomings of the cognitive and genre approaches. Studies have suggested that the use of a socio-cognitive

approach to teaching writing has positive results in improving the students' writing. For example, Graham et al. (2005) pointed out that third-grade struggling studentsin the United States, who were explicitly taught the thinking processes and the structure of genres, wrote "longer, more complete, and qualitatively better" narratives and persuasive writing. With explicit teaching of genre and a sociocultural approach to writing, Chandrasegaran and Yeo (2006) found that Secondary three (i.e., ninth-grade) students in Singapore showed an improvement in writing narratives in terms of setting the rhetorical goal. In their studies, Chandrasegaran (2013) and Chandrasegaran et al. (2007) found that secondary three (i.e., ninth grade) students in a Singapore school improved in expository writing. Specifically, through teachers' guided class discussions and explicit teaching of thinking processes in the enactment of genre practices, the students raised their awareness of the social context of the texts, as well as reader and writer roles, and they showed improvements in discourse moves such as stating and elaborating claims as well as countering opposing views.

Thinking processes, embedded in knowledge transformation, are important in implementing the socio-cognitive approach to writing. These thinking processes refer to how students plan, organize, write, and revise their essays. They help determine what information should be included in the essay in order to fit the macro rhetorical goal. Once the different pieces of information are determined, presenting them in a coherent form is a challenge to many students during the writing process.

Understanding Features That Make a Text Coherent

Knowledge of coherence is an important factor in the students' ability to produce coherent texts (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). Research studies have shown that teachers need to help students understand the meaning of coherence from a narrow sense (i.e., connectedness between sentences) to a broader sense (i.e., linking the ideas in a text at a discourse level to create meanings for the readers) (Johns, 1986; Lee, 2002). Coherence may seem like an abstract concept that is difficult to teach and learn. However, it is possible to describe coherence in a structural framework. It has five common features: Macro-structure, information structure, proposition development, cohesive devices, and meta-discourse markers (Lee, 2002). Macrostructure is about the outline of a text. For example, the outline of a complaint letter is situation-problem-solution-evaluation. The outline of a story is onset complication- resolution. Information structure is about presenting old (given) information before introducing new information. For example, teachers can show two sentences to students: (a) Peter has two children. (b) They are John and Mary. In this example, the writer should present the sentence with "two children" (given information) before introducing "John and Mary" (new information) to refer to the "two children." Proposition development can be challenging too many ESL students, as they tend to state the proposition without elaboration of ideas. For example, "Free public transport is good to the residents." This statement is a proposition without elaboration of ideas. Student writers are advised to add support to the statement such as "With money saved on transport, residents can now spend more money on other goods and services." Cohesive devices help establish relationships between different sentences. Examples of cohesive devices include pronouns, conjunctions, repetition, superordinate/hyponymy (e.g., animals/cats), and synonyms/antonyms. Another feature that can used to develop coherence in writing is meta-discourse markers, which some students commonly confuse with cohesive devices. Meta discourse markers are used to help readers organize, interpret, and evaluate information. Examples of meta-discourse markers include

logical connectives (e.g., therefore, but), sequencers (e.g., firstly, secondly, finally), certainty markers (e.g., certainly, no doubt), and hedges (e.g., can, may, it could be the case that).

Adopting Good Editing Strategies

Careful editing is important because a well-crafted essay gives a positive impression to the reader that the writer is competent. Second language writing researchers (Ferris, 2014) suggest useful strategies for good editing that can enhance the effectiveness of the written work. First, students should try to finish their writing earlier rather than wait until the last minute before starting. It is because good writers rely on effective editing and will allow sufficient time for it. Second, it is advisable to read the composition aloud. When writers read aloud their texts, they are more likely to detect problematic sentences, e.g., those containing missing words or unneeded repetitions of ideas. Through reading aloud, student writers can more easily identify the bad sentences. Third, students may consider using a word processor's editing tools to check for grammatical, spelling, and typographical errors. These word processors can identify some of the surface level errors effortlessly. Students may consider the software's suggested corrections. If they are not sure about certain corrections, they can check the dictionary or other tools. Lastly, for long term writing development, students are advised to keep track of their error patterns. They can keep a log book and record their recurring errors. They may aim to address a few errors at a time and review appropriate grammar rules if necessary. Students may be overwhelmed if they have to address a large number of errors in their compositions every time.

Topic-155: Pedagogical Principles of the Socio-Cognitive Approach to Academic Writing

The process-oriented approach and the genre approach to teaching writing have been widely adopted in writing classrooms for the past two decades. These approaches have not included the setting of the macro-rhetorical goal in writing and have not emphasized the thinking processes involved in the enactment of the genre-practice. For every essay, we should include only one macro rhetorical goal. It is crucial to establish the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay because it specifies the angle that the essay is going to take and directs the path of the whole essay. It is important that we explicitly teach students the thinking processes in planning, organizing, writing, and revising their essays. In the following, implications and associated pedagogical principles of the socio-cognitive approach to academic writing are suggested.

1. Teachers need to explain the purpose of writing to the students

- Make sure students understand that establishing the macro rhetorical goal and purposes of writing is an essential part of the writing process.
- Ensure that students recognize the functions of academic writing. After that, they may begin to appreciate its importance in writing.
- Plan activities that require students to identify the purpose of writing at the modelling, joint construction, and independent writing stages.

2. Writing lessons would address the knowledge-transformation approach to writing

- Teach the knowledge-transformation approach to writing with a focus of establishing the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay.
- Explicitly teach students the thinking processes in planning, organizing, writing, and revising the essay using the knowledge-transformation approach to writing.
- Create class activities that raise students' awareness of the differences between the information-focused approach and the knowledge- transformation approach to writing.

3. Second language writers' writing performance can be enhanced by understanding coherence in a broader sense

- Teach the features of a coherent text at a discourse level and highlight the differences in meaning between meta-discourse markers and cohesive devices in writing.
- Encourage students to self-edit their texts by reading aloud and self-evaluating their writing using a coherence checklist.
- Plan peer review activities, focusing on the development of coherence in writing. Peer reviewers can also comment on the macro-rhetorical goal of their peer's essays.

4. Writing is a complex activity

- Teach students that writing is a non-linear process involving many stages, not limited to conceptualizing, formulating, reading and revising.
- Recognize that students will encounter difficulties during the writing processes such as 'setting the macro rhetorical goal,' 'establishing writer identity,' and 'considering the reader.'
- Plan group activities that heighten students' awareness of the nature of writing.

Traditional approaches to teaching L2 writing – the controlled composition approach, the rhetorical function approach, the process-approach, and the genre approach – have strengths but may not be sufficiently effective as writing pedagogy. Teaching students the rhetorical moves and organization structure as well as helping students in idea generation and planning is necessary but not sufficient in writing classrooms. The reason is that these devices alone do not consider reader expectations, socio-cultural factors, and key thinking processes involved in the writing. The more recent socio-cognitive approach is a comparatively strategic approach to teaching writing, which highlights the importance of explaining the purpose of writing to the students in terms of social impact. This is to say, students write not only because they are told to write, but they write in order to fulfill a social function through the writing. For example, the function for writing a story is to entertain the readers or make the readers admire the characters of the story. Knowledge-transformation is an important implementation device in the sociocognitive approach to writing. Teachers need to explicitly teach students how to establish the macro-rhetorical goal of an essay.

When students plan, organize, write/ revise, they need to ensure that the relevant information helps them achieve the macro-rhetorical goal. By adopting the socio-cognitive approach to writing, students consciously define their goal as impact on the intended readers. In organizing and presenting their ideas, they need to learn how to make a text coherent, which includes but goes beyond using cohesive devices. In this regard, they need to have a good understanding of the macrostructure of the genre, information structure, proposition development, and the appropriate use

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of meta-discourse markers. Writing teachers should emphasize to students that a good piece of writing cannot be produced in one draft; it has to go through multiple times of revision.

It is also very important for students to adopt self-editing strategies in all their written work. They can read aloud their writing so that they can detect the problematic parts of their writing. They have to start to plan their writing early and finish their writing early so that they have sufficient time to revise their work. During the self-editing process, they would need to revise both the surface level errors such as grammar and mechanics, as well as issues at the discourse level, such as how they present themselves in their writing, the tone they use, the development of ideas, the contextualization of ideas, and the use of language, data, and evidence that their readers find persuasive. Self-editing would result in student ownership of and responsibility for learning (Swaffield, 2011). Some writing researchers have found that students benefit from trained peer feedback reviews (Min, 2006).

The results of the related studies indicate that peer feedback leads to better texts and improves the quantity and quality of peer talk. The peer feedback helps students to clarify any possible confusion the readers may have, and help refine the language used in the writing. Peer feedback activity is useful because students can readily relate to their peers' opinions on the same topic. When students review their peers' essays, they learn from their peers about how to make the writing reader friendly. Giving peer feedback is also good in training their critical thinking, the peer review activity enhances students' ability to revise and improve their writing.

Lesson-32

INTEGRATING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Topic-156: What does Integrating Language Skills Mean?

The primary skills of language identified as listening, speaking, reading, and writing are connected with one another. We integrate these skills during every day conversation. It is rarely noted when we only listen, or only speak, or only read, or only write. It is artificial and tiresome if,we decide to separate these skills and use only one for a specified period of time for some peculiar reason,. Such an artificial separation of language skills is quite normal in most language schools. In North America, and several other countries, colleges and universities' language institutes offer classes based on isolated skills and proficiency levels with course titles as 'Beginning Reading', 'Intermediate Listening', or 'Advanced Writing'. Curriculum designers and textbook writers have long been using the separation of skills as a guiding principle for syllabus construction and materials production. They even try to hardly link a particular skill with a particular set of learning strategies. They talk about reading strategies, listening strategies, speaking strategies, and writing strategies. Oxford (2001, p. 19), has done extensive research on learning strategies, asserts, "Many strategies, such as paying selective attention, self-evaluating, asking questions, analyzing, synthesizing, planning and predicting are applicable across skill areas."

There is incoherence between what curriculum designers and textbook writers prescribe, and what teachers and learners actually practice in the classroom. In a language classroom, it is rarely seen that teachers and learners in a reading class only read, or in a writing class only write, or in a speaking class only speak. That, of course, would be impossible. According to predetermined curricula and prescribed textbooks, teachers mostly emphasize on a specific skill designated for a specific class while helping learners freely use all the skills necessary for successful classroom activity. In other words, if the class is supposed to focus on one specific skill at a time, teachers and learners do the inevitable and follow an integrated approach.

Topic-157: A History of Skill Separation

Skill separation is a remnant of a previous era and has very little empirical or experiential justification. It is based on a particular belief in language, language learning, and language teaching.

During the1950s and 60s, before the advent of communicative approaches, proponents of audio-lingual method believed that language is basically aural-oral. That is, speech is primary and constitutes the very basis of language. They also emphasized the formal properties of grammatical usage than the functional properties of communicative use. Given such an emphasis, it appeared reasonable to separate language skills. However, as Widdowson (1998, p. 325) observes, "We can talk of skills in respect to usage, but if we talk about language use, we need a different concept, and perhaps a different term." Not only the audio-lingualists divided the language into four skill areas but they also recommended a strict sequencing of them: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. That is, they believed learners should not be allowed to speak before they learn to listen, or to write before they learn to read.

This order was suggested partly because children learn their first language in the same order. Such suggestion ignores the apparent dissimilarities between children learning their first language and adults learning their second or third. Yet another point to remember is that audio-lingualists divided the four language skills into two categories: active and passive. Speaking and writing were considered active skills, and reading and listening were considered passive skills. Readers and listeners have to actively engage their minds and actively process the information in order to make meaning so this cannot be said passive activity. Eventually, the terms *active* and *passive* were replaced by *productive* (speaking and writing) and *receptive* (listening and reading). It is now generally agreed that effective listening and reading require as much attention and mental activity as speaking and writing" (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 74). Thus, neither set of terms effectively apprehend the true nature of communication and "lost in this encode/decode, message-sending representation is the collaborative nature of meaning-making" (Savignon, 1990, p. 207).

Reflective task:

There are textbooks that combine reading and writing as one unit, and listening and speaking as another. Recall any L2 class you recently attended. What learners actually do in class: don't they listen to the teacher attentively and take notes, by combining listening and writing? If yes, how does this reality fit in with the textbooks acknowledgement?

Taking an empirical look at the separation of skills, and finding no substantial supportive evidence for any pedagogic decisions based on such a separation, Selinker and Tomlin (1986) call such decisions a "pedagogical artifact" (p. 230). In another study, Swaffar, Arens, and Morgan (1982) found the separation of skills inadequate for developing integrated functional skills. Its inadequacy arises because language skills are essentially interrelated and mutually reinforcing. Fragmenting them into manageable, atomistic items runs counter to the parallel and interactive nature of language and language use.

It is then fair to say that, in the absence of any empirical support, language skills are being taught in isolation more for logistical than for logical reasons; that is, it is done more out of administrative convenience and availability of time and resources than out of any sound theoretical or experiential knowledge. Freeman and Freeman (1992, p. 138) pointed out the tension between what should be rightfully done and what is actually done is clearly brought out by textbook writers who continue to write separate books or chapters for each of the skill areas, while at the same time find it necessary, in their editorial comments, to readily acknowledge the importance of the integration of language skills.

Topic-158: The Need for Integration: Why?

Theoretical as well as experiential knowledge pointed out the importance of integrating language skills. The learning and use of any skill can trigger cognitive and communicative associations with the others. Several scholars have attested this possibility. Emphasizing the connection between reading and other skills, Krashen (1989, p. 90) argues that reading may very well be "the primary means of developing reading comprehension, writing style, and more sophisticated vocabulary and

grammar." Similarly, listening activities have been found to help learners make the broader connection between the sociolinguistic concept of form and function and the psycholinguistic processes of interpretation and expression (Rost, 1990). Linking speaking with other skills, Bygate (1998, p. 34) found it inevitable that the real time processing of listening activities, the exposure to language via reading and listening, and the attention to form-meaning relations in all skills can wash forward to help the development of speaking. Such a connection is true of writing as well, observed by Rivers (1981, pp. 296–7). "Writing is not, then, a skill which can be learned in isolation the most effective writing practice, and the most generally useful, will have a close connection with what is being practiced in relation to other skills."

In addition to these theoretical insights, there is another advantage for repeating the natural integration of skills in the classroom. Various learners bring various learning styles and strategies to the class. Integration of language skills has the potential to offer different opportunities for different types of learners, for example, the extroverts who like to speak a lot, the introverts who prefer to listen or read, and the analytically or visually oriented learners who like to see how words are written and sentences constructed (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 75). Selinker and Tomlin (1986) urge for more classroom-oriented research is required to determine the full impact of integration and separation of skills, all available theoretical and experiential information stress the need to integrate language skills for effective language learning and teaching.

Reflective Task:

Pause here for a minute and think about all the ways in which you can integrate language skills in a class. Several types of classroom activities have entered the field of L2 learning and teaching. There are interactive scenarios (Di Pietro, 1987) and problem-solving tasks (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996). In addition, there are content-based activities (Crandall, 1987), project-based activities (Legutke and Thomas, 1991), whole-language activities (Goodman, 1986; Freeman and Freeman, 1992), and experiential activities (Kohonen, et al., 2001). All these classroom activities have one thing in common: they stress interactive language use that requires a synthesis of various language skills and various language components. Additionally, these integrated activities are all relevant for learners of different levels of proficiency, provided the degree of conceptual, communicative, and linguistic challenge is monitored and maintained. Any of the above types of classroom activities, if properly designed and implemented, can easily lead to the integration of language skills. For instance, in performing a well-planned integrated activity, learners may adopt the following microstrategies for integrating language skills;

- try to understand the teacher's directions, seek clarifications, and take notes (listening, speaking, and writing)
- brainstorm, in pairs or in small groups, and decide to use library resources or the internet to collect additional information (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)
- engage in a decision-making process about how to use the collected information and proceed with the activity (listening, speaking, and reading)
- carry out their plan of action (reading, writing, speaking, and listening)

- use the notes taken during their group discussion, and present to class what they have accomplished (reading, speaking, and listening)
- finish the activity with a whole class discussion (listening and speaking).

Various resources such as newspapers, news magazines, and the Internet (where available) provide excellent materials for designing microstrategies for integrating language skills. Additional resources can be found in TV shows, particularly excerpts from short documentaries, talk shows, and sitcom episodes as well as radio broadcasts. An easier alternative is textbook activities suitably adapted to cover integrated skills. It should be remembered that a great way of motivating the learners is to involve them in the material selection process by asking them to suggest topics and themes that then can be discussed in class in order to arrive at a consensus list of topics they would like to address.

Topic-159: Microstrategies for Integrating Language Skills

The following microstrategies, as well as exploratory projects, show how communication channels, newspapers, radio, TV, and the internet can be used effectively for integrating the language skills.

Microstrategy: A Matter of Money and Motherhood

A regular column feature that appears in newspapers or news magazines in many parts of the world is the advice column. Readers who participate in these columns generally describe a personal experience or a social situation and seek advice from experts in the relevant field of activity. These columns can be a good source for generating meaningful discussion in the class, since everybody will have an opinion on the personal and social issues raised by readers. Most of these are syndicated columns, that is, the same columns appear in several newspapers. It is fairly easy to use newspaper columns to design a classroom activity involving all four language skills and at different levels of linguistic and communicative challenges. Here's one way of doing it; you may wish to modify some parts of the microstrategy to suit your learning and teaching situation.

Reflective Task:

Select a short piece from an advice column that you believe will build interest in your learners. Make sure the issue raised lends itself to different interpretations and solutions based on different beliefs and expectations. The following sample text is taken from an advice column, titled "Miss Manners," that appeared in the San Jose Mercury News.

Dear Miss Manners: While we were expecting our fourth son, my mother offered to come and assist with our family during his birth, using a plane ticket she already had. We were glad to have her here to help with transportation, meal preparation, etc. Because of unforeseen circumstances, she ended up staying for 13 days. During her stay, she made many trips to the grocery store: some I requested,some she did on her own. Whenever she purchased something for our family, I told her I would pay her back. Upon departure, she presented me with a total of over $400! I wrote her a

check. Later, I looked at the receipts she had left. She charged us for all the food she ate, numerous magazines and cookbooks she purchased for herself, special soap she wanted instead of the brand we use, and gifts for the dog ($10 for the dog bones) and the children! In addition, she bought many expensive items (large bags of macadamia nuts and almonds, brand-name grocery items when I usually purchase store brands) that I would never have purchased. She is not poor and neither are we, but my husband and I are at a loss as to why she would take advantage of us in this way. She didn't even leave the used magazines for us to see! Should I confront her or just let sleeping dogs eat their $10 bones? (Source: *San Jose Mercury News,* 3/18/2001)

Make photocopies of the selected text, or copy it onto an OHP transparency. In class, before you distribute it to your learners, read the text aloud in normal speed, pausing at crucial places. For instance, read aloud the first two sentences. Pause. Ask the learners to guess what they would expect the writer to say about her mother. Read the next three sentences. Pause. Ask. Then, read the first sentence of the second paragraph, and so on. At an appropriate point in the reading (e.g., at the end of the first paragraph), ask them what the writer is seeking advice about.

Distribute copies of the text, or project it on the OHP. Ask your learners to read it carefully. Encourage them to seek clarification to help them understand the text.

Form small groups and have them discuss the immediate issues raised in the text, zeroing in on the mother's action and the daughter's reaction.

Ask each group to prepare a consensus report of what they would have done if they were in the position of the daughter.

Depending on the proficiency level, encourage them to discuss larger issues of cultural and social beliefs involving the concept of family, which individuals are considered to constitute a family, and a mother's relationship with her daughter's family and vice versa. Have a representative from each group present the group's consensus report to the class, and lead a discussion on what emerges.

After giving adequate time for preparation, ask a couple of active, enterprising students to role-play a possible mother-daughter encounter assuming that the daughter has been advised, and has decided, to confront her mother. Ask them to pretend that they are the experts and the writer is turning to advice. Ask them to write an individual appropriate response to the writer, specifically addressing the last question raised by her. If there are learners from different cultural or subcultural backgrounds, encourage them to write about how members of their cultural community would have reacted to the daughter's complaint about her mother.

Finally, alert your learners about advice columns in local newspapers, and ask them to read regularly and bring a story or two to the class if they find them interesting and would like to discuss them in class.

Microstrategy: A Matter of Reality and Falsehood

A recent source of entertainment is reality TV. It has been a phenomenal success in North America and Europe, and is fast spreading to other parts of the world as well. Some successful reality shows include Survivor, Big Brother, Temptation Island, and Loft Story; the first three are North American and the last one is French. Episodes of Survivor and Loft Story, for instance, have been the most-watched TV shows in their respective countries.

In reality TV shows, participants are not professional actors and actresses but people selected from various walks of life. A small group of adventurous people is selected and taken to exotic places like Australian coasts or Kenyan villages and are given very few amenities.

They have to survive and "outwit, outplay, outlast" each other in order to win a million dollars, as in the case of Survivor. Or, in the case of Loft Story, eleven young couples are housed in a small loft for seventy days, and one loft-dweller is kicked out after each episode. The couple remaining after everyone else is evicted wins a $400,000 house. In both shows, the cameras are turned on the participants almost twenty-four hours a day, and their every move is recorded and broadcast.

Reality TV with its exotic appeal can provide an extraordinary source of materials for L2 teachers if they wish to promote meaningful interaction in class and integrate language skills. Here's a suggestion adapt as necessary; to set the stage, write "Reality TV" on the board and ask your learners what it means and what they know about it. Ask them if they have seen or heard/read about any such shows. Let them share what they know with the class, including their opinions about why they appeal to people of different generations and interests.

Select an episode from any of these shows, videotape it, and play it in your class. You may also pause at crucial moments and ask the students to guess what they will expect the participants to do next. If you teach in an area where these shows are not shown or are not available on video, you may give your learners a short lecture on the subject by collecting relevant information from newspapers and the internet.

If you are surfing internet, search for "reality TV" on any of the search engines (e.g., Yahoo.com or Google.com), and you will find hundreds of Web sites. Or, you may also go to specific shows; for instance, if you wish to know about *Survivor*, go to CBS.com. Print out information about the show you wish to focus on, and make enough photocopies for use in class.

Form small groups. If they viewed a video, have your students discuss what they have seen. Guide them to discuss first the episode itself; what is it about and what the participants actually do, etc. and then ask them what is real and unreal about this particular episode. If you used a newspaper cutting or a printout from the Internet (instead of showing a video), ask your learners to read it and discuss it in small groups. Have the groups' report back to the class about what they discussed followed by question and answer.

Ask them go to the library, read old volumes of newspapers or surf the internet to collect information about the reality show they watched in class. Or, if they wish, let them collect

information about any reality TV show they like. Putting together what they discussed in class and what they collected in the library, ask them to write a brief reflective essay on what they think about the show, why it does or does not appeal to them.

- In class, form pairs and ask them to read what the other partner has written and, if necessary, seek clarification.
- Ask a select number of students to briefly tell the class about anything unusual or unexpected that they read in their partner's write-up.
- Depending on the proficiency level of your students, take the discussion to a higher level of critical reflection. Focus on some of the criticisms about shows like Survivor or Loft Story. For instance

French critics call reality TV télévision poubelle-trash television. Commenting on Loft Story, one French television producer is reported to have said, "To me, Loft Story is non-television. It's just crap there is no actor, no script, and no production value. As a television professional, there's nothing easier than picking 10 idiots off the street and asking them to be idiots in front of the camera" (From an article on "Culture Schlock in France: New Reality Television Show Draws a Crowd of Viewers and Critics," written by Keith Richburg, published in the on-line edition of the Washington Post, May 17, 2001, p. C01). Ask your students what they think about comments like this.

A different kind of observation, no less perceptive, came from a villager in Kenya. In the summer of 2001, CBS, the TV network that produces and broadcasts the most successful reality TV show, *Survivor*, took its crew and participants to a village in Kenya to film its new Survivor: Africa series. The story line is, of course, the same: the participants have to live under severe conditions and survive with meager food and other resources while outwitting, outplaying, and outlasting everybody else to win a million dollars. Project the following excerpt from a local newspaper on an OHP:

"A million dollars? Just for surviving? . . . I could win that show. I live for several days without eating, just a little water."

Mohammed Leeresh, a bemused Kenyan villager, commenting on "Survivor: Africa," the latest installment of the "reality TV" series that's taping in his neighborhood. Local people said they remained puzzled even after the show's concept was explained to them. Ask your learners to think about Mohammed Leeresh's comment.

Have them discuss why they think Kenyan villagers are "bemused" and "puzzled." If your learners themselves are not doing it, lead them to consider the above piece of information from the perspective of those Kenyan villagers. Here they are, presumably living under severe conditions, facing starvation as part of their everyday existence. They cannot understand why anyone would create an artificial scarcity of food and other resources, and then pay a million dollars for somebody to survive such conditions, while, for those Kenyans, such conditions are part of their everyday reality. And, nobody pays them even a penny to applaud their survival. Alert your students to these perspectives and lead a critical discussion.

Topic-160: Exploratory Projects for Skill Integration

The following exploratory projects are aimed at providing a general plan for designing microstrategies to integrate language skills. You need to decide what to do and how exactly you wish to do it.

Project: Comic Situations

Apart from the newly introduced reality shows, television everywhere has traditionally shown sitcoms (situation comedies), brief episodes that humorously bring out the strengths and weaknesses of human beings. These sitcoms are loaded with cultural and subcultural beliefs and value systems. Sitcoms produced in North America, depict the lives and loves of people of different ethnic communities. Any of the episodes of a sitcom can be used as a resource around which to design classroom activities, since each episode is short and self-contained with a beginning and an end.

- Select any currently popular sitcom, one that you think is suitable for your class. Videotape an interesting episode. (If you do not have a video recorder, your school may have one you can borrow. Some schools may do recordings for teachers, if requested.)
- Watch the selected episode again, closely. Jot down questions that you might want to ask your learners before showing the video so that they will know what to anticipate.
- Divide the episode into three or four segments and, focusing on each segment, think of listening comprehension questions that you can ask to help your students to understand the episode.
- Focus on and prepare questions about conversational features that you want to highlight in class such as the informal and colloquial nature of language used, how participants take turns, and how openings are provided for the listener to speak, etc.
- Focus on features other than the lexical items that carry meaning so that you can direct your learners' attention to them. These may include: stress, intonation, rhythm, and body language. Think about what your learners already know and what needs to be highlighted.
- Focus also on characterization to help learners identify any strong views or mannerisms or behavior patterns that are unique to a particular character in the episode.
- In addition to the above, make sure you address the following questions as you design your microstrategy: Do the learners need any assistance with any of the jokes? What kind of linguistic and cultural prior knowledge is assumed here? Does the episode depict a particular set of attitudes and beliefs that you need to highlight?
- Think about the kind of a class project that will help them do some reading and writing around this episode. Would it be possible to ask your students, in small groups, to make a transcript of the episode? To rewrite the script from the point of view of a different belief system? And, enact the revised version in class?
- Finally, try to implement your microstrategy in class and monitor how it develops. Reflect, revise, and reuse.

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Project: Radio Days

In learning/teaching environments where internet surfing and videotaping are difficult, radio broadcasts can offer unlimited resources for language related activities. Local or international radio broadcasts in certain target languages, particularly English, are readily available in many countries. Generally, radio broadcasts offer a variety of programs including songs, music, news items, speeches, interviews, and sports commentaries. Depending on the interest and proficiency level of your learners, select any of these programs for designing a microstrategy to integrate language skills. Here's one possibility.

- Select an evening news broadcast from a popular radio station. Audiotape it. Listen to it again, looking for possible segments for classroom use, and jot them down.
- Normally, news broadcasts begin with headlines. Think about how you incorporate that aspect by the questions you can ask your learners. How would you help them anticipate the details of the news by merely listening to the headlines? And, how would you help them understand that headlines are to news broadcasts what titles and subtitles are to a text?
- Focusing on each of the main news stories, think of listening comprehension questions that you can ask to help your students understand the day's news.
- Think of any prior knowledge of political or social events that is needed for learners to fully understand the day's news.
- Focus also on difficult lexical and grammatical structures so that you can direct your learners' attention to them.
- Let's say you wish to zero in on one or two stories for detailed analysis and understanding. What preparation do you have to make?
- How would you encourage an extended discussion on the selected news items? A debate, or a group work?
- How would you relate the listening and speaking activity to reading and writing? Normally, newspapers have more in-depth coverage of a particular news story than radio news broadcasts; therefore, would it be advisable to ask the learners to bring a copy of the day's newspaper to class? How would you relate the radio story to what appears in the newspaper to create an opportunity for learners to read in class?
- Think of a writing assignment that would be appropriate to help learners connect the radio news broadcast, the same story in the newspaper, and their discussion in class.
- If you teach a class consisting of students from different countries, how would you make use of the rich array of political and cultural background knowledge that is available in the class?
- Think of a project in which the learners consult the library or surf the Internet to gather more information about any news item discussed in class, write a brief report, and present it in class.

In Closing

What we learn from the general discussion, the microstrategies, and the project proposals is that integration of language skills is natural to language communication. By designing and using microstrategies that integrate language skills, we will be assisting learners to engage in classroom activities that involve a meaningful and simultaneous engagement with language in use. As Oxford

(2000, p. 18) puts it eloquently, for the instructional material to produce a large, strong, beautiful, colorful tapestry, the strands consisting of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing must be closely interwoven. The best way of intermingling the four strands is to go beyond the limitations of commercially available textbooks that are still based on the separation of language skills, and learn to exploit various resources and channels of communication such as newspapers, radio, TV, and the Internet.

Lesson-33

LESSON PLANNING AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic-161: What is a Lesson Plan?

A lesson plan is a teacher's detailed description of the course of instruction or "learning trajectory" for a lesson. A daily lesson plan is developed by a teacher to guide class learning. Details will vary depending on the preference of the teacher, subject being covered, and the needs of the students. There may be requirements mandated by the school system regarding the plan.

A lesson plan is the teacher's guide for running a particular lesson, and it includes the goal (what the students are supposed to learn), how the goal will be met (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goals were met (test, worksheet, homework etc.).

A well-developed lesson plan reflects the interests and needs of students. It incorporates best practices for the educational field. The lesson plan correlates with the teacher's philosophy of education, the self-reflective beliefs about educating the students.

Unit plans follow much the same format as a lesson plan, but cover an entire unit of work, which may span several days or weeks. Modern constructivist teaching styles may not require individual lesson plans. The unit plan may include specific objectives and timelines, but lesson plans can be more comprehensive as they address student needs and learning styles.

Topic-162: Lesson Planning in Language Teaching

An efficient level of teaching is ensured by systematic and careful planning. A lot is going to happen on the spot in the class, sometimes it is difficult to completely predict how learners will respond to anything, but if the teacher is better prepared, they are ready to cope with whatever happens in the classroom in a better way.

The main aim of lesson planning is scientifically tested organization of the educational process and achievement of successful acquisition of the language in question. At the beginning of the course teacher should predict how to organize the whole process and be aware of the results, which have to be achieved at the end of it. Foreign language teacher needs two to three kinds of plans to work successfully.

A unit plan may not be compulsory for school authorities, but it is convenient for teachers to be at hand. The academic year plan is a real working document for the whole year course of study as it highlights the main steps of teaching for a long period ahead and is designed in correlation with the Program. However, writing of such an academic year plan is very often the responsibility of teacher. Though the structure of the academic year plan is not fixed, it is rather flexible and depends on: the demands of the school/educational authorities; traditions of the school; convenience of teacher, their own understanding of how to plan their work; students' age and their level of knowledge; materials to be used. Sample structure of the academic year plan should include:

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Number of lesson:

Topic/subtopic of lesson;
Language work (grammar structures, pronunciation patterns, lexical material);
Objectives concerning skills development;

Homework:

The daily plan often contains two parts:
1) an outline of the procedures of the lesson (i.e. the description of the activities, their order and predicted timing);
2) background information (i.e. aims/objectives for the lesson, target language, materials used, predicted problems, etc.).

Different scholars and teacher trainers suggested keeping lesson plan simple and easy to read, with clear numbered sections and underlined or colored important elements to draw attention. Prose descriptions should be cut out; there is no need to script the whole lesson. However, some aspects should be written down precisely: a model sentence, or a set of complicated instructions, or some questions to check students' understanding of a given text or a language point. What should be included in a lesson plan? What are there some general areas to consider when planning?

Learners: It is necessary to take into account their interests, motivation to learn, age, attitudes, abilities. Will they enjoy doing the lesson? Will they get benefit from it?

Aims and objectives: Teacher begins by stating the aim/aims or objectives of each class-period. The main aim / objective should be detailed, it might include specific sub-skills for specific language learners to use and develop. Learners, who attend the lesson, should know what they have to do during the lesson, what performance level is required from them, and how it can be achieved.

The lesson's objectives should be stated precisely. Often there is **a** main aim/objective and perhaps a number of subsidiary aims/objectives. For example, a lesson in which skills are integrated or when a listening or reading text is used to introduce a language item, it is important that teacher and students recognize the main aim of the lesson and of each stage. The major portion of time in the lesson should be allocated to the main objective. Subsidiary aims/objectives may have a large role in the lesson but not overlap the main objective. E.g., the main aim might be as follows: 'Learners will be able to cope with authentic news broadcasts by practicing listening skills of (x, y, z)'.

One of subsidiary aims: 'Learners develop their discussion skills'. The examples of lesson aims and objective done below are not relevant as they are too abstract to be clear to learners and too wide to be achieved in one class-period:
e.g.: To help students to speak English better.

- To teach learners to listen.
- To develop learners proficiency in reading.

The long-term aims of the course help teacher to ensure that every particular lesson is going in the right direction and is another step towards achieving the ultimate goals of the course.

The teacher point/personal aims or objectives: For any particular lesson, in addition to the learning aims for the learners, the teacher may set a personal aim to pay particular attention to some aspects of teaching.

E.g.: To talk less myself and involve the students more.

- To make my instructions clearer.
- To involve computer software presenting new structures.

Procedure: This part lays out the stages of lesson to ensure that the aim(s) is achieved. Teacher should indicate the plan *what* will be done at each stage and *why* (the stage aim); approximate *time*; *materials* used; perhaps details of any *complex instructions* the teacher is going to give or *questions* he/she plans to ask. In order to do this teacher has to arrange the *stages* and the *approach(es), activities*, and *materials* that will be used at each stage in an order.

Activities: While planning activities and tasks for learners, teacher has to answer the questions like: How to present or revise a language item: through a problem-solving activity, through a visual or oral context (dialogue, pictures, etc.), or through a text?

- How to develop skills?
- What do students need before they can listen, read, write or speak?
- How to follow up the skills work?
- How to check students' understanding?

What type of practice activities to set up: speaking, pair work, and/or writing? Teacher should think over a *bal*ance and a variety of activities and materials. The activities should be arranged in such a way that an easy activity must be followed by a more difficult one; a very active one with a passive one, etc. The activities should be ordered logically; from more controlled to autonomous one. Each stage after some set of activities should be supported by an appropriate feedback which is given for mutual understanding.

Some researchers (R. Gower, D. Phillips, S. Walters,) stress on functional value of lesson plan (see table 53, App. 4), which can serve as an aid to planning, a working document, a record. It is an aid to help teacher think logically through the stages in relation to available time. It is an useful document, which keep teacher focused. A previous lesson plan acts as a record of what has done in the classroom and it forms the basis for a future lesson plan for similar class.

Topic-163: Functions and Significance of a Lesson Plan

A daily lesson plan is designed by a teacher to follow written guidelines related to teaching/learning. The details may vary from subject to subject; and lesson to lesson. The lesson planner takes various aspects as the course, target group, learning resources etc. into account.

Functions:

- A lesson plan is designed to communicate with the teacher.
- It functions as a guide for the teacher.
- It provides a map for organizing teacher's materials.
- It provides a road map to the teacher to help students achieve their learning outcomes.
- A lesson plan enables a teacher to set objectives clearly.
- It provides a statement of purpose for the whole lesson. An objective statement itself should answer what students will be able to do by the end of the lesson. The objective/s drive the whole lesson.
- It enables the teacher to carefully design the lesson according to the skill level of the learners.
- It gives a kind of consciousness on what information/ knowledge the teacher wishes to impart and how to impart that.

Significance of Daily Lesson Plans:

Daily lesson planning is as essential as planning the general course. The teacher should think of planning for the day's lesson with the coordination and integration of course planning. When the course is carefully planned, many important aspects of lesson planning will be anticipated. The major aspects of objectives, content, and sequence should be broadly determined. The general procedures for dealing with learning are predicted to a considerable degree, for the guidance of the teacher.

Significance: Lesson Plans- Success by Design

Comprehensive plans increase the possibility for running lessons smoothly, so that students receive quality instruction. One of the few factors vital for successful teaching is having well-designed lessons. Imagine a doctor who does not plan adequately for surgery, a contractor who builds a house as he pounds along using scrap lumber and duct tape wherever he finds them, or a teacher teaching a lesson with no foundation or clear direction. Students attain desired learning outcomes through planned lessons. Creating the plans should not be longer than presenting the actual lesson.

Topic-164: Important Items to Include in a Lesson Plan

How to develop a lesson plan? There are different formats of lesson plans. But, the following aspects or items are commonly found in most lesson planning:

- Title and sub titles of the lesson,
- Time given for the lesson,
- List of learning resources,
- List of specific objectives (based on Bloom's taxonomy),
- Methodology (teaching/learning activities),
- Strategies applied,
- Recapitulation,
- Self-study exercises etc.

According to Cunningham, there are eight lesson plan phases to provide opportunities for teachers to recognize and correct students' misconceptions while extending understanding for future lessons. These phases are: Introduction, Foundation, Brain Activation, Body of New Information, Clarification, Practice and Review, Independent Practice, and Closure.

Another List of Items to be Included is as Follows:

- Title of the lesson
- Time required to complete the lesson
- List of required materials
- List of objectives, which may be behavioral objectives (what the student can do at lesson completion) or knowledge objectives (what the student knows at lesson completion)
- The set (or lead-in, or bridge-in) that focuses students on the lesson's skills or concepts—these include showing pictures or models, asking leading questions, or reviewing previous lessons
- An instructional component that describes the sequence of events that make up the lesson, including the teacher's instructional input and, where appropriate, guided practice by students to consolidate new skills and ideas
- Independent practice that allows students to extend skills or knowledge on their own
- A summary, where the teacher wraps up the discussion and answers questions
- An evaluation component, a test for mastery of the instructed skills or concept such as a set of questions to answer or a set of instructions to follow
- A risk assessment where the lesson's risks and the steps taken to minimize them are documented
- An analysis component the teacher uses to reflect on the lesson itsel such as what worked and what needs improving
- A continuity component reviews and reflects on content from the previous lesson

Two More Sets of Items to be Included in a Lesson Plan:

Herbartian Method	**Madeline Hunter's Method**
• Preparation	• Anticipatory Set
• Presentation	• Objectives

• Association	• Instruction
• Generalization	• Check for Understanding, Ask Questions
• Application	• Guided Practice, Modeling
	• Independent Practice
	• Closure

Here is a detailed good plan to follow:

Phase 1: Introduction

- **Set a purpose.** Describe the overarching reason for this lesson.
- **Introduce the key concepts, topic, and main idea.** Get students on the right track. This step may be a note on the board, a diagram, or a probing question of the day's lesson focus.
- **Pull students into the excitement of learning.** Seize students' attention with items like an amazing fact, a funny quirk, a challenge, or other mind tickler.
- **Make the learning relevant.** Explain how this lesson extends past learning and leads to future learning that is, the significance of the concepts, skills, and focus of the lesson.

Phase 2: Foundation

- **Check on previous knowledge.** Verify what students already know.
- **Clarify key points.** Double-check on learning from the past.
- **Focus on specific standards, objectives, goals.** Link the lesson to the standards, and let students know exactly what they will know and be able to do as a result of this lesson.
- **Check for correctness and add to background knowledge.** Add extra information for the day's learning and beyond—just enough to launch into the main lesson.
- **Introduce key vocabulary.** See it; say it; read it; write it.

Phase 3: Brain Activation

- **Ask questions to clarify ideas and to add knowledge.** Engage students in the learning and build background with probing questions.
- **Brainstorm main ideas.** Fill students' heads with ideas, concepts, possibilities, allow them to expand and clarify their thinking.
- **Clarify and correct misconceptions.** Engage students in activities that inform you whether students are confused or have incorrect ideas, so corrections can be made before the misconceptions become worse or detrimental to learning.

Phase 4: Body of New Information

- **Provide teacher input.** Lecture, add key points and new information, read the text or articles, and solve problems. Present the body of the lesson. This may be a whole-class lecture, a small-

group activity with teacher supervision, or a partner activity with teacher supervision. The learning is active (not silent reading without specific goals or mindless completion of a worksheet).

Phase 5: Clarification

- **Check for understanding with sample problems, situations, questions.** Have students practice with the information just taught. Guide the learning.

Phase 6: Practice and Review

- **Provide time for practice and review.** Allow students time to practice under your supervision. You and the students work together.

Phase 7: Independent Practice

- **Supervise students' independent practice.** Select additional strategies for small groups of students who still do not "get it." Other students may begin to work independently, with the final goal being that all students can work on their own. This practice prepares students for successful homework, and it prepares them for future learning.

Phase 8: Closure

- **Bring the lesson to closure.** Link the lesson phases and information together. Summarize the learning of the day, and discuss how it fits into the meaningful learning. Did students demonstrate what they learn by writing a brief note; the note may include questions, problems, or ideas on the learning. Alternatively, they may write in their journals or explain their understanding to a partner.

Topic-165: Lesson Planning in Pakistan

Teaching is a collection of best teaching practices, intricate lesson plans, and the expertise of the teachers' guide. It is exhausting and exhilarating for the new teachers. Those who remain in the profession over time develop a tremendous knowledge and understanding of children, their perceptions, and how their minds work. An effective lesson plan increases knowledge and understanding.

When it comes to Pakistan we need to consider:

- Pakistani education system
- Status of government schools
- Status of Teaching of English in Pakistani schools

Lesson-34

Designing Instructional Materials

Topic-166: Significance of Designing Instructional Materials

Global EFL courses are used by non-native speakers who will need to communicate in English with other non-native speakers outside of English speaking areas, which means they will need English not as a native speaker but as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2012). Yet, most of these courses teaching English as a Foreign language, still seem to be developed as though their users need to communicate with the native speakers of English which means they interact with people in English speaking countries i.e. UK and USA. For example, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013) reviewed six current EFL courses published in the UK and concluded that most of the texts illustrate a 'correct' version of English as it is written and spoken by native speakers interacting with each other. The courses are very little to helpful to prepare learners for the use of English as a global lingua franca in reality. They do find some dialogues in the courses, which are spoken by non-native speakers, but the language and strategies used in these dialogues seems indistinguishable from those that would have been used by native speakers interacting with each other. One of the evaluation criteria used by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013, p. 244) is, "To what extent is the course likely to help learners to use English as a lingua franca?" Two of the courses score 2 out of 5 and the other four only manage 1 out of 5 each. Although some of the courses do acknowledge the participation of non-native speakers in the recording of the dialogues, Tomlinson and Masuhara concluded that the focus was exclusively on British English and the language 'taught' is contemporary British middle-class standard. Burns and Hill (2013, p. 241) also reviewed global course books and asked, "How far do speaking activities reflect the changing nature of English as a global language, and the fact that most interactions in English in the world today are not restricted to two Native Speakers". They found the occasional non-native speaker but concluded that, "their impact is minimal and the purpose is not for exploration of communication between different speakers of English."

The materials developed for learners of EIL (English as an International Language) are substantially different from the materials traditionally used to teach EFL. In fact, global course books are criticized for not meeting the learners' needs of English as a global language. We need to think about the ways in which new materials could meet the learners' needs to communicate with non-native speakers than with native speakers of English. There is a need to make use of authentic texts and authentic tasks to provide maximum exposure to English language used for international communication purposes.

Topic-167: Materials: Traditional Practices and Principles

One characteristic of English used in international settings is its heterogeneity. Although linguistic variation is found in all natural human languages, English is unique with its multiple norms and diverse systems (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 199). The world-wide spread of English through migration, colonization, and globalization has resulted in the institutionalization of the language in multiple countries, where the language has become nativized and a new norm for the localized English has emerged (Kachru, 1986). Consequently, in the contexts of international communication,

different varieties of English are represented. That is, rather than switching to a distinct international variety of English, each speaker uses a his/her own variety of English, using various communicative strategies to achieve successful communication. EIL as though a uniform and homogeneous entity, in practice, implicit rules about appropriate forms and usage of English are negotiated for each communicative event and thus there is a great deal of formal and pragmatic variation across the situations (Friedrich & Matsuda, 2010; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). This suggests that in EIL classrooms, one of the important goals is to develop awareness of and sensitivity toward differences; in forms, uses, and users, and learn to respect those differences.

Traditional ELT teaching materials, especially textbooks and other materials specifically developed for classroom use, tend to focus on the standard varieties from the UK and the US. This is because the EFL curricula have focused on these varieties of English (Matsuda, 2002). These varieties have dominated the ELT profession for a long time, and thus seem 'natural' to most teachers and students. The existence of multiple legitimate varieties of English is rarely represented in ELT textbooks.

The dominance of the Inner Circle 2, particularly the UK and the US, is also apparent in representations of English users (Kachru, 1985). In the analysis of seven 7th-grade textbooks used in Japan from 1997–2002, it was found that the majority of the non-Japanese main characters in these textbooks were from Inner-Circle countries, specifically the US, Canada, Australia, and Scotland, and they tended to play more significant roles, producing more words and contributing more substantially to the dialogues (Matsuda, 2002). The number of characters from the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle other than Japan constituted less than 10% of the total, and the use of English exclusively among non-native speakers, 3 which in reality is increasing (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1997), was rarely present in the dialogues: most were between native and nonnative speakers of English and some were even exclusively among Inner- Circle speakers. This study focused specifically on English textbooks used in Japan, but anecdotes shared by teachers from other Expanding-Circle countries suggest that the tendency to focus on US/UK English and English users seems to be prevalent in various contexts. Overall, materials published specifically for classroom use as opposed to "authentic" materials individual teachers choose to bring in tend to be based on and reinforce a common assumption in the field of ELT that English is the language of the Inner Circle, particularly that of the US and the UK, and the reason for learning English is to interact with native English speakers, which often is equated with those from the UK and the US. One problem of such representation of the English language and users the present-day use of EIL is that it is incomplete and may result in a limited and skewed understanding of who speaks English and for what purposes. Such a limited perception of the English language may lead to confusion or resistance when students are confronted with different types of English users (users from the Outer Circle). Students may be shocked by varieties and uses of English that differ from Inner-Circle English, view them as deficient rather than different, or be disrespectful of such varieties and uses. Current representations of English as the language of the Inner-Circle speakers, as already stated, also fail to acknowledge the increased use of English among non-native speakers of English. This is also problematic because if students do not understand the significance of the uses of English among non-native speakers, they may not fully take advantage of the opportunities that accompany the use of EIL. Instead, students may assume that English belongs to the Inner Circle, and that others are expected to conform to

Inner-Circle norms and remain in a peripheral position in international communication in English (Matsuda, 2003).

The relationship between teaching materials' representations and the construction of students' language ideology is yet to be empirically verified, but it is at least safe to say that representations that do not accurately capture the reality of EIL use are inadequate in preparing learners for such use of the language. A language is not merely a combination of discrete linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge, but rather a dynamic system embedded in a social context (Berns, 1990; Halliday, 1978).

Therefore, the awareness of the context of English, including its worldwide spread, diversity in its forms and functions, and the increased use among non-native speakers, is crucial for understanding and acquiring English. Fortunately, there is increasing attention and research on world Englishes and EIL that we can draw from in order to make teaching materials more comprehensive and useful for both teachers and students of EIL.

Practices and Principles for an EIL Framework

How accurately the textbook and other teaching materials represent the complex reality of English today is one of many questions one must ask in evaluating, selecting, and developing materials. The appropriateness of levels, integration of skills being taught in class, and quality and amount of exercises are some examples of questions that teachers ask, regardless of their commitment to bring in the EIL perspective to their pedagogy. But for those who are interested in the EIL perspective, there are some additional questions to ask in order to gauge the comprehensiveness and appropriateness of an EIL representation in teaching materials. Here I will present those questions and why they are relevant in teaching EIL. I will then present steps a teacher can take to determine what is needed to be modified or added to the materials currently used. At the end, some sources one can turn to for supplemental materials are discussed.

Criteria for Evaluating Teaching Materials: Which Variety of English is the Material Based on? Is it the Variety my Students Should Learn?

Multiple varieties of English are used successfully in international communication contexts, which imply a wide variety of Englishes to choose from when selecting an instructional model for English instruction. The dominant instructional model(s) of the course should be selected according to the goal of the curriculum and the needs of students, and the varieties of English represented in the teaching materials should match the focus of the course. For instance, if the central goal of the course is to prepare students to study in the UK, the textbooks and other materials must introduce students to British (academic) English and its culture(s). Similarly, if the course is to prepare business professionals to relocate to Hong Kong, ideal materials would expose learners to a kind of Hong Kong English used in business as well as for social purposes (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011).

In many cases, American or British English, the two most popular choices for instructional models may be a reasonable choice. They are considered legitimate and respected in many international contexts i.e., they may not be the most preferred in all contexts but are acceptable in

many. After all, there is nothing with these varieties. One key issue here, is that such a selection must be made after consideration and should not disregard the need for students to be aware, appreciative and somewhat prepared for the encounter with other varieties. And in unfortunate cases where such consideration has not already taken place as part of the curriculum design, such gaps may be filled through careful selection and development of teaching materials.

Does it Provide Adequate Exposure to Other Varieties of English and Raise Enough Awareness about the Linguistic Diversity of English?

It is realistic for a course or textbook to focus on one variety of English because, even in an EIL course, it is neither possible nor necessary for students to become fluent in multiple varieties of English. Most people whether native or non-native speakers, who use English for international communication, are fluent in a limited set of English varieties. However, students must understand about the Engish variety they are learning and may differ from what their future speakers use. If the variety serving the instructional model is the only variety presented in class, an impression might be formed that it is the only correct variety. Such an impression inaccurate and could also lead to negative attitudes toward other varieties of English and students' confidence in successful communication involving multiple varieties of English (Matsuura, Chiba, & Fujieda, 1999). Furthermore, their ability to interpret interactions in various Englishes correctly may also be compromised (Smith & Nelson, 2006).

There are several ways to increase students' awareness of English varieties using appropriate materials. One is to use pre-packaged teaching materials that already include multiple varieties of English. CDs that accompany textbooks may include samples of different varieties of English. The listening section of the current TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) test includes speakers from Britain, Australia, New Zealand, and North America. While the selection is still limited to Inner-Circle varieties, this change in the TOEIC test makes it possible and even desirable to introduce varieties other than American and British English. Another way to expose students to different varieties of English is through supplemental materials both those created for pedagogical purposes and non-pedagogical purposes that include textual, audio, and visual samples of other varieties of English. Luckily, these materials are now widely accessible through the use of internet. If students are starting a chapter on Native American cultures in the US, why not bring in a short documentary of Native American culture that also features speakers of Native American Englishes? If they are learning English in India, introduce an article or two from an English language newspaper from India such as 'The Times of India'. This would allow students to see that English varieties are not only a matter of different pronunciation features or vocabulary, but rather a much more encompassing manifestation of cultural, linguistic, and other values. Finally, yet another way to increase students' meta-knowledge about Englishes is by making it a lesson focus. In Japan, for instance, there are several textbooks and readers that are based on the discussion of the global spread of English (*English Across Cultures* by Honna, Kirkpatrick, & Gilbert, 2001); those that include a chapter on different national varieties of English (a chapter on Singlish in Crown English Series II by Shimozaki et al., 2004); as well as popular magazines featuring articles on these issues. Such materials allow teachers to explicitly teach students about the use of English as an international language and its linguistic, cultural, and political implications.

Does it Represent a Variety of Speakers?

The world-wide spread of English has also changed the demographics of English users. English is not used exclusively among native English speakers or even between native and non-native English speakers, but also for communication among non-native speakers of English (Graddol, 1997; Smith, 1983; Widdowson, 1994). The assumption that non-native English speakers learn English in order to communicate with native English speakers does not always hold true anymore.

It is important that the materials used in class should consider native and non-native speakers, particularly those similar to learners themselves. Such an inclusive representation signifies the profile of English users more accurately and helps learners develop a more realistic expectation about their future interlocutors. Additionally, the inclusive representation of speakers fosters the sense of ownership of English. Several applied linguists pointed out that English no longer belongs exclusively to native speakers of English (Graddol, 1997; McKay, 2002; Widdowson, 1994). Graddol wrote in his book, The Future of English, "Native speakers may feel the language 'belongs' to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future" (p. 10). Widdowson (1994) also wrote, How English develops in the world is of no business whatever native speakers in England, the United States, or anywhere else. They have no right to say, to intervene or pass judgement in the matter (p. 385). In other words, the process of learning to use EIL involves a process of claiming ownership of the language. Such sense of ownership may be fostered through a variety of ways, from having an opportunity to use English for authentic communication to meet someone with a similar background using English effectively to have explicit discussions in it. But if the teaching materials continue to portray only Inner-Circle users of English, it will send a message that the language belongs to the Inner Circle, and that the learners are using the language to talk to those people only. This actually leads to the third reason to argue for an inclusive representation of speakers. The inclusion of people who are similar to the learner is important because they serve as the role model. Specifically, it allows learners to see themselves as someone who can become a legitimate user of the language. EIL learners rely on English textbooks and other teaching materials to create an imagined community where English is used as a medium of communication (Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). Textbook characters that are similar to themselves makes it easier for students to imagine themselves as legitimate members of the community, and thus brings English closer to them. It allows them to take the ownership of not only the language but also the experience of language learning.

Whose Cultures are Represented?

Language classes often incorporate the teaching of culture as part of their content because language and culture are considered inseparable. Language constructs and reflects culture. Rules about the appropriateness of language use are culture-specific. Although the concept of culture is difficult to define, there seems to be a consensus among language teaching specialists that culture holds a legitimate space in language teaching, and consequently, in material designing.

While some scholars argue that English has become de-anglicized (Kachru, 1992), it does not necessarily mean that English has become de-culturalized. Rather, it is now intricately intertwined with a wide variety of cultures, including national and regional cultures that were not traditionally

associated with English (Canagarajah, 2006). In English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses the content of the teaching materials is naturally tied to the specific purpose for which students would be prepared. For example, textbooks on English for international business may include readings on principles of cross-cultural business negotiation or cultural differences in business ethics. A teacher of a medical English course may incorporate a video clip of movie scenes that depict conversation between a doctor and patient in English, preferably from diverse English-speaking contexts involving different types of English speakers. In other words, the culture taught in such a course may be specific to the professional and discipline-specific community.

In general English courses, where learners are preparing themselves for the use of English in international contexts, culture is defined much more broadly. And for teaching materials to capture such broadness, their cultural content must be drawn from multiple sources. The first source of cultural content is global cultures, which includes topics beyond national boundaries and are relevant to the global society as a whole. Topics as 'world peace' and 'environment' are already popular in ELT teaching materials, and they provide appropriate content for readings, class discussions, and course assignments in EIL classrooms, they help in fostering the sense of global citizenship among students. This is particularly useful in contexts where inter-subject/departmental collaboration and coordination is encouraged. For instance, English teachers and science teachers may collaboratively develop a unit on world ecology, allowing students to study the topic from multiple perspectives and reinforce learning in two languages. Another example of a global topic is that of 'the role of EIL' itself. Students can read, write, discuss, or conduct research on such topics as the spread of English, multilingualism, language ecology, and language rights. Materials targeted for particular grades and language levels can assist teachers in presenting these topics in a meaningful way to students.

The second source would be the culture(s) of their future speakers. In today's global world where English is the most common lingua franca, a person from any culture who uses English becomes a part of the English-speaking world. The challenge here is that those speakers who are unknown to English culture, it would be impossible for them to touch upon every culture within English speaking countries. The way to address this challenge is to diversify the content and include countries and regions from various parts of the world in their teaching materials. This illustrates not only the geographical spread but also the functional diversity of the language.

The third possible source of cultural content for EIL materials is the learner's own culture. When English was considered as the language of the UK and the US and merely as a tool to access information, knowledge, and resources only available in the language; the knowledge of a narrowly defined "English-speaking culture" may have been adequate. Today's use of EIL is not limited to exchanges between native and non-native speakers of English, there is often a desire to establish and maintain an equal, mutually-respectful relationship with others. In such cases, the ability to perceive and analyze the familiar culture from an outsider's perspective is critical. Culture is not limited to traditional and often stereotype culture, such as 'sushi' for Japan and 'soccer' for Brazil. The beliefs and practices of students' experience of school, family, community also constitute local culture. From this perspective, any materials that engage students to explain local culture, to critically reflect upon what they take for granted, and to work on skills for describing local culture in English can be legitimately incorporated into EIL classrooms.

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Is it Appropriate for Local Contexts?

Another issue that has been paid more attention in recent years is the question of the appropriateness of curriculum, methodology, and teaching materials for local teaching contexts (McKay, 2002). Some scholars have argued that we cannot automatically assume certain teaching methodologies that are well received in the western contexts work equally well with students and teachers in other parts of the world (e.g., Hino, 1988b; Hu, 2002). Every culture has its own way of teaching and learning in the local context. Although there is nothing wrong with introducing a new pedagogical approach, this cannot be expected to work well without any adjustments in a new context and should not be assumed to be more effective or better than the local practices. The same argument applies to the appropriateness of teaching materials. That is, materials should be based on the familiar ways of teaching and learning, and should attract approaches which are already accustomed to teachers and learners. Thus, values represented in teaching materials could potentially come into direct conflict with teachers and students. Difference of opinion created by such conflicts is not necessarily a bad thing as the exposure to different values broadens one's perspective and provides a learning opportunity. Furthermore, the increased access to the global community through English is to introduce conflicting values and thus students may appreciate the new values they encounter in a language classroom. Introducing unfamiliar values requires careful planning and responses. For instance, a mixed-gendered dialogue in a professional context may seem strange or unrealistic to students in a society where gender roles are rigidly defined and clearly divided, and may require some explanation. Similarly, we must ensure that students are not offended and alienated by textbooks representations, that their commitment to learning is adversely affected. In some cases, teachers themselves become confused by the values and practices presented in the textbooks, and thus need extra time to figure out their position in the discussion. It is also important that the content of teaching materials is relevant and meaningful to learners, as educational research suggests that students learn better when they find the material real and meaningful to themselves (Howard, 2003; Billings, 1995). It could be exemplify like climate, children from a place with a long winter and of snow likely relate a story about fireplaces more easily than those living in the tropical weather would. Same as an editorial article about working conditions for women may be hard to relate with that society where women typically do not work outside the home.

It is, in fact, a great learning opportunity if the story serves as the window to parts of the world and ideas children has never thought before. It means, the children may need extra preparation to make them able to engage in the story. The class may need to learn about cold weather and snow, playing with artificial snow to feel that the story is relevant to them. It would be unsuccessful if students do not learn a language well because they found the teaching materials foreign to them.

Topic-168: The Needs and Wants of Learners of English as a Lingua Franca, and Designing Materials

The learners of English as a lingua franca need primarily to develop their ability to:

- understand English when it is written or spoken by non-native speakers of English from different regions of the world

- make them understood in speech and writing to non-native speakers of English
- interact effectively with non-native speakers of English

In addition, they need to pass the examinations for progress academically and/or professionally progress. The major examinations of English proficiency still assume that the model is a standard variety of native speaker English, and they assess candidates in relation to their approximation to native speaker norms (Tomlinson, 2010). Jenner (1997) and Jenkins (2000) argued that a corpus of the phonological lingua franca core of English should be made use of in testing pronunciation. Seidlhofer (2001), Cook (2002), Prodromou (2003), and Jenkins (2012) have proposed the use of corpora of International English to inform the testing of English as an L2. Tomlinson (2006, p. 145) has proposed a 'Core Examination of Proficiency in English as an International Language' plus supplementary examinations in proficiency in the use of specific sub-varieties of EIL. Tomlinson (2010) further discussed that the English we should test is the appropriate and effective variety of English in the contexts in which the candidates need to use English.

The wants of learners regarding English as a lingua franca are very similar to those of English learners for any other purposes. They want to express them as human beings, to communicate their feelings and ideas, to become humorous and interesting in English. These human wants are very important and should not be surrendered for instrumental needs in any syllabus or materials. It creates confidence and competence of English learners, which then facilitates the more instrumental needs.

Another want, is to use English as native speakers do. Surveys of learners and teachers have demonstrated a preference for native speaker norms. This preference is understandable given the prestige according to standard varieties of native speaker English, but it is regrettably holding back the movement towards more realistic teaching (Timmis, 2002). Just like the dismissal of English as a lingua franca as an inevitably inferior variety of the language, the preference for learning to speak native speaker English reflects an understandable lack of awareness of all the issues involved.

An important point rarely made is that learners, who are exposed to and taught in global course books, are not native speaker English at all. It is an idealized and simplified version of a standard variety of English, which bears little resemblance to the English used in native speaker interaction in the real world. These texts and tasks do not represent the reality of actual language use, but they can mislead too, especially when presenting examples of written grammar as of spoken English (Burns & Hill, 2013; Timmis, 2013).

Topic-169: Materials: Use of Spoken Interactions of Native and Non-native Speakers

1. The Use of Authentic Texts

Users of English as a Lingua Franca need to experience language as it is used in the real world, not as it is practiced in the idealized world of the course book dialogues. They are not learning English as a hobby or an academic pursuit but as a vitally important means of participation in an international world. They need to be able to communicate with people from different cultures and

language backgrounds; they need to establish credibility; they need to be able to express their views and opinions; they need to be able to conduct transactions; and they need to be able to make friends and get on well with colleagues. To achieve this, they need to experience things both successful and unsuccessful in speech and in writing. This means that they need to read and listen to the texts which are authentic in sense and are related to the learners' current and future worlds (Tomlinson, 2013a, p. 6). Materials aiming at explicit learning usually contrive examples of the language focus on the features being taught. Usually these examples are presented in short, easy, specially written or simplified texts or dialogues, and it is argued that they help the learners by focusing their attention on the target feature. The counter-argument is that such texts overprotect the learners, deprive them of the opportunities for acquisition provided by rich texts and do not prepare them for the actual language use.

Meaningful engagement with authentic lingua franca texts is a prerequisite for the development of communicative and strategic competence when using English as a lingua franca. Such texts can be collected and kept in libraries ready to use in materials development and can also be created by interactive negotiation between lingua franca learners. The latter is perhaps the best way of collecting texts for lower level learners. One way of doing this is to get lingua franca learners at a slightly higher level to improvise dialogues and record them.

The internet and the mobile phone offer great opportunities for materials writers and teachers to find authentic lingua franca interactions to use as materials and for students to interact with native and with non-native speakers in the same or other countries both as a means of providing experience of lingua franca communication and of providing texts for use as materials with the same or with other students. An example of the use of mobile phones to create semi-authentic lingua franca materials is reported in Kern (2013) when taxi drivers in Bursa, Turkey used their phones to create and send in taxi driver/tourist customer dialogues whilst they were in their taxis waiting for customers.

2. The Use of Authentic Tasks

Tomlinson (2012) defines an authentic task as "one which involves the learners in communicating to achieve an outcome, rather than to practice the language". Authentic tasks can be realistic and they replicate in the classroom with real communicative demands. What is needed when developing materials for learners of English as an International Language (EIL) is an inventory of typical contexts of communication for users of EIL (Tomlinson 2006 , p. 139) and an inventory of the key skills and sub-skills needed by users of EIL. Then, authentic tasks can be developed to facilitate the development of relevant skills and of pragmatic EIL competence (Cohen and Ishihara 2013).

Contexts of EIL communication which can be used to design spoken activities:

- a foreign visitor seeking information/directions/assistance from a local resident in a non-English speaking country
- a foreign visitor giving directions to a local taxi driver in a non-English speaking country

- a foreign resident seeking and giving information to a local official in a non- English speaking country
- travellers from different countries interacting at an airport/on a plane/on a train
- business men from different countries negotiating a contract
- a foreign visitor/resident consulting a local doctor in a non-English speaking country
- sports fans/experts/commentators communicating at an international sports event
- delegates at an international conference discussing a presentation
- travellers booking flights, hotels, restaurants etc. on the phone, Skype or internet
- travellers communicating about arrangements for meetings, travel, conferences etc. by e-mail

3. The Use of Spoken Interactions between Non-native Speakers

Listening to and replicating dialogues between idealized native speakers provide rich, varied and extensive experience of listening to non-native speakers of English. Ideally, they need experience of interacting themselves with non-native speakers of English from different parts of the world. Successful non-native speaker interactions can be motivating to learners and can act as positive models. Struggling interactions can provide learners with experience of typical reality and help them to develop strategies for coping with it. The interaction with a variety of other non-native speakers is less satisfied in monolingual class but with the help of mobile technology (e.g., Skype) learners can participate in lingua franca interaction and visitors can be invited to visit the class. This helps learners to become effective communicators at different levels of proficiency.

4. Pragmatic Awareness Activities

The EIL learners need to develop sensitivity towards different cultural norms and be able to accommodate their pragmatic norms towards those speakers. "Conversation is co-constructed by two or more interlocutors, dynamically adapting their expression to the on-going exchange." Biber et al. (1999). Obviously, EIL learners cannot become proficient in communicating with people from all regions and cultures. They can develop their ability to become sensitive to different ways of greeting people, inviting people, declining invitations, seeking information, seeking clarification, giving opinions, expressing agreement, expressing disagreement, and expressing gratitude. They can also develop ability to vary the way according to speech acts.

Cohen and Ishihara (2013) point out how inadequate most EFL course books are in helping learners to develop pragmatic competence, and Timmis (2013) reveals the gaps between the realities of spoken interaction and its representation in dialogues in course books. In order to prepare for the realities of spoken interaction, it is important that EIL learners are exposed to authentic interactions rather than scripted dialogues in which native speakers interact orally in a standard written English. In a pragmatic awareness activity, the learners are prepared to read, listen to or watch a text (short story, song or extract from a film) through reflecting on their own experiences of similar situations portrayed in the text. They then experience the text holistically before responding to it personally (e.g., expressing their view of one of the characters or their response to a proposal). Then, in groups, they focus on a particular pragmatic feature of the text (e.g., strategies for persuasion; attempts to

justify; ways of declining) and make discoveries about how it is used to achieve the intended effect. This is followed by 'research' activities that involve the learners in finding further samples of the use of the pragmatic feature in discourse used outside the classroom (in, for example, newspapers, magazines, novels, tv programmes, internet communications).

Topic-170: Materials: Use of Written Texts Produced by Native and Non-native Speakers

The Use of Written Texts Produced by Non-native Speakers for Global Readership

We have focused on EIL as a lingua franca for oral communication to a large extent. This is undoubtedly its main function and, because of its many varieties and the multiplicity of its cultural norms, its main problem too. Written EIL tends to be closer to native speaker norms, but it varies to pose problems for learners who are unfamiliar with particular varieties. Typically in course books, learners only encounter texts written in standard British or American English. It would really help them if were taken from literature, songs, newspapers advertisements, notices, instructions, blogs, tweets, e-mails and letters written by non-native speakers from such ESL countries as Nigeria, India and Malaysia, as well as from such EFL countries as Brazil, Egypt and Japan. Instead of being treated as deviations from standard norms such texts should be treated as samples of authentic language use for the learners to gain experience. There should be a combination of both native and non- native texts.

Lesson-35

DIGITAL MEDIA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic-171: Use of Digital Media in Teaching EIL: Methods

The use of digital media in language learning has its roots in individualized computer-based drill and practice activities to assist learners in mastering grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation (for a historical overview, see Warschauer, 1996). Later, computer-based activities were designed to stimulate authentic communication, but the computer was still viewed as an occasional tool to promote learning rather than as an integral medium of language and literacy. Here we discuss a newer approach to technology in teaching English as an international language (EIL), in which digital media become essential tools of global interaction and global literacy. In this approach, mastery of language, mastery of new technologies, and the ability to combine language and technology to read and write the world become inseparable goals of the international English language classroom. Students deploy a variety of autonomous learning tools, such as concordancers and automated scoring engines, and an even greater variety of communication tools, from Skype and podcasts to blogging and micro blogging, to hone their language and literacy skills as they use English to interact with others, publish their work, and leave their mark on society. Traditional goals of accuracy and fluency get expanded to include global agency, that is, the power to make meaningful choices and see the results of those choices both near and far. These forms of global communication and agency match well with the context of English as an international language, in which the ability to meaningfully interact in diverse media with speakers of many varieties of English from around the world takes precedence over mastery of a more narrowly defined set of skills, such as achievement of native-like pronunciation.

We view practices of global literacy, interaction, and agency as situated within new technological developments, changing social norms and evolving modes of production and consumption. In the competing social, economic, and political forces, digital media acts as a powerful source. We thus consider literacy within a power framework which emphasizes the goal of literacy instruction to enable individuals and communities to create and exchange of meaning for greater "civic, economic, and personal participation" (Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu, 2008, p. 14). We explore the various resources and challenges of incorporating digital media within the context of teaching EIL so that students develop the multiple and multimodal literacies necessary for this participation. It is suggested that teachers should consider how digital media be incorporated into their local contexts to foster not only the skills associated with language proficiency, but also the knowledge and attitudes in an interconnected, global society.

Topic- 172: Digital Media and the EIL Classroom: Traditional Principles and Practices

The key question related to digital media in the EIL classroom is concerned with the development of appropriate materials. English curricular materials rely on importing resources that flow uni-directionally and uncritically from Western countries (Canagarajah, 1999). In discussing the need for materials designers to develop resources that more flexibly incorporate into local cultures and intercultural mindsets, McKay (2002) promoted a vision of the EIL classroom as "an

international community par excellence". Such an international community need not be grounded in Western, English-speaking countries, nor would it necessarily prioritize local cultures; rather, it should provide space for multiple converging and contested voices in English from around the world to interact. For teachers, the design of such materials, even within a skills-based approach, involves emphasizing opportunities for critical engagement with content, while also avoiding the primacy of predominantly English-speaking countries' cultural materials.

Digital media offer a number of ways to enhance materials development and learner feedback across the traditional skills (for an extended discussion, see Levy, 2009). Chun (2006) reviewed a number of technologies available to support reading in a second language, some of which are available non-commercially such as electronic and online dictionaries, hyperlinks to vocabulary words that are embedded within many online texts, or the use of the Internet to obtain a wider range of sources. She also points towards software that can provide annotations through multimedia and promote word recognition.

A few examples of such support at the secondary education level include elective (Cummins, 2008) and Text Adaptor from Educational Testing Services (2010), both of which allow teachers to quickly translate grade-level texts into language appropriate for their English language learners. Visual-syntactic text formatting via Live Ink software also can make authentic English language materials more comprehensible to learners (Walker, Schloss, Fletcher, Vogel, & Walker, 2005). While these commercial products are unlikely to be currently available for many EIL teachers, they suggest a possible trend in the near future and also point to other types of textual supports that teachers can create themselves with the Internet. Simple English Wikipedia (http://simple.wikipedia.org), for example, provides texts with less complex syntax and reduced vocabulary and can be used as a supplemental resource for reading materials on a wide range of topics.

Digital media provide numerous options to support writing when the focus is primarily on formal features of written language in traditional classrooms. For grammar instruction, teachers can access any number of websites that provide individualized practice of grammar (cf., Purdue Online Writing Lab, http://owl.english.purdue. edu), or they can create their own vocabulary and grammar activities using freeware such as Hot Potatoes (http://hotpot.uvic.ca), which allows instructors to create different types of online activities (e.g., multiple choice, short answer, jumbled text, crossword) and post them to the Internet. Even as word processing has become more commonplace in the classroom, features such as track changes and embedding comments are better options for teacher or peer feedback (Ho & Savignon, 2007). Automated writing evaluation software programs offer options for individualized, immediate feedback to students as they learn to revise their essays (Warschauer & Ware, 2006);such programs are designed to promote formal writing within a relatively narrow range of genres and organizing structures, which may be more or less appropriate in different contexts and will manifest differently depending on the degree of integration into instruction (Warschauer & Grimes, 2008).

Listening and speaking skills can be augmented using digital media through computer tools that provide individualized feedback on speaking and options for learner-controlled listening activities

(Levy, 2009). Many Internet-based listening supports are available in the form of websites that allow students to control the speed, to pause, or to repeat segments of speech. The Internet also offers access to a wide range of examples of English speakers that can provide learners with practice in listening to a variety of authentic intonation patterns, rhythms, stress, and segmentation (see, e.g., http://EnglishCentral.com).

In addition to these tutorial-based options, teachers use technology to help learners practice listening and speaking skills with more interactive tools. Podcasting, the creation and sharing of audio files on the web, has received much attention recently, as it can be used to promote listening and speaking skills (O'Bryan & Hegelheimer, 2007) by allowing students to download a wide variety of authentic materials or to create and upload their own files for audiences within and outside the classroom. Digital media allow students to record and review their own speech, to speak with others at no cost via online voicemail and synchronous tools, to create audio-blogs, and to participate in voiced bulletin boards. Such uses create a learner-centered environment that can enhance students' agency by making available listening content that would otherwise not be obtained, legitimizing diverse varieties of English, and allowing learners to contribute and critique their own content. In sum, these tools can be used to provide students with exposure to a wide range of pronunciation patterns to help them recognize the differences between accents and thus to enhance their receptive competence and their communicative competence in EIL.

The use of digital media, even within the context of more traditional practices, can resituate the goals of classroom instruction to be aimed not at mastery of a discrete set of English-language skills, but at the *use* of those skills within more meaningful, enriching contexts by offering local control of materials, individualized feedback, and personalization of learning.

Topic-173: Global Literacy: EIL Classrooms Inside a Changing World

We now examine the explicit attempts to foster global literacy. Such attempts respond to social and economic globalization, which has heightened the interdependence and interconnectedness among nations and people and has imposed a demand for an international means of communication. As Crystal (2003) has noted, there are no precedents in human history for what happens to languages in such circumstances of rapid change are available. There never has been a more urgent need for a global language (p. 14). English has taken up this role as the first global language, used worldwide for tourism, commerce, negotiation, and science, beyond its connection to individual countries and cultures (Alptekin, 2002; Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006; Paradowski, 2008). Although the 6.2% of the world population who speak English as their primary language is relatively small in comparison to the 20.7% who speak Chinese, the global influence of English is compounded by many factors, including the number of secondary speakers, the economic power associated with English language, the social and cultural prestige, and the distribution of English across areas of commercial activity and tourism (Weber, 2008).

The shift to English as an international language is both shaped by and a shaping force for globalization. Graddol (2006) points out, "the phenomenon of English being a global language lies at the heart of globalization". In particular, the development and diffusion of information and

communication technologies have gone hand in hand with the spread of global English (Graddol, 1997; McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Warschauer & De Florio-Hansen, 2003). In 2010, an estimated 27.3% of global total internet usage was in English, followed by 22.6% in Chinese, dropping to single digits for all other languages (Miniwatts Marketing Group, 2010). There are still major incentives for individuals to learn English to send and receive information on the Internet and to interact with a global audience (see discussion in McKay, 2002). Currently, English, coupled with the communicative power of technology, is being used as a means for speakers to share ideas and cultures, and perhaps more importantly, to express their identity and to "make their voices heard" (Warschauer, 2000, p. 530), and this combined influence of English and digital media is likely to gain even more momentum in the coming years.

Just as digital media are helping shape the role of English as an international language, so too are they shifting EIL classrooms from a focus on mastery of skills to an emphasis on using English to communicate and engage with speakers all around the world. English learners are now seen as global communicators, sharers of local cultures, arbiters of misunderstandings, and valued contributors to a growing global community. Communication skills therefore take on a new importance for English teaching (Cameron, 2002; Cortazzi, 2000), as the Internet provides a social environment that students enter with increasing frequency outside of the classroom. In this environment, many students typically use English rather than their first language for their interactions (Warschauer, 2001). When digital media are used to support integration of language skills within a larger communicative purpose, then other aspects of language use come to the fore: agency, identity, authenticity, and authorship (Kramsch, A'Ness, & Lam, 2000). Research exploring these aspects has primarily been conducted on non-institutional settings and provides a starting point before we discuss implications for the EIL classroom.

Topic-174: Contribution of ICT to L2 Development

The use of CALL in EFL classrooms is linked with the computer and language learning theories. CALL has the potential to provide a "rich linguistic environment" which is the key to language learning (Youngs et al. 2011, p. 25). The teacher, learner, and the language make up the core components of the L2 classroom, therefore computer is often considered a fourth component, a tool that can encourage teachers to understand better the process of learning and how to support their students to be successful learners (Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008).

Technology has supported L2 language theories since the 1950s, such as the chalkboard's support of grammar translation and the cassette tape's support of the audio-lingual method. By the 1980s, communicative approaches to language learning had emerged, which focused on student interaction in meaningful exchanges (Warschauer & Meskill, 2000).

Topic- 175: Principles of Selecting and Evaluating ICT Tools and Resources

What principles can teachers follow in selecting and evaluating ICT tools and resources for the EFL classroom? Teachers today may be encouraged or expected by administrators, parents, or learners to incorporate CALL into their teaching. But they may lack guidelines on how to do this for

the benefit of learners. Teachers need to be aware of the applications and websites available to them for L2 learning, and need to adapt them according to their teaching and learning contexts (Bloch & Wilkinson 2014).

Chapelle and Jamieson (2008, p. 3) made three basic assumptions about the language classroom:

- Learners need guidance in learning English.
- There are many styles of English used for different purposes.
- Teachers should provide guidance by selecting appropriate language and by structuring learning activities.

Towndrow and Vallance (2004) viewed that IT in language learning needs must be integrated into meaningful tasks that involve multi-faceted use of the target language. The underlying premise is that the best use of IT aims to provide language learners with enrich and diverse experiences in the classroom. There are ten characteristics of IT that add value to language learning (Towndrow & Vallance, 2004, p. 105). The teachers can keep these questions into mind when use information technology in the classroom. Does the incorporation of IT;

- Make possible activities that could not be done as easily or at all in the printbased realm?
- Allow the integration of digital media?
- Allow greater flexibility as to the place and time when learning takes place?
- Allow access to a wide range of information?
- Allow for a focus on both the products and processes of learning?
- Allow instructional material to be stored and recycled?
- Encourage discussion and consultation?
- Provide a channel for feedback and assessment?
- Eliminate or reduce the need to duplicate previously produced materials?
- Allow time to be saved?

Towndrow (2007, p.68–69) further proposed what teachers must take into account the learners' needs, interests, and abilities when planning a lesson involving ICT.

Mobile devices also represent technologically infused language learning. Making decisions on how and when to use these devices in an L2 setting involves further considerations. Stockwell and Hubbard (2013) proposed a set of principles to guide task designers when developing a mobile language learning activity. Developers are encouraged to limit multitasking in an activity, keep activities short, and provide guidance to learners and teachers to use mobile devices for language learning. Additionally, Stockwell and Hubbard (2013) encouraged developers to plan for unequal ownership and access to mobile devices among learners, and to recognise learners' preferences for public vs. private learning spaces. For example, users may associate their mobile device with social rather than educational purposes and are reluctant to use it for learning purposes. In developing an activity, or even a L2 learning application, these additional considerations could contribute or undermine the success of the activity.

Conclusion

There is a wide range of digital tools and resources that can extend or expand in language teaching and learning. From free web resources and commercial programs that can help learners practice and develop specific language skills to 'adaptable' programs that can underpin and enable learning to an extent not possible even 20 years ago, teachers and learners have many possible ways to learn with information and communication technology ICT. Stommel and Morris (2015) suggested ten best strategies for digital teachers. Among them, they

- start by working with the tools they're familiar with
- incorporate ICT incrementally
- find ways to adapt or 'hack' digital tools
- improvise and allow space for discoveries and surprises.

Language teachers need to be clear about their purpose for incorporating ICT into their classroom. Developing an awareness of how specific tools or techniques can enhance learning is essential. Finding ways to design meaningful language learning activities that motivate learners through useful contributions is a key task for teachers, and can lead to greater satisfaction and learning effectiveness than teachers. It also helps readers to become aware of the links between L2 theories and CALL. In the end, teachers need to implement ICT their classrooms to achieve educational goals, and to benefit the students in many ways.

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Lesson-36

PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY

Topic-176: What is Learner Autonomy?

The term 'autonomy' is derived originally from the fields of politics and moral philosophy and is widely confused with self-instruction and independent learning (Benson, 2001, 2007). The concept of learner's autonomy has first developed in the early 1970's in France. In educational circles, autonomy is considered a worthy goal for philosophical as well as for psychological reasons. From a philosophical point of view, one of the desirable goals of general education has been to make individuals autonomous who think independently and act responsibly. In this changing world where instant decision making is a prerequisite for successful functioning, helping learners to become autonomous is one way to maximize their chances for success. The psychological foundation for learner autonomy can be traced into cognitive psychology, which suggests that learning is very effective if the learner integrates knowledge in his/her personal framework; humanistic psychology, emphasizes the promotion of learners' self-esteem through personal ownership of learning; and in educational psychology, there is a strong connection between learner autonomy and learner motivation (Broady & Kenning, 1996).

A review of the literature on learner autonomy in L2 education reveals a diversity of ideas as well as terms. Some of the terms that are widely used in the context of learner autonomy are: self-instruction, self-direction, self-access learning, and individualized instruction.

- Self-instruction refers to situations in which learners are working without the direct control of the teacher.
- Self-direction refers to situations in which learners accept responsibility for all the decisions concerned with learning but not necessarily for the implementation of those decisions.
- Self-access learning refers to situations in which learners make use of self-access teaching material or instructional technology that is made available to them.
- Individualized instruction refers to situations in which the learning process is adapted, either by the teacher or by the learner, to suit the specific characteristics of an individual learner (Leslie Dickinson, 1987, p. 11)

These definitions indicate varying degrees of learner involvement and teacher engagement, ranging from total learner control over the aims and activities of learning to partial learner in terms of methods and materials, and place and pace of study.

Reflective Task

Focusing on your class, consider the degree of autonomy exercised by the learners in that class in terms of goals, tasks, and assessments. Think about possible factors that may have contributed to total or partial or no learner control in that class.

Scholars such as Dickinson (1987), Ellis and Sinclair (1989), Little (1990), Wenden (1991), Broady and Kenning (1996) have enriched our understanding of the concept of learner autonomy. We learn from these and other scholars that promoting learner autonomy is a matter of helping learners to

- develop a capacity for critical thinking, decision making, and independent action;
- discover their learning potential, in addition to merely gathering knowledge about the learning process;
- take responsibility for learning and for using appropriate strategies to achieve their general and specific objectives;
- face heavy psychological demands that require learners to confront their weaknesses and failures;
- develop self-control and self-discipline, which lead to self-esteem and self-confidence;
- give up total dependence on the teacher and the educational system, and move beyond a mere response to instruction; and
- understand that autonomy is a complex process of interacting with one's self, the teacher, the task, and the educational environment.

Topic-177: What Learner Autonomy is not?

While scholars tell us what learner autonomy actually is and what it is not:

- Autonomy is not independence, that is, learners have to learn to work cooperatively with their teachers, peers, and the educational system;
- Autonomy is not context-free, that is, the extent to which it can be practiced depends on factors such as learners' personality and motivation, their language learning needs and wants, and the educational environment within which learning takes place; and
- Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners, that is, autonomous learners are likely to be autonomous in one situation, but not necessarily in another, and they may very well choose to abdicate their own autonomy and look for teacher direction at certain stages in their learning.

Topic-178: Learning Strategies for Learner Autonomy

Research on the learning-to-learn approach to learner autonomy has produced useful taxonomies of learning strategies (O'Malley and Chamot; Oxford, 1990) as well as user-friendly manuals (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Chamot et al., 1999; Scharle & Szabo, 2000). These and other researchers seek to make learners more active participants in their language learning, and to make teachers more sensitive to learner diversity and learning difficulties. A taxonomy that offers a comprehensive system of learning strategies is the one proposed by Rebecca Oxford (1990). Her system consists of six strategy groups, three direct and three indirect.

Direct strategies are those that directly involve the target language. They are composed of memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information, cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language, and compensation strategies for doing with the limited, still-developing proficiency in the target language. They are all considered direct strategies since

they require mental processing of the target language. Indirect strategies are those that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. They are composed of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions and attitudes, and social strategies for learning and working with others. Figure 6.1 captures the salient features of the Oxford strategy system. Notice that many of the strategies suggested by Oxford are learner-centered, that is, they represent actions taken by learners to maximize their learning potential.

Taxonomies of learning strategies have provided us with useful insights into what learners need to know and can do to plan and regulate their learning. We know from research on learning strategies that, in addition to generic metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective strategies that learners follow, there are many individual ways of learning a language successfully and that different students will approach language learning differently.

We also learn that the most successful students use a greater variety of strategies and use them in ways appropriate to the language learning task and that less-successful learners not only have fewer strategy types in their repertoire but also frequently use strategies that are inappropriate to the task. The use and nonuse of appropriate strategies for appropriate tasks can easily make the difference between learning and nonlearning. It is therefore necessary to train learners in the effective use of learning strategies.

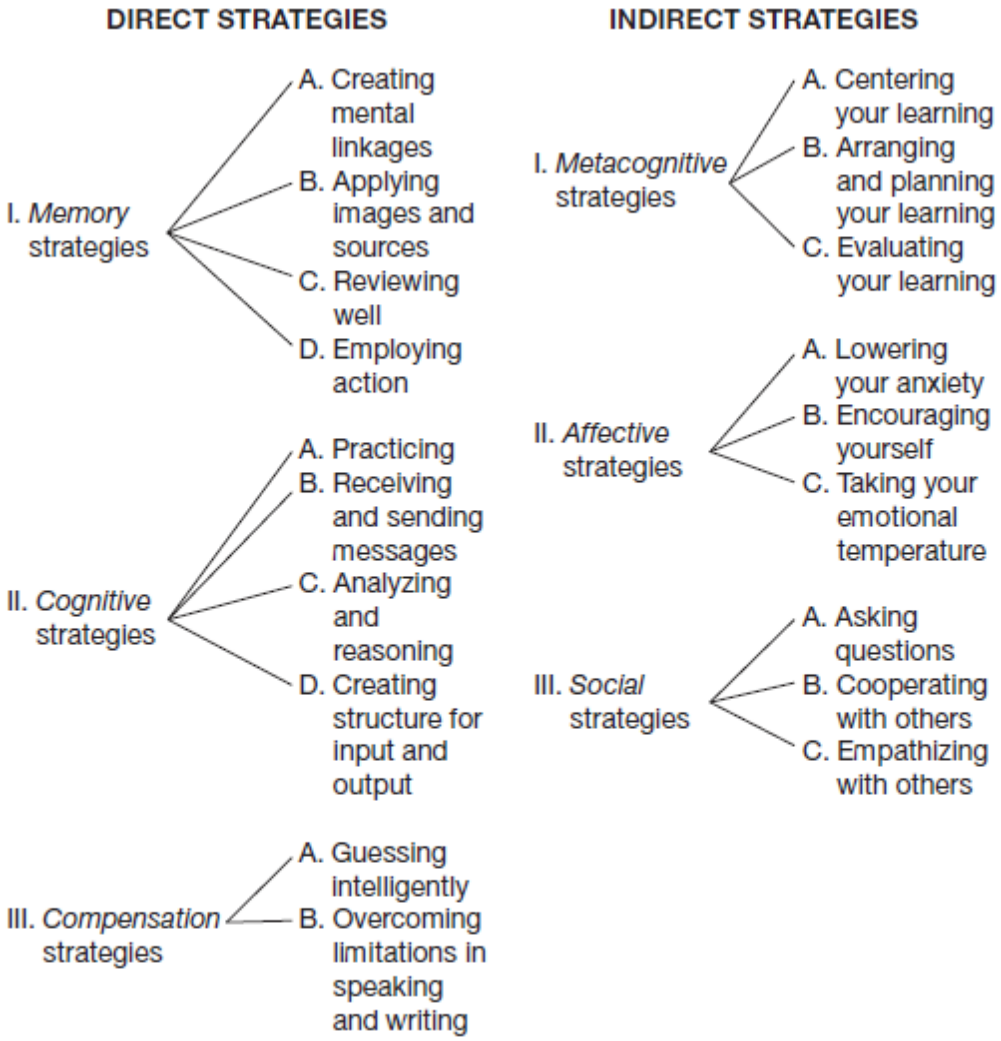


Figure 6.1 Oxford's Strategy System

Learner Training

Successful learner training includes psychological as well as strategic preparation. Owing to past experience, adult L2 learners tend to bring with preconceived notions about what constitutes learning and what constitutes teaching. They also take with them prior expectations about the learner and teacher relationship in the classroom. A crucial task of the teacher to promote learner autonomy is to help learners take responsibility for their learning, and to bring about necessary attitudinal changes in them. This psychological preparation should be combined with strategic training that helps learners understand the learning strategies and their usage for accomplishing various language learning tasks, to monitor their performance, and how to assess the outcome of their learning. Clearly, learners' ability to take charge of their own learning can be made possible only if they are trained to identify and use appropriate strategies. They not only have to consider the strategies that contribute to effective learning, but, they have to discover those that suit their learning objectives and their personality traits. Accordingly, learner training "aims to provide learners with the

alternatives to make informed choices about what, how, why, when, and where they learn. This is not to say that they have to make all of these decisions all the time. They may, indeed, be teacher-dependent with original emphasis. It is natural for learners to expect from their teachers to play a major role in learner training (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989, p.2).

What Teachers Can Do

According to Ellis and Sinclair (1989, p. 10), teachers can play an instrumental role in learner training by:

- negotiating with learners about course content and methodology, if appropriate;
- sharing with learners, in a way that is accessible to them, the kind of information about language and language learning that teachers have but that is not always passed on to learners;
- encouraging discussion in the classroom about language and language learning;
- helping learners become aware of the wide range of alternative strategies available to them for language learning;
- creating a learning environment where learners feel they can experiment with their language learning;
- allowing learners to form their own views about language learning, and respecting their points of view;
- counseling and giving guidance to individual learners when possible.

- In order to carry out these objectives and to make learner training truly meaningful, Wenden (1991, p. 105) suggests that learner training should be:

- Informed. The purpose of the training should be made explicit and its value brought to the students' attention.
- Self-regulated. Students should be trained how to plan and regulate the use of the strategy, and also how to monitor the difficulties they may face in implementing it.
- Contextualized. Training should be relevant to the context of the subject matter content and/or skill for which it is appropriate. It should be directed to specific language learning problems related the learners' experience.
- Interactive. Learners should not be merely told what to do and when to do it and then left on their own to practice. Rather, until they evidence some ability to regulate their use of the strategy, teachers are expected to continue to work with them.
- Diagnostic. The content of the training should be based on the actual proficiency of the learners. Therefore, at the outset of any strategy training, information on which strategies students use and how well they use them should be collected.

What Learners Can Do

The information regarding learning strategies and learner training opens up opportunities for learners to monitor their learning process and maximize their learning outcomes. With the help of their teachers and their peers, learners can exploit some of these opportunities by:

1. Identifying their learning strategies and styles to know their strengths and weaknesses as language learners. Learners can achieve this, for example, by administering, or being administered,
2. select portions of strategy inventories and style surveys and writing their own language learning histories;
3. Stretching their strategies and styles by incorporating some of those employed by successful language learners. For example, if some learners are "global" in their learning style, they might have to develop strategies that are associated with the analytic learning style, such as breaking down words and sentences in order to find meaning;
4. Evaluating their language performance to see how well they have achieved their learning objective(s). This can be achieved by monitoring language learning progress through personal journal writings, in addition to taking regular class tests and other standardized tests;
5. reaching out for opportunities for additional language reception or production beyond what they get in the classroom, for example, through library resources, learning centers, and electronic media such as the Internet;
6. Seeking their teachers' intervention to get adequate feedback on areas of difficulty and to solve problems. This can be done through dialogues and conversations in and outside the class;
7. Collaborating with other learners to pool information on a specific project they are working on. Forming small groups and dividing the responsibilities to collect information and sharing it with the group; and
8. Taking advantage of opportunities to communicate with competent speakers of the language. This can be achieved by participating in social and cultural events and by engaging in conversations with competent speakers either in person or virtually through Web sites. Collectively, these activities can contribute to at least two beneficial results. Learners gain a sense of responsibility for aiding their own learning and that of their peers. They also develop a degree of sensitivity and understanding toward other learners who may be more or less proficient than they are.

The above discussion reveals, proponents of the 'learning to learn approach to learner autonomy' aim at making the learners aware of learning strategies and at training them to use those strategies effectively. Wenden (1991, p. 15) arrests the spirit of this approach when she says about "successful" or "expert" or "intelligent" learners to acquire the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently. Proponents of this approach also claim that "the ideal system is one which allows the learner to take as much responsibility for his own learning as he wishes to, and which makes provision both for those who want full autonomy and those who do not want any" (Dickinson, 1987, p. 88). There are critics who point out that the learning-to-learn approach may be necessary to produce successful language learners but are certainly not sufficient to produce truly autonomous individuals. They recommend a broader view of learner autonomy that will help learners how to learn to set free them.

Topic-179: Degrees of Learner Autonomy

The teachers and learners face a challenge to determine the degree of appropriate autonomy for their specific learning and teaching context. Several researchers, including Vee Harris (1996, p. 260), David Nunan (1997, p. 195), and Scharle and Szabo (2000, p. 9), have considered the issue of the degree of autonomy conferred to the learner. Generally, they all advocate a gradual and guided introduction of autonomy over pedagogic choices related to the aims, outcomes, tasks, and materials of learning and teaching. At the initial stage of autonomy, the emphasis is simply on raising the learner's awareness of the reasons behind the teacher's choice of goals, tasks, and materials. At the intermediate stage, the emphasis is on allowing the learner to choose from a range of options given by the teacher. Finally, at the advanced stage, the emphasis is on learner determination of his/her goals, tasks, and materials. It certainly makes sense to start with a modest beginning and gradually move toward greater challenges. However, it would be a mistake to try to correlate the initial, intermediate, and advanced stages of autonomy. In fact, teachers and learners can follow different stages of autonomy depending on the linguistic and communicative demands of a particular task in a class. It would also be a mistake to presuppose that academic autonomy suitable for learners of lower proficiency levels, and laboratory autonomy for learners of higher proficiency levels.

According to Christopher Candlin "Autonomy cannot be legislated, independence cannot be wished, in the curriculum as anywhere else in the social polity; what can be done is to embed their defining principles in the actions of teachers and learners and make such actions not only open for reasoned choice by both, but, much more importantly, to establish the philosophical, purposeful and language acquisitional bases of such choices themselves as part of the subject matter of the curriculum. After all, deciding what is to be done and why is one of the few genuinely communicative acts any classroom can encourage" (Candlin, 1987,p. xi–xii).

Microstrategies for Promoting Learning Autonomy are the types of microstrategies that can embed the defining principles of autonomy in the actions of teachers and learners? In considering these possibilities, keep in mind that it would be a pedagogically sound practice to build exercises to promote learner autonomy into the overall language teaching curriculum rather than to devote isolated lessons on it.

Example:

Put the following passage on an overhead transparency and ask your students to read it quickly. Tell them not to be worried about new words they may come across. The passage is taken from Runaway World written by Antony Giddens.

A friend of mine studies village life in central Africa. A few years ago, she paid her first visit to a remote area where she was to carry out her fieldwork. The day she arrived, she was invited to a local home for an evening's entertainment. She expected to find out about the traditional pastimes of this isolated community. Instead, the occasion turned out to be a viewing of *Basic Instinct* on video. The film at that point hadn't even reached the cinemas in London. Such vignettes reveal something

about our world. And what they reveal isn't trivial. It isn't just a matter of people adding modern paraphernalia—videos, television sets, personal computers and so forth—to their existing ways of life. We live in a world of transformations, affecting almost every aspect of what we do. For better or worse, we are being propelled into a global order that no one fully understands, but which is making its effects felt upon all of us. Antony Giddens (2000, p. 24–25)

- Have your students read it again, this time jotting down all new words.
- Ask a few students to share with the class some of the words that are new to them. As they respond, write the words down on the board, or on a separate transparency.
- Call upon a couple of students to explain the strategies they might use to find the meanings of some of the listed words that are new to them.
- Then, introduce or elaborate (depending on the level of your students' awareness) inferencing as a learning strategy.
- Encourage them to think by asking questions such as: What is inferencing? Do you use it for language learning purposes? What do you actually do when you use it? Do you find it useful? Etc.
- Lead them to understand that inferencing as a strategy involves the use of textual clues (such as knowledge of their L1 and their still-developing L2) or contextual clues (such as background knowledge), and has been found to be very useful in guessing the meaning of unknown words.
- Focusing on the first paragraph, ask the students to guess the meaning of, for example, the word *remote*. If students give a partially correct answer, ask them questions such as: How do you know? How did you guess? If they don't do it themselves, draw their attention to two other related words—village life and isolated community—that offer clues to the meaning of *remote*. Also, ask them to guess the profession of Giddens' friend.
- Find out whether they are able to make use of textual information such as studies village life and fieldwork. If necessary, draw their attention to the difference between what a sociologist does and what an anthropologist does.
- Taking the discussion to a higher level of inferencing, have them read the last sentence again: The film at that point hadn't even reached the cinemas in London. Zero in on the word even.
- Concentrate on whether and how they are able to understand the irony of a just released American movie finding its way to a remote village in central Africa even before it had reached a European Capital city like London.
- Similarly, ask them to read the sentence, **She expected to find out about the traditional pastimes of this isolated community.** Ask them to think about what it means when an outsider—whether a tourist or an anthropologist—goes to places like central Africa "expecting" to find something.

Now focus on the second paragraph, which contains some challenging words. Ask your learners, for instance, to guess the meaning of *vignettes*, *trivial*, and *paraphernalia* and to tell the rest of the class how they did it. See whether they are able to make use of all the semantic redundancies in the paragraph (e.g., the word *paraphernalia* is followed by a list of items). Focus on their process of meaning making, prompting them with questions, how did you come up with that?

Follow a slightly different procedure in helping your learners understand the author's choice of words like **transformation and propel.** For instance, rewrite **we live in a world of transformations to read we live in a changing world a**nd see whether your learners notice any difference. Similarly, replace **we are being propelled into a global order with we are moving into a global order** and ask them if and how they see the difference in meaning.

Finally, in order to help your students reflect on their knowledge and use of inferencing as a learning strategy, ask them to write a brief report recalling the thought processes that were going through their mind while working on this task in class.

Topic-180: Learner Autonomy and the Case of Pakistan

We need to consider the Pakistani context from following perspectives:

- Pakistani education system
- Large classes
- Teacher centered classes
- Lack of teacher training
- Socio-cultural factors

Lesson-37

SYLLABUS DESIGN FOR A LANGUAGE TEACHING COURSE

Topic-181: Definition of Syllabus

Etymology of the Term

- A syllabus is an academic document that communicates course information and defines expectations and responsibilities. It is descriptive (unlike the prescriptive or specific curriculum). A syllabus may be set out by an exam board or prepared by the professor who supervises or controls course quality.
- A syllabus is a document that describes what the contents of a language course will be and the order in which they will be taught. The content of a syllabus normally reflects certain beliefs about language and language learning.

Example

A syllabus might be designed around the order in which grammatical items are introduced like starting with 'present simple' then 'past simple', then 'present perfect' etc. The syllabus is a "contract between faculty members and their students, designed to answer students' questions about a course, as well as inform them about what will happen should they fail to meet course expectations."

We need to differentiate between a syllabus and a curriculum.

What is a Curriculum?

- Curriculum refers to all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities.
- Curriculum is a theoretical document and refers to the programme of studies in an educational system or institution.
- Curriculum deals with the abstract general goals of education which reflect the overall educational and cultural philosophy of a country, national and political trends as well as a theoretical orientation to language and language learning.
- A curriculum provides the overall rationale for educating students.

Curriculum vs. Syllabus

A curriculum is concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose, and experience, and the relationship between teachers and learners. A syllabus is more

localized and is based on the accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and students apply a curriculum to their situation.

Topic-182: Purpose of a Syllabus in Language Teaching

The syllabus ensures a fair and impartial understanding between the instructor and students on policies relating to the course, setting clear expectations of material to be learned, behavior in the classroom, and effort on student's behalf to be put into the course, providing a roadmap of course organization relaying the instructor's teaching philosophy to the students, and providing a marketing angle of the course such that students may choose early in the course whether the subject material is attractive.

Many generalized items of a syllabus can be amplified in a specific curriculum to maximize efficient learning by clarifying student understanding of specified material such as grading policy, grading rubric, late work policy, locations and times, other contact information for instructor and teaching assistant such as phone or email, materials required and/or recommended such as textbooks, assigned reading books, calculators (or other equipment), lab vouchers, etc., outside resources for subject material assistance (extracurricular books, tutor locations, resource centers, etc.), important dates in course such as exams and paper due-dates, tips for succeeding in mastering course content such as study habits and expected time allotment, suggested problems if applicable, necessary pre-requisites or co-requisites to current course, safety rules if appropriate, and objectives of the course.

A syllabus will often contain a reading list of relevant books and articles that are compulsory or optional for students to read. As an indirect effect of this, scholars can count how many online syllabi include their works as a way of estimating their educational impact. Traditionally, the term syllabus has been used to refer the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method. Inevitably, the term has been more closely associated with methods that are product centered rather than those that are process-centered. Syllabuses and syllabus principles for Audiolingual, Structural-Situational, and notional functional methods, as well as in ESP approaches to language program design, can be readily identified. The syllabus underlying the Situational and Audiolingual methods consists of a list of grammatical items and constructions, often together with an associated list of vocabulary items Notional-functional syllabuses specify the communicative content of a course in terms of functions, notions, topics, grammar, and vocabulary. Such syllabuses are usually determined in advance of teaching and for this reason have been referred to as "a priori syllabuses."

In fact one of the essential components of any language teaching program is *syllabus* or *curriculum*, which specifies the content of language learning and teaching. The two terms are often used interchangeably although they may indicate a hierarchical relationship where curriculum refers broadly to all aspects of language policy, language planning, teaching methods, and evaluation measures, whereas syllabus relates narrowly to the specification of content and the sequencing of what is to be taught.

There are various essential components to an academic syllabus: Instructor information, General course information, Course objectives, Course policies, Grading and evaluation, Learning resources, the Course Calendar etc.

Topic-183: Characteristics of Syllabus and Language Teaching Classroom

A well-designed language teaching syllabus seeks mainly:

- To clarify the aims and objectives of learning and teaching, and
- To indicate the classroom procedures the teacher may wish to follow. According to Breen (2001, p. 151), any syllabus, should ideally provide the following:
- A clear framework of knowledge and capabilities selected to be appropriate to overall aims;
- Continuity and a sense of direction in classroom work for teacher and students;
- Record for other teachers of what has been covered in the course;
- Basis for evaluating students' progress;
- Basis for evaluating the appropriateness of the course in relation to overall aims and student needs, identified both before and during the course;
- Content appropriate to the broader language curriculum, the particular class of learners, and the educational situation and wider society in which the course is located.

Of course, the assumption behind this ideal list of syllabus objectives is that they will enable teaching to become more organized and more effective. In that sense, a syllabus is more a teaching organizer than a learning indicator, although a well-conceived and well-constructed syllabus is supposed to relate as closely as possible to learning processes. Corder (1967) talked about the notion of a "built-in-syllabus" that learners themselves construct based on the language content presented to them and in conjunction with intake factors and processes. As Corder asserte that the learner syllabus is organic rather than linear, that is, learners appear to learn several items simultaneously rather than sequentially retaining some, rejecting others and reframing certain others. What is therefore needed is a psycholinguistic basis for syllabus construction?

Topic-184: Syllabus Classifications and LTM

Wilkins (1976) proposed two broad classifications of syllabus: synthetic syllabus and analytic syllabus. The underlying assumption behind the synthetic syllabus is that a language system can be (a) analyzed into its smaller units of grammatical structures, lexical items, or functional categories; (b) classified in some manageable and useful way; and (c) presented to the learner one by one for their understanding and assimilation. The learners then are expected to synthesize all the separate elements in order to get the totality of the language. Because the synthesis is done by the learner, the syllabus is named synthetic. The language-centered as well as learner-centered methods follow the synthetic syllabus. Language-centered pedagogists devised suitable classroom procedures for teachers to present, and help learners synthesize, discrete items of grammar and vocabulary while learner-centered pedagogists did the same, adding notional and functional categories to the linguistic items.

In the analytic syllabus, the language input is presented to the learner, not piece by piece, but in fairly large chunks. These chunks will not have any specific linguistic focus; instead, they will bring the learner's attention to the communicative features of the language. They are connected texts in the form of stories, games, problems, tasks, and so forth. It is the responsibility of the learner to analyze the connected texts into its smaller constituent elements, term analytic. Learning-centered methods adhere to the analytic approach to syllabus construction.

A number of taxonomies of syllabus types in language teaching have been proposed by Yalden (1987), Long and Crookes (1992), and Brown (1995); Structural, Situational, Topical, Functional, Notional, Skills-based, and Task-based, and these can usually be linked to specific approaches or methods: Oral/Situational (Situational); Audiolingual (Structural), Communicative Language Teaching (Notional/Functional), Task-based Teaching (Task-based). However, for some of the approaches and methods we have to infer syllabus assumptions since no explicit syllabus specification is given. This is particularly true where content organization rather than language organization or pedagogical issues determines syllabus design, as with Content-Based Instruction.

The term syllabus is less frequently used in process-based methods, in which considerations of language content are often secondary, "Counseling-Learning', has no language syllabus as such. Neither linguistic matter nor subject matter is specified in advance. Learners select content for themselves by choosing topics they want to talk about. These are then translated into the target language and used as the basis for interaction and language practice. To find out what linguistic content had been generated and practiced during a course organized according to Counseling-Learning principles, it would be necessary to record the lessons and later determine what items of language had been covered. This would be a 'posteriori approach' to syllabus specification; the syllabus would be determined from examining lesson protocols. With such methods as the Silent Way and Total physical Response, an examination of lesson protocols, teacher's manuals, and texts derived from them reveals that the syllabuses underlying these methods are traditional lexico-grammatical syllabuses. There is strong emphasis on grammar and grammatical accuracy.

Topic-185: Using a Syllabus in a LTM Course

There are two basic types of syllabus depending on the nature and purpose of syllabus: product-oriented and process-oriented syllabuses.

Product oriented syllabuses are those in which the focus is on the knowledge and skills which learners should gain as a result of instruction, while process syllabuses are those which focus on the learning experiences themselves. Process oriented, as the name indicates, is more focused on the process than the product.

The syllabus is a foundational document and a critical piece of communication between instructor and student that warrants thoughtful design. It plays a significant role in engaging students and motivating learners (Harnish et al., 2011). Research indicates that more engaging, visually stimulating, student-centered syllabi have a positive impact on student perceptions of a course and motivation to engage with the instructor (Ludy et. Al., 2016).

Institutional practices: The Handbook for Instructors of Undergraduates in Yale College describe two functions for a course syllabus:

- To inform students about the "scope, procedures, bibliography, and examination or paper requirements of a course," and
- To convey the "instructor's expectations about academic integrity."

Instructors might consider the syllabus as a form of persuasive writing that meets the above functions while deploying a compassionate tone and personal writing style to communicate important implicit messages. A well-crafted syllabus conveys that the instructor is willing to support students' efforts to master the material, and takes the intellectual struggles of students seriously, while expecting that students should try to meet the instructor's expectations, and engage with the materials. The syllabus can be a powerful tool to convey expectations with practicing humility, empathy, and emotional intelligence through careful language (Canada, 2013).

Education scholars and university teaching and learning centers emphasize the importance of a well-written syllabus and conceptualize the document in various ways ranging from a logistical handout to a course manifesto as described below. Ideally, a syllabus draws upon several of these characterizations.

- Contract: explicitly stated expectations, policies, procedures, prerequisites.
- Manifesto: sets tone for the course, offers support, explains teaching philosophy.
- Invitation: shares enthusiasm for the subject matter, emphasizes relevance to students.
- Road map: helps students self-regulate their learning through resources and advice.
- Scholarship: distills course goals and content for colleagues, summarizing the best teaching literature on a topic.
- Reference: notes logistical information for students and university staff.

Lesson-38

ASSESSMENT IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic-186: Assessment in Language Teaching

What is Assessment?

It is defined as a process of appraising something or someone, i.e. the act of gauging the quality, value or importance.

Assessment is defined as a methodical way of acquiring, reviewing and using information about someone or something, so as to make improvement where necessary. The term is interpreted in a variety of ways, i.e. educational, psychological, financial, taxation, human resource and so on.

In general, assessment is an ongoing interactive process, in which two parties (assessor and assessee) are involved. The assessor is someone who assesses the performance based on the defined standards, while assessee is someone who is being assessed. The process aims at determining the effectiveness of the overall performance of the assessee and the areas of improvement. The process involves, setting up goals, collecting information (qualitative and quantitative) and using the information for increasing quality.

Assessment in language teaching is of great significance. It helps the learner and the teacher to know about the performance of the learner. It thus generates a possibility of feedback, and thus revisions in the teaching learning processes as well.

Traditional Tests Versus Performance based Tests

Puppin (2007) argues that traditional tests like Board examinations are one-shot tests, based on textbooks, that give inauthentic and de-contextualised testing tasks, have subjective grading and correction and lead to negative wash back. On the other hand, performance based testing is continuous assessment, has contextualised test tasks and standardised scoring criteria (Davies, 1990). McNamara (1996) also believes that traditional tests do not contribute to students' learning in a positive way. Bailey (1998) suggests that in contrast to traditional tests, performance tests are designed with a special care to present real life tasks which test learners' sociolinguistic ability and competence to ensure their progress in language. Linguists Alderson and North (1991) are in favour of communicative language testing because its goal is to assess an individual's originality and creative abilities. These tests employ authentic texts and are based on the learners' needs and language use in context for the purposes relevant to the learner (Heaton, 1990; Brown, 1994). Brown, Race and Smith (1996) also emphasise the use of creativity, reflection, observation and personal experiences in learners' writing tests. There are different qualities which can maximise the overall usefulness of an English language test (Bachman and Palmer (1996). A good test should have construct validity, reliability, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality to foster creativity and independent learning (Brown & Pickford, 2006). Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.19-26) define construct validity as 'meaningfulness and interpretation of the scores to be achieved', reliability is

'the consistency of scores', authenticity is 'the degree of correspondence between a given test task and the target language use', interactiveness is 'the involvement of test taker's characteristics', impact means 'the effect of the test on society, educational systems and upon the individual within those systems' and practicality means 'available resources'.

Topic-187: Assessment and Evaluation in Second Language

To understand the role of assessment and evaluation in SL first we need to understand their difference.

Difference in Assessment and Evaluation:

Assessment is defined as a process of appraising something or someone, i.e. the act of gauging the quality, value or importance. **Evaluation** focuses on making a judgment about values, numbers or performance of someone or something. Assessment is made to identify the level of performance of an individual, whereas evaluation is performed to determine the degree to which goals are attained.

The basic difference between assessment and evaluation lies in the orientation, i.e. while the assessment is process oriented, evaluation is product oriented. The article presented to you describes all the distinguishing points between these two.

Definition of Assessment

Assessment is defined as a methodical way of acquiring, reviewing and using information about someone or something, so as to make improvement where necessary. The term is interpreted in a variety of ways, i.e. educational, psychological, financial, taxation, human resource and so on.

In general, assessment is an ongoing interactive process, in which two parties (assessor and assessee) are involved. The assessor is someone who assesses the performance based on the defined standards, while assessee is someone who is being assessed. The process aims at determining the effectiveness of the overall performance of the assessee and the areas of improvement. The process involves, setting up goals, collecting information (qualitative and quantitative) and using the information for increasing quality.

Definition of Evaluation

The term 'evaluation' is derived from the word 'value' which refers to 'usefulness of something'. Therefore, evaluation is an examination of something to measure its utility. Evaluation is a systematic and objective process of measuring or observing someone or something, with an aim of drawing conclusions, using criteria, usually governed by set standards or by making comparisons. It gauges the performance of a person, completed projects, process or product, to determine its worth or significance.

The evaluation includes both quantitative and qualitative analysis of data and undertaken once in a while. It ascertains whether the standards or goals established are met or not. If they are met successfully, then it identifies the difference between actual and intended outcomes.

Assessment vs. Evaluation

Comparison Chart (Note: at each level we can see how both operate in SL.)

Basis for comparison	Assessment	Evaluation
Meaning	Assessment is a process of collecting, reviewing and using data, for the purpose of improvement in the current performance.	Evaluation is described as an act of passing judgment on the basis of set of standards.
Nature	Diagnostic	Judgmental
What it does?	Provides feedback on performance and areas of improvement.	Determines the extent to which objectives are achieved.
Purpose	Formative	Summative
Orientation	Process Oriented	Product Oriented
Feedback	Based on observation and positive & negative points.	Based on the level of quality as per set standard.
Relationship between parties	Reflective	Prescriptive
Criteria	Set by both the parties jointly.	Set by the evaluator.
Measurement Standards	Absolute	Comparative

Key Differences between Assessment and Evaluation

The significant differences between assessment and evaluation are discussed in the points given below:

- The process of collecting, reviewing and using data, for the purpose of improvement in the current performance, is called assessment. A process of passing judgment, on the basis of defined criteria and evidence is called evaluation.

- Assessment is diagnostic in nature as it tends to identify areas of improvement. On the other hand, evaluation is judgmental, because it aims at providing an overall grade.
- The assessment provides feedback on performance and ways to enhance performance in future. As against this, evaluation ascertains whether the standards are met or not.
- The purpose of assessment is formative, i.e. to increase quality whereas evaluation is all about judging quality, therefore the purpose is summative.
- Assessment is concerned with process, while evaluation focuses on product.
- In an assessment, the feedback is based on observation and positive and negative points. In contrast to evaluation, in which the feedback relies on the level of quality as per set standard.
- In an assessment, the relationship between assessor and assessee is reflective, i.e. the criteria are defined internally. On the contrary, the evaluator and evaluate share a prescriptive relationship, wherein the standards are imposed externally.
- The criteria for assessment are set by both the parties jointly. As opposed to evaluation, wherein the criteria are set by the evaluator.
- The measurement standards for assessment are absolute, which seeks to achieve the quintessential outcome. As against this, standards of measurement for evaluation are comparative, that makes a distinction between better and worse.

Topic-188: Assessment Types and Options for Language Teachers

Following are different types of assessment. The understanding of these types would leave to our understanding how choices can be made when it comes to the assessment in SL:

The selected-response type requires students to listen and/or read and then select the correct answer (by circling, making a mark). Items in this category are suitable for testing the receptive skills of reading and listening and passive knowledge of subjects like grammar and vocabulary. Such items are relatively quick and easy to administer and score, and scoring them is considered objective. True/False items most often ask students to read or listen to statements and determine if they are true or false (for more, especially on handling the guessing factor that is uniquely problematic for these items (Brown & Hudson 2002 , pp. 65–67). These items are particularly useful for assessing students' abilities to distinguish between two choices and can serve as simple and direct measures of knowledge or reading/listening comprehension. Matching items require students to indicate which entry in one list matches each item in another list (Brown & Hudson 2002, pp. 67–68).

These items are compact and require little space. Thus, they are often used to efficiently assess students' passive knowledge of vocabulary by requiring them to match definitions with vocabulary words. Matching items also have a fairly low guessing factor (e.g., about 10 % for a ten item set). Multiple - choice items require students to choose the one answer from among three, four, or five options that best completes or matches specifi c language material (Brown & Hudson 2002,pp. 68–71). These items can be used to test a wider range of language learning points than true-false or matching items and have a relatively low guessing factor (e.g., about 25 % for four-option items).

The constructed-response type differs fundamentally from the selected response category in that, while students are often required to listen and/or read, they are also expected to produce either

written or oral language (ranging from single words as in fill-in items to entire oral presentations as in performance assessment).

Thus, this category allows for the assessing of productive language use, active knowledge, as well as interactions of receptive (reading/listening) and productive (writing/speaking) skills. In addition, this category typically has a very small guessing factor. Fill in items require students to write in the missing word(s) in blanks created in written text (Brown & Hudson 2002, pp. 72–73). These items are relatively easy to create and score, flexible to use, and relatively quick to administer. Short - answer items ask students to write a few words, phrases, short sentences, and a formula, diagram in response to a written or oral question about a written or spoken passage (Brown & Hudson 2002, p. 74). These items are relatively easy to create, flexible to use, and quick to administer. Performance assessment requires students to perform a task like writing a composition and performing a role play (Brown & Hudson 2002, pp. 74–78, or Norris et al. 1998).

Such assessment can be designed to simulate authentic language use and thus can be used to compensate for the negative effects of standardized testing that may be occurring elsewhere in the students' lives and thereby provide positive wash back effects (i.e., the effects of testing on the teaching and learning associated with it).

The personal-response category adds a learner-focused dimension to the assessment process by getting students to use the language to create meanings personally important to them, by getting them personally involved in the assessment process, and/or by simulating authentic language use. Assessment in this category is necessarily integrated into the teaching/learning curriculum and can be used to examine the learning processes that are going on. All of which helps provide positive wash back effects on the students and their learning.

Conference assessment usually involves teachers meeting with single student or small groups of students and going over various language points that need review or practice (Brown & Hudson 2002, p. 78–81). Teachers can use conference assessment to elicit and give feedback on specific skills, tasks, functions, and grammar points that students need to review and practice. Teachers can also use conferences to help students improve their self-images. Such assessment can also help students to understand their own learning processes and strategies. In short, conferences can be used to inform, observe, mold, and gather further information about students.

Portfolio assessment requires students to collect work of their own choice that they have done throughout a course, as well as reflect on that work and display the portfolios for a particular audience (Brown & Hudson 2002, p. 81–83). Such assessment is particularly useful for enhancing learning and get into the assessment process because students are creating their own personal portfolios. If properly structured, portfolio assessment can also reduce the teacher's role in the assessment process and encourage student autonomy and learner motivation.

Self / peer - assessment type involves students scoring or rating their own work or their peers' work (Brown and Hudson 2002, p. 83–86). Such assessment can take less time than teacher scoring if well organized. It also combines well with performance, conference, or portfolio assessment.

Since self/peer assessment involves students directly and intimately in the assessment process, it helps them understand that process and encourages student autonomy and motivation.

The individualized-response type is even more learner-focused than the personal-response category in that the assessment and feedback are tailored to the individuals. The assessment types in this category are the best tailored to a specific curriculum. Indeed, since they are tailored to individual students, they can be used to precisely examine the learning processes that the students are going through. Thus, this category can help compensate for any negative effects of standardized testing and provide positive wash back effects on students and their learning.

Continuous assessment type turns most or all learning activities into assessment activities by providing feedback in a constant, cyclical, and cumulative way (Puhl, 1997). Such assessment is integrated in the curriculum as well as in the grading process for the course. Creating a constant assessment feedback also increase learning and learner motivation. In many instances, continuous assessment could be implemented by simply adding a feedback component to existing classroom. Such assessment can be designed to simulate authentic language use and thus can be used to compensate for the negative effects of standardized testing that may be occurring elsewhere in the students' lives and thereby provide positive wash back effects (i.e., the effects of testing on the teaching and learning associated with it).

The Personal-response type adds a learner-focused dimension to the assessment process by getting students to use the language to create meanings personally important to them, by getting them personally involved in the assessment process, and/or by simulating authentic language use. Assessment in this category is necessarily integrated into the teaching/learning curriculum and can be used to examine the learning processes that are going on. All of which helps provide positive wash back effects on the students and their learning.

Differentiated assessment requires teachers to first assess students' learning style preferences using an instrument like the Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic Learning Styles questionnaire at http://www.businessballs.com/freepdfmaterials/vak_learning_styles_questionnaire.pdf and then provide different assessment procedures to suit the preferences of different groups of students (Stefanakis & Meier 2010). Such assessment is tailored to the visual, auditory, or kinaesthetic learning style strengths of individual students, a practice that is fairer than traditional testing methods. One way to think about differentiated assessment is that it allows students to demonstrate their learning or skill getting in the way that best suits their abilities.

For example, to demonstrate that they understood a set of oral instructions for building robot, a visual learner might draw a representation of what would result, while an auditory learner might orally repeat the directions, and a kinesthetic learner might actually make the robot, each in the service of demonstrating that they have the skill or ability to understand oral instructions, but in three different ways. Such assessment should be integrated into teachers' choices about all teaching, materials, and classroom activities in the curriculum. In addition, tailoring assessment to students' individual learning style preferences may increase learning and learner motivation.

Dynamic assessment involves integrating teaching and assessment by predicting learner problems and prearranging mediation, called the interventionist strategy, or by supporting learner development through assessment and feedback, called the interactionist strategy (Poehner, 2008). Such assessment tailors teaching and assessment to the learning of individual students as they develop, which considered socio-linguistically fairer and more effective than traditional assessment practices. Since the assessment is directly integrated into the learning processes that are designed/tailored for each individual student, it may increase learning and learner motivation.

Topic-189: Importance of Assessment in English Language Teaching

Generally, assessment is an essential component of an education system. It has a strong impact on teachers and pupils (Hughes, 2003). The purpose of testing is to provide information about the achievement of learners without which rational educational decisions could not be made (Schellekens, 2007). Therefore, Williams (1998) believes English teachers should be trained to construct and mark students' papers because assessing student papers is one of the most important things the teachers do, as their decisions about grades can affect students' lives. There are various types of English language tests. According to Hughes (2003), an achievement test is conducted at the end of the year. A proficiency test is designed to measure people's ability in a language regardless of any training they may have had in that language. A placement test is used to place pupils at different levels of education. Finally, a diagnostic test is employed to know the weaknesses and strengths of the learners in a language. In Pakistan, all Board and University examinations are achievement tests which are not very helpful to understand the strengths and weaknesses of students. There are some proficiency tests such as IELTS, TOEFL which Pakistani students need to qualify for admission in higher education in English speaking countries.

Traditional Tests versus Performance Based Tests: Puppin (2007) argues that traditional tests like Board examinations are one-shot tests, based on textbooks that give inauthentic and de-contextualized testing tasks, have subjective grading and correction and lead to negative wash back. On the other hand, performance based testing is continuous assessment, has contextualized test tasks and standardized scoring criteria (Davies, 1990). McNamara (1996) also believes that traditional tests do not contribute to students' learning in a positive way. Bailey (1998) suggests that in contrast to traditional tests, performance tests are designed with a special care to present real life tasks which test learners' sociolinguistic ability and competence to ensure their progress in language. Linguists Alderson and North (1991) are in favor of communicative language testing because its goal is to assess an individual's originality and creative abilities. These tests employ authentic texts and are based on the learners' needs and language use in context for the purposes relevant to the learner (Heaton, 1990; Brown, 1994). Brown, Race and Smith (1996) also emphasize the use of creativity, reflection, observation and personal experiences in learners' writing tests. There are different qualities which can maximize the overall usefulness of an English language test (Bachman & Palmer (1996). A good test should have construct validity, reliability, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality to foster creativity and independent learning (Brown & Pickford, 2006). Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.19-26) define construct validity as 'meaningfulness and interpretation of the scores to be achieved', reliability is 'the consistency of scores', authenticity is 'the degree of correspondence between a given test task and the target language use', interactiveness is 'the

involvement of test taker's characteristics', impact means 'the effect of the test on society, educational systems and upon the individual within those systems' and practicality means 'available resources'.

Topic-190: English Language Assessment in Pakistan

In Pakistan, the public examinations are often perceived as a source of dissatisfaction that do not reflect students' actual potential or measure language proficiency (Khan, 2011, 2012). Siddiqui (2007, p.189) believes 'in Pakistan assessment system excludes creativity and critical thinking out of its legitimate boundaries' because English examinations test knowledge of literature and knowledge of language, rather than use of language. Siddiqui (2007, p.164) says that the students memorize the readymade answers of short stories, essays, plays, poems etc., because assessment system encourages rote learning and the examination requires the students to reproduce what they have learnt by heart'. Further, all examinations held in English in Pakistan have subjectivity in setting and marking and they cover only reading and writing skills and measure pupils' knowledge of the language rather than their performance (Warsi, 2004). Thus, to quote, 'we are caught in a vicious circle; the cycle begins at a badly constructed syllabi and ends at a rag bag system called examination' (National Education Policy (1992, p.69). National Education Policy (2009, p.38) states, 'the public examinations in Pakistan are invalid and unreliable as they encourage cramming'. In Pakistan, it is seen that, assessment has a direct relationship with teaching in the classroom. Siddiqui (2007, p.187) asserts: 'In Pakistan the impact of assessment is conspicuous. It is the assessment system that has emerged as an omnipotent force that is calling the shots in the educational scenario of Pakistan. Each new government claims to realize its significance but hardly takes any practical, meaningful, holistic, and sustainable steps towards streamlining the system'. Text books and assessment are interrelated concepts in the Pakistani education system. Mostly teachers use only textbook questions to assess students' learning and for assigning homework (MehrunNisa, 2009, p.26). These questions normally require reproduction of memorized material from the textbooks or guide books. Siddiqui (2007, p.152) comments, 'the students prepare for the examination with the help of 'get through guides' that provides them with a short cut to pass the examination'. The English language question papers are not devised in terms of specific purposes and intended learning outcomes. Since 1959, it is keenly felt that in Board and University examinations 'success can be achieved through mere memorization and practically no effort is made to test the pupils' intelligence' (Commission on National Education, 1959, p.125). It is also justly argued that twenty provincial boards in Pakistan encourage poor learning and teaching methods where rote learnt answers from prescribed textbooks or 88 guidebooks are rewarded and creative and independent thinking penalized (Mansoor, 2005, p.32). The teachers' attention is focused on stereotyped questions set in the examination; therefore do not sufficiently practice reflective, critical and interactive faculties in classroom. Although it is realized that English language testing does not measure students' ability to use the language, creativity and critical thinking, no significant efforts appear to be made to improve it.

Wash-back effect of examinations Hughes (2003) describes wash-back as an effect of testing on teaching and learning. Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.27) define wash-back to be an aspect of impact on processes of learning and instruction. According to Hughes (2003) a test could have either

beneficial or harmful wash-back. A test has beneficial wash-back if it is based on the language needs of the learners but if the test content and techniques are at variance with the objectives of the course, it is unreliable and likely to have harmful wash-back. The public examinations have negative wash-back effect in Pakistan. The negative wash-back effect on teaching is of two kinds: explicit and implicit. In the Pakistani context, explicit effect is shown in the apparent tactics the teacher uses to help students get good grades. The implicit wash-back effect is the teacher's own view of teaching which gets contaminated by the hanging sword of memory-geared tests' (Siddiqui, 2007, p.189). Jenkins (2007, p.42) asserts, 'learners and teachers are reluctant to embrace changes in curriculum as the focus is on targets set in the test'. Such type of testing undermines the quality of instruction in the classroom (Hill, 2004). A significant reality of such examination is that, it does not take into account the needs of the learners 'which are the development of basic skills in English so that they can apply for higher education and get a good job' (Siddiqui, 2007, p.163).

Lesson-39

TEACHER TRAINING AND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

Topic-191: Introduction to Teacher Training

What is Teacher Training?

Teacher training refers to the policies, procedures, and provision designed to equip teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school, and wider community.

Sometimes the term **Teacher education** is used instead. In fact there is a longstanding and ongoing debate about the most appropriate term to describe these activities. The term 'teacher training' (which may give the impression that the activity involves training staff to undertake relatively routine tasks) seems to be losing ground, at least in the U.S., to 'teacher education' (with its connotation of preparing staff for a professional role as a reflective practitioner).

Significance of Teacher Training

Teachers play a crucial role in supporting the learning experience of young people and adult learners. They are key players in how education systems evolve and in the implementation of the reforms which can make the European Union the highest performing knowledge-driven economy in the world.

Their profession, which is inspired by values of inclusiveness and the need to nurture the potential of all learners, has a strong influence on society and plays a vital role in advancing human potential and shaping future generations.

Teachers should be equipped to respond to the evolving challenges of the knowledge society, participate actively in it and prepare learners to be autonomous lifelong learners. They should, therefore, be able to reflect on the processes of learning and teaching through an ongoing engagement with subject knowledge, curriculum content, pedagogy, innovation, research, and the social and cultural dimensions of education. Teacher education needs to be at a higher education level or its equivalent and be supported by strong partnerships between higher education and the institutions where teachers will gain employment. Teachers also have a key role in preparing learners for their role as citizens. As such, they need to be able to recognize and respect different cultures. First-hand experience gained in other cultures supports teachers in responding to this challenge.

Although teachers play a critical role in society, they cannot act alone. Their own high quality education needs to be supported by the institutions where they are employed, within the context of coherent national or regional policies that are appropriately resourced. These policies must address initial teacher education and continuing professional development, but must also be set within the broader context of education policy in general. Those who train teachers have an impact on the

quality of learning and, therefore, they need to be supported as part of the national or regional system.

The process by which teachers are educated is the subject of political discussion in many countries, reflecting both the value attached by societies and cultures to the preparation of young people for life, and the fact that education systems consume significant financial resources.

Topic-192: Why Teacher Training for Language Teachers?

We need to consider the following:

- Role of language teachers
- Expectations from language teachers
- Goals of language teachers

L2 learning and teaching needs, wants, and situations are multiple and varied. So, L2 teachers should be trained in the context. Another view is that L2 learning and teaching needs, wants, and situations are unpredictably numerous, it is a futile exercise to try to prepare teachers in advance to tackle unpredictable needs, wants, and situations. What teacher educators can and must do is to help prospective and practicing teachers develop a capacity to generate their own context-specific theories of practice based on their professional, personal, and experiential knowledge and skill. There is a need to recognize the importance of monitoring teaching acts and show how teachers can self-observe, self-analyze, and self-evaluate their teaching acts.

Classroom Observation

In a formal educational context, the classroom is the crucible where the practice of everyday learning and teaching is concocted. It is there the prime elements of learning and teaching ideas and ideologies, policies and plans, methods and materials, learners and teachers all mix together. It is there the effectiveness of innovative thoughts on teaching is tried and tested. What actually happens there largely determines the extent to which learning potential is realized, and desired outcomes are achieved. The task of systematically observing classroom events becomes central to the goal of monitoring teaching acts. Several models of classroom observation are available in the professional literature on L2 teaching which can be used.

A Note of Caution

It is important that teachers who would like to be observed choose a concerned and cooperative colleague as an observing partner.It has to be someone who has the desired knowledge, skill, and attitude to observe and analyze classroom events; someone who is able and willing to give fair, frank, and friendly comments on the teacher's classroom performance. The primary role of the observer is to analyze and interpret teaching acts, and not to judge and evaluate the teacher. In other words, the observing partner should take on the role of a counselor, not that of a supervisor. The actual evaluation should be done by teachers themselves, using the partner's comments as one source of input for evaluation.

Topic-193: Teacher Training: Some important Aspects

When to Train?

Although ideally it should be conceived of, and organized as, a seamless continuum, teacher education is often divided into these stages

- initial teacher training / education (a pre-service course before entering the classroom as a fully responsible teacher);
- induction (the process of providing training and support during the first few years of teaching or the first year in a particular school);
- Teacher development or continuing professional development (CPD) (an in-service process for practicing teachers).

Curriculum for Teacher Training

The question of what knowledge, attitudes, behaviors and skills teachers should possess is the subject of much debate in many cultures. This is understandable, as teachers are entrusted with the transmission to learners of society's beliefs, attitudes and deontology, as well as of information, advice and wisdom, and with facilitating learners' acquisition of the key knowledge, attitudes and behaviors that they will need to be active in society and the economy.

Generally, Teacher Education curricula can be broken down into four major areas:

- Foundational knowledge in education-related aspects of philosophy of education, history of education, educational psychology, and sociology of education.
- Skills in assessing student learning, supporting English language learners, using technology to improve teaching and learning, and supporting students with special needs.
- Content-area and methods knowledge and skills often also including ways of teaching and assessing a specific subject, in which case this area may overlap with the first ("foundational") area. There is increasing debate about this aspect; because it is no longer possible to know in advance what kinds of knowledge and skill pupils will need when they enter adult life, it becomes harder to know what kinds of knowledge and skill teachers should have.
- Practice at classroom teaching or at some other form of educational practice usually supervised and supported in some way, though not always. Practice can take the form of field observations, student teaching, or internship.

Topic-194: Teacher Training of Language Teachers: International Practices

However, the degree of political control over Teacher Education varies. Where TE is entirely in the hands of universities, the state may have no direct control whatever over what or how new teachers are taught; this can lead to anomalies, such as teachers being taught using teaching methods that would be deemed inappropriate if they used the same methods in schools, or teachers being

taught by persons with little or no hands-on experience of teaching in real classrooms. In other systems, TE may be the subject of detailed prescription (e.g. the state may specify the skills that all teachers must possess, or it may specify the content of TE courses).

Initial Teacher Education takes place largely or exclusively in institutions of Higher Education. It may be organized according to two basic models in many countries. In the 'consecutive' model, a teacher first obtains a qualification in one or more subjects (often an undergraduate bachelor's degree), and then studies for a further period to gain an additional qualification in teaching (this may take the form of a post-baccalaureate credential or master's degree).

In the alternative 'concurrent' model, a student simultaneously studies both one or more academic subjects, and the ways of teaching that subject, leading to a combined bachelor's degree and teaching credential to qualify as a teacher of that subject. Other pathways are also available. In some countries, it is possible for a person to receive training as a teacher by working in a school under the responsibility of an accredited experienced practitioner. In the United Kingdom there is a long tradition of partnerships between universities and schools in providing state supported teacher education.

In the United States, approximately one-third of new teachers come through alternative routes to teacher certification. However, many alternative pathways are affiliated with schools of education, where candidates still enroll in university-based coursework. A supplemental component of university-based coursework is community-based teacher education, where teacher candidates immerse themselves in communities that will allow them to apply teaching theory to practice. Community-based teacher education also challenges teacher candidates' assumptions about the issues of gender, race, and multicultural diversity.

A distinction is sometimes made between inducting a teacher into a new school (explaining the school's vision, procedures etc.), and inducting a new teacher into the teaching profession (providing the support necessary to help the beginning teacher develop a professional identity, and to further develop the basic competences that were acquired in college).

A number of countries and states have comprehensive systems of support to help beginning teachers during their first years in the profession. Elements of such a programme can include:

- mentoring: the allocation to each beginning teacher of an experienced teacher, specifically trained as a mentor; the mentor may provide emotional and professional support and guidance; in many U.S. states, induction is limited to the provision of a mentor.
- a peer network: for mutual support but also for peer learning.
- input from educational experts (e.g. to help the beginning teacher relate what she learned in college with classroom reality).
- support for the process of self-reflection that all teachers engage in (e.g. through the keeping of a journal).

Some research suggests that such programmes can increase the retention of beginning teachers in the profession; improve teaching performance; promote the teachers' personal and professional growth. Today culturally responsive teaching is also appreciated as it requires teacher education and teachers to address significant issues of diversity in language teaching.

Continuous Professional Development

With the changing world no initial course of teacher education can be sufficient to prepare a teacher for a career of 30 or 40 years. In addition, as the student dynamics change due to demographic issues there is a continuous pressure on academics to have mastery of their subjects but also to understand their students. Continuous Professional Development (CPD) is the process by which teachers (like other professionals) reflect upon their competencies, keep them up to date, and develop them further.
The extent to which education authorities support this process varies with the effectiveness of different approaches.

Example of International Policies and Practices:

Policy cooperation in the European Union has led to a broad description of the kinds of attributes that teachers in EU Member States should possess. The document is titled as 'the Common European Principle for Teacher Competences and Qualifications'. This text presents the common European principles for teacher competencies and qualifications, which have been devised in response to the challenges laid down in the Joint Interim Report by the Education Council and the European Commission on progress towards Education and Training 2010. They aim to support the development of new policies at a national or regional level.

The Common European Principles are as Follows:

A well-qualified profession: high quality education systems require that all teachers are graduates from higher education institutions and those working in the field of initial vocational education should be highly qualified in their area and have a suitable pedagogical qualification. Every teacher should have the opportunity to continue their studies to the highest level in order to develop their teaching competencies and to increase their opportunities for progression within the profession. Teacher education is multidisciplinary and ensures that teachers have extensive subject knowledge, a good knowledge of pedagogy, the skills and competencies required to guide and support learners, and an understanding of the social and cultural dimension of education.

A profession placed within the context of lifelong learning: teachers should be supported in order to continue their professional development throughout their careers. They and their employers should recognise the importance of acquiring new knowledge, and teachers should be able to innovate and use evidence to inform their work. Teachers should be encouraged to review evidence of effective practice and engage with current innovations and research in order to keep pace with the evolving knowledge society. They should be encouraged to participate actively in professional

development, which can include periods of time spent outside the education sector, and this should be recognised and rewarded within their own systems.

A mobile profession: mobility should be a central component of initial and continuing teacher education programmes. Teachers should be encouraged to participate in European projects and spend time working or studying in other European countries for professional development purposes. Those who do so should have their status recognised in the host country and their participation recognised and valued in their home country. There should also the opportunity for mobility between different levels of education and towards different professions within the education sector.

A profession based on partnerships: institutions providing teacher education should organise their work collaboratively in partnership with schools, local work environments, work-based training providers and other stakeholders. Higher education institutions need to ensure that their teaching benefits from knowledge of current practice. Teacher education partnerships, which have an emphasis on practical skills and an academic and scientific basis, should provide teachers with the competence and confidence to reflect on their own and others' practice. Teacher education, in itself, should be supported and be an object of study and research.

Making it work: the key competencies: Teaching and education add to the economic and cultural aspects of the knowledge in society and should therefore be seen in their societal context. Teachers should be able to work with others as they work in a profession which should be based on the values of social inclusion and nurturing the potential of every learner. They need to have knowledge of human growth and development and demonstrate self-confidence when engage with others. They are able to work with learners as individuals and support them to develop into fully active and productive members of society. They can work to increase the collective intelligence of learners, they co-operate and collaborate with colleagues to enhance their own learning and teaching. Work with knowledge, technology and information, they are able to work in many fields. Their education and professional development should equip them to access, analyze, validate, reflect and transmit knowledge along with effective use of technology. Their pedagogic skills should allow them to build and manage learning environments and retain the intellectual freedom to make choices over the delivery of education. Their confidence in the use of ICT should allow them to integrate it effectively into learning and teaching. They should be able to guide and support learners in the networks in which information can be found and built. They should have a good understanding of subject knowledge and view learning as a lifelong journey. Their practical and theoretical skills should also allow them to learn from their own experiences and apply wide range of teaching and learning strategies according to the needs of learners. They contribute to prepare learners responsible in their role as EU citizens. Teachers should be able to promote mobility and co-operation in Europe, and encourage intercultural respect and understanding. They should have an understanding of the balance between respect and diverse learners' cultures and values. They understand the factors that create social cohesion and exclusion in society and are aware of the ethical dimensions of the society. They should be able to work effectively with the local community, and with partners and stakeholders in education; parents, teacher education institutions, and representative groups. Their experience and expertise should also enable them to contribute to systems of quality assurance. Teachers' work in all these areas should be embedded in a professional continuum of lifelong

learning which includes initial teacher education, induction and continuing professional development , as they cannot be expected to possess all the necessary competencies on completion of their initial teacher education.

Topic-195: Teacher Training and Language Teaching in Pakistan

Teachers play a crucial role in the system of education. It is important that these teachers are equipped with proper knowledge, skills and attitudes in carrying out the goals of education and fulfilling their obligations. Teachers training have certain levels which correspond with the general education ability of the teachers. There are three levels of teachers training in Pakistan.

Teachers for the primary schools are trained, and must have passed Secondary School examination. They are provided one year training. After completion of this training they are awarded a certificate called Primary Teacher's certificate (PTC). Those who possess FA/F.Sc certificate are given one year training and awarded a certificate called Certificate in Education (CT).

PTC and CT training is provided by the Government Colleges of Elementary Education (GCEE). There are separate elementary Colleges of Education for girls and boys who have been established at all the district headquarters within the country.

Those who possess BA/.Sc degrees are provided one year training called "Bachelor of Education" (B.Ed) at the Government Colleges of Education. These colleges are at a few selected places in each province of the country. Those who further want to specialize in the subject of education undergo one year course called Master in Education (M.Ed). This course is conducted by the Colleges of Education and in the Institutes of Education in the Universities. Teachers also do M.Phil and Ph.D in Education from the universities. Those who possess M.Ed or M.Phil teach in the Colleges of Education. At the University level Ph.Ds are employed to train teachers.

Allama Iqbal Open University has started teacher training courses through its distance education system for those students who cannot afford to attend formal regular courses in the teacher training institutions. National Education policy (1998-2011) provides for modernizing the courses in teachers training. Accordingly, the duration and period of training at all levels of training is being increased, including better salaries for the teachers.

There are few problems in the teacher-training programme which include non-availability of qualified teaching faculty for the Colleges of Education, quality training programmes, financial problems of the Training Institutions, lack of quality material for training and lack of effective system of management and supervision. But the most serious problem is that the teachers do not use those teaching skills and methods in their classes which were taught to them in the training institutions.

There are also several in-service training programs for "untrained" teachers or for upgrading the curriculum. Teachers sent to such programs are nominated by the school principals and approved by the district officer and generally receive full salary during the in-service training.

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Science and technical teaching has been given special emphasis by the federal government. Thus, Islamabad's Institute for the Promotion of Science Education and Training (IPSET) and National Technical Teachers Training College (NTTTC) have been doing excellent work in upgrading the knowledge base of secondary school and junior college science teachers as well as instructors in technology colleges and polytechnics. For educational administrators there is the Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM) at Islamabad, providing courses and in-service training for school and college principals, district education officers, and regional directors.

There are few facilities in Pakistan for special education. The first to start courses leading to a master's degree in special education were the University of Karachi, the National Institute for the Handicapped at the University of Islamabad (NIHUS), and the Allama Iqbal Open University. With the establishment of the office of Director-General of Special Education within the Ministry of Health, Social Welfare, and Special Education in 1985, special education attracted a national focus. In 1989 NIHUS received a major boost with the opening of 45 centers for special education with a combined enrollment of 3,500.

Lesson-40

RESEARCH AND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

Topic-196: Introduction to Research in Language Teaching

Research is the systematic inquiry with the goal of understanding a phenomenon in the world through the systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data in order to establish facts and reach new conclusions.

Why to Conduct Research in Language Teaching?

Engaging in research allows you to learn about a range of perspectives on certain issue. Research can allow you to have a clear rationale for your teaching choices. Conducting research can have a direct, impact on your classroom, your students, and your teaching. It can also help you to refine your teaching philosophy and pedagogical approach. In addition, research provides you with an opportunity to become part of a teacher-researcher community of practice, which provides you with connections and networks to get prior information and contribute.

The benefit of research in language teaching is that it is **Applicable** (to your language classroom), **Collaborative** (integrating you into a teacher-researcher community practice), and **Empowering** (for you and the participants in your research.

Classification of Research in Language Teaching

There are different ways of classifying research studies in terms of the type of research design used, such as descriptive, experimental and correlational studies. Descriptive research is to describe the phenomenon in its naturalistic context, whereas experimental research manipulates variables under controlled conditions. Correctional research examines associations between or among variables. Studies can also be classified in terms of their data collection methods. In this respect it can be quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research. Quantitative research involves numerical data collected through various quantitative measures and analysis of those data through statistical procedures. Qualitative research consists of verbal data or data that involve texts and the analysis and interpretation of those texts. Mixed methods research involves a combination of both types of data. The terms qualitative and quantitative are also used to differentiate between studies in terms of their philosophical points of view with qualitative research valuing subjective judgments, whereas quantitative research stressing objectivity, control, and distance from the research. A third way of classifying research studies is in terms of their objectives. Studies can be exploratory or explanatory in their objectives. Exploratory research aims to discover ideas or to understand the phenomenon by attempting to generate new perspectives or hypothesis from the data. Explanatory research, however, aims to provide explanations for the relationship among variables by identifying the causes. Finally, studies can be classified in terms of the time frame for data collection. Hence they can be either cross-sectional or longitudinal. Cross-sectional studies involve data collected at a particular point of time or during short periods of time. Longitudinal studies involve data collected

over an extended period of time with the aim of describing or tracking development or change over time.

The six articles published in this issue of Language Teaching Research present research that varies widely in terms of the type of research design used as well as methodology of data collection, time frame and research objectives. They range from highly controlled experimental and/or cross-sectional studies that attempt to explain relationships or differences between and among groups, to descriptive and/or highly qualitative research that attempts to provide an in-depth understanding of the nature of the event, to longitudinal studies to trace development over time.

The first study by Abrams and Rott is a quantitative cross-sectional study of 245 learners of German as a second language (L2) at two public universities in the USA. It aimed to examine learner performance when they carried out two different commonly used assessment tasks (discrete-point tasks and integrative essay tasks). Wacha and Liu report on a study that aimed to examine the efficacy of two forms of recasts, elaborated recasts and paraphrased recasts, while at the same time comparing them to conventional recasts in an English as a foreign language context

Zhang conducted a quasi-experimental pretest, posttest, delayed posttest study to examine L2 learners' writing development in four intact EFL classes. The study compared the performance of four groups of Chinese learners of English. Two groups received reading–writing tasks (in one of the groups, both tasks were in English and in the other group the reading was in Chinese and the writing was in English), one group performed a writing task plus comprehensive corrective feedback, and the fourth group received no treatment.

Uzum conducted a case study of one participant, an Uzbek language teacher, who had travelled to the USA to study in a PhD program. Conducted within a language socialization framework, the aim was to explore how the teacher negotiated her pedagogical beliefs and practices when socializing into the new educational and cultural setting. This study provides a good example of an ethnographic qualitative case study in which data were collected and triangulated from multiple sources including several interviews conducted at different points in time (at the beginning, middle, and end the year), audio and video-recorded classroom observations, and various classroom materials, lesson plans and syllabi as well as detailed field notes taken from the observations.

Arnott examined the perspectives of L2 educators (teachers and administrators) on the implementation of French as a second language (FSL) teaching innovation in Canada (i.e. the Accelerative Integrated Method), which was used either as an optional or mandated teaching method in two teaching contexts. The study used a mixed methods design in which qualitative data from interviews and focus groups and quantitative data from survey were triangulated to provide an in-depth understating of the participants experiences and perspectives.

To conclude the above mention articles address a variety of topics in the field of second language teaching, including assessment tasks, second language education, grammar practice, corrective feedback, teacher socialization, and writing development. The studies also use a wide range of research designs and approaches. This reflects the multifaceted nature of second language teaching and the diversity of research methods and strategies used to address issues in this discipline.

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Topic-197: Epistemological Basis for Research in Language Teaching

It would appear that the split in applied linguistic and especially SLA research between more quantitative and qualitative approaches seems to draw from a distinction in educational research between positivist approaches and constructivist ones. The positivist approach relied on observation and reason as a means of understanding behavior. It drew on scientific description and looked for verification of findings. The emphasis was on quantitative research, on empirical science and rational methods, with an emphasis on objectivity. Positivism was, in fact, the philosophical basis for most quantitative research in education (Shank 1993).

The constructivist view was that the human mind had a role to play in creating an understanding of behavior and other phenomena. Constructivists contended that a mechanistic and reductionist view of nature excluded choice, freedom, individuality and life experiences. Moreover, it was considered dehumanizing to impose rules of behavior and thought, reducing researchers into observers set on discovering general laws governing human behavior. Constructivists argued that the capacity for subjectivity should be regained.

Anti-positivist approaches included phenomenology the study of direct experience taken at face value, where behavior is determined by the phenomena of experience rather than by external, objective and physically described reality.

It also included ethnomethodology, concerned with how people make sense of their everyday world: interactions in a social encounter (the assumptions they make, the conventions they use and the practices they adopt) (Cohen & Manion 1994, p. 29–32).

This distinction in approaches to research methods really fronted the issue of the nature of enquiry and how to conceptualize the social reality. Is SLA a reality external or independent of the collection of human learners or is it something that can only be understood through the lenses of human beings (i.e., with different people construing the world in different ways)? What it comes down to researchers whether new students or experienced professionals in the field determining for themselves the nature of knowledge before they even begin to select research methods for answering their questions of interest. The traditional way to contrast qualitative and quantitative approaches to research is by providing description for the two:

Quantitative Research: controlled, experimental, objective, inferential, outcome-oriented, reliable, particularistic, hard/replicable data, generalizable, aggregate analysis;

Qualitative Research: naturalistic, observational, subjective, descriptive, process-oriented, valid, holistic, real, rich/deep data, ungeneralizable, single-case analysis.

Johnstone (2000) noted that quantitative studies tend to ask the research questions in mechanical ways (e.g., counting instances, computing means, calculating statistics), while qualitative studies ask them in non-mechanical ways (e.g., by asking about, watching or listening to phenomena of interest). In other words, quantitative discourse analysts seek to determine how something happens, while

why and how things happen are the focus of qualitative discourse analyses. While Brown (2004) would contend that it is preferable to view the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research as a matter of degrees or a continuum rather than a clear-cut dichotomy, Dörnyei (2007, p. 20) feels that making the dichotomous distinction is a useful starting place. Having said that, Dörnyei does devote attention to what are referred to as mixed methods research, namely, hybrid studies that combine qualitative and quantitative methods.

Such research is characterized by methodological triangulation, to help reduce the inherent weaknesses of individual methods. Dörnyei would see the variety of possible combinations of methods as rich depending on how the combining is carried out not sequentially. He provides the following arguments in favor of mixed methods (p. 45–46):

Qualitative research is seen as too context-specific and involving unrepresentative samples. Thus, it may be wise to start with a robust sample. Yet a qualitative approach can complement a quantitative one which may be seen as overly simplistic, decontextualized and reductionist in terms of its generalizations, failing to capture the meanings that people attach to their lives and circumstances.

A mixed methods approach allows for a multi-level analysis of complex issues, where both numeric trends and verbal descriptions are included. Using a mixed method can improve validity, through the convergence and corroboration of findings. Such research can reach multiple audiences because of its potential interest to larger audiences of readers.

He then adds the following pitfalls of mixed methods:

There is a possibility that such research studies may become a substitute for sharp conceptual thinking and insightful analyses (Biber & Leavy 2006, p. 334). There is always the likelihood that the researcher does not have equal methodological skills for doing both kinds of research. Mixing methods which are highly diverse may produce 'anything goes' approach.

In any effort to determine just how applied linguists were doing one or another kind of research or at least getting it published Lazaraton (2005) classified all the data-based, empirical research articles in Language Learning, Modern Language Journal, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, and the TESOL Quarterly during an 11-year period, 1991–2001. Her goal was to determine how many reported on quantitative vs. qualitative research, using as a criterion for quantitative that there was a rigorous statistical analysis of the data. She classified 86% of the 524 articles as reflecting quantitative research, only 13% as qualitative, and 1% as involving mixed approaches. She noted that at the time four journals to publish a qualitative research report. Since Lazaraton's study was focusing primarily on the 1990s, we felt that it would be useful to take another look at the research picture a decade later.

Topic-198: Current Research Practices in Language Teaching

Taking Stock of Current Research Practices

In this session, we will look at all the studies from five journals: **Modern Language Journal, Language Learning, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching Research:** Given Lazaraton's analysis to 2001, we chose the dates between 2002 and 2007 and we here summarize the design types, their frequency and the frequency of the different instruments used. In essence, we first try to provide the reader with a brief compendium of current trends in research methods. Secondly, we conceptualize the aims of studies as potentially falling into four categories of investigation types:

- Investigations of linguistic knowledge
- Investigations of linguistic performance
- Investigations of attitudes and perceptions
- Investigations of learners' cognitive processing.

As Macaro began reporting, a total of 419 empirical studies were examined from the five journals between the years 2002 and 2007 as follows: Applied Linguistics (N = 57), Studies in Second Language Acquisition (N = 75), Language Teaching Research (N = 77), Modern Language Journal

(N = 103) and Language Learning (N = 107). We add a note of caution here. By 'examined' we mean that a small team of research assistants scanned the abstracts and main texts for the research questions, the overall design and the instruments used. The data reproduced here is as reported (and as could best be gleaned) in those sections of each study. It has to be said that the process of extracting the data we were interested in was not always easy. The reason is that research questions were not always stated under a clear heading, the type of study design had sometimes to be inferred, the instruments were not always clearly explained and, particularly, not always provided in the appendices. We return to this problem in our conclusions. In the meantime we should bear in mind that the data presented here may contain a few inaccuracies because the 'true' information we were looking for was buried in other sections of the article. We unfortunately did not have the resources to thoroughly read every single one of the 419 studies that we considered of an empirical nature and directly related to SLA.

Study Design Types

We will now describe what we mean by this three-category system of study design. In 'descriptive studies', the researchers (usually, or at least in theory) do not have a preconceived idea of the phenomenon under investigation. They intend to carry out an exploration of the phenomenon by simply observing, measuring it and/or describing it. Because they do not hold preconceived ideas about the nature of the phenomenon, they also do not hold beliefs about the independent variables which might affect the phenomenon. The term 'grounded approach' is often used to describe this type of study (because the data, as it were, emerge from the bottom up) and the over-arching

methodologies used to describe the phenomenon are usually, ethnographic and/or qualitative in nature. 'Case studies' (see below) are good examples of descriptive studies, but descriptive studies are certainly not limited to descriptions of individual cases. Moreover, descriptive studies can use quantitative instruments once the validity and suitability of these to answer the research questions have been established, usually after an initial qualitative phase. An example of a descriptive study is Hyland and Tse (2004). Here the researchers analysed 240 dissertations by students writing in their second language (L2) in order to arrive at an understanding of

- the range of devices that writers deploy in order to organize the texts that they produce and
- the ways in which they communicate with their readers.

Another example of a descriptive study is that of Vickers (2007) who collected naturalistic data from seven team meetings of six university engineering students (one a non-native English speaker) in order to describe the interactional processes that defined who the expert, socialized participants were, and those interactional processes that worked to socialize novice participants.

Topic-199: Research in Language Teaching in Pakistan

When it comes to Pakistan the research tradition in general and specifically research in language teaching has not been very strong. To understand research in language teaching in the Pakistani context we need to consider the following:

- The ELT context of Pakistan
- General research context of Pakistan
- Research in SLA/ ELT and Pakistan
- Current Practices in Pakistan
- Role of various organizations and institutes of higher education
- Issues and problems

Topic-200: Types of Research Instruments and their Purpose: Current Trends

Analysis of the measures that applied linguists have been utilizing in empirical research studies over the last six years in the five key journals: Modern Language Journal, Language Learning, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching Research found that four fifth of the measures used represented tests or tasks to measure performance. However, the number of standardized tests used was very low and, and very little researcher attention seems to be devoted to ensuring the validity of these tests. Nor is there a stated concern with piloting of these tests and tasks. We need to have an insight into the purposes that these instruments have been put to, and it is as given below:

Issues of Categorization

Some studies adopt a mixed-methods approach, where not only are quantitative and qualitative methods combined to fit the purpose, but also a broader range of instruments is being used to

measure the variables of interest. Hence, it is increasingly important for researchers to have some familiarity with different types of measures, and how best to combine them to get the desired results. Depending on their research questions, researchers may find themselves needing measures that fall, for example, in all four of the areas listed below:

- Linguistic knowledge – including grammatical judgment tests, discourse completion tasks, verbal report data and reaction time measures.
- Linguistic performance/skills – anything from tests of receptive ability using a multiple-choice format to cloze and C-tests, to free-recall protocols or story narration, to role-play.
- Attitudes and perceptions – including questionnaire/surveys (on and off -line), interviews (varyingly structured), journals, or use of a 'repertory grid' (to get at people's perceptions, assumptions and concepts).
- Cognitive processing – mostly through verbal report measures such as think-aloud, introspective and retrospective self-observation (also referred to as stimulated recalls) and self-report.

While the categories of 'linguistic knowledge' and 'linguistic performance' above would appear to be relatively discrete, a study could be designed that would, say, use a role-play to ultimately get at someone's knowledge about the language, making use of retrospective self-observational data from the learners indicating what they knew about the various forms that they used. By the same token, it would also be possible to use a grammatical judgment test to determine someone's receptive skills, such as their knowledge of third-person singular *–s* in English, and then to follow it up with forced elicitation of the form to get at the performance side (Mackey & Gass 2005, pp. 49–50).

So, as suggested above, a way of arriving at a level of confidence that the instrument is doing the job of data gathering which it is intended to do is to use 'on-line' techniques, where the 'participants' voice' is heard regarding the task they are actually doing. We will therefore take a brief look at what we argue is a continuum of elicitation techniques stretching from think-aloud protocols to stimulated recall.

Verbal Report: From Verbal Report: From Think-Aloud Protocols to Stimulated Recall

We consider the two verbal report techniques, think aloud and stimulated recall, as representing two polarities on a continuum because they involve two variables: time and distance from the learning event. In a think-aloud protocol, the participants are given a task to perform and during the performance of that task they are asked to verbalize (i.e., to articulate) what their thought processes are. The researcher's role is merely to encourage that verbalization through prompting the participants with utterances such as 'please keep telling me what you are thinking'; 'please keep thinking aloud if you can'. Think-aloud implies no direct inspection of the mental state, but merely reportage. There is considerable debate as to how feasible it is to reliably capture these inner thought processes and whether the process of thinking aloud might distort the way that the participants would normally go about doing the task (for discussions and research evidence see Bowles and Leow 2005; Ericsson and Simon 1993; Leow and Morgan-Short 2004).

Particularly think-aloud with tasks which involve the processing of sound and use of phonological working memory. For example trying to think aloud while 'concurrently' listening to a tape recording is extremely difficult, and trying to think aloud when carrying out a speaking task is virtually impossible.

As a result, various time gaps from the actual processing of the task (the 'event') are either built in to the methodology or inevitably result from the trickiness of what the researcher is trying to do. For example, a researcher might stop the tape, during a listening task, and ask listeners to verbalize what they were doing in their heads during that segment of the text. This is the first step towards 'retrospective' verbalization, thinking back to what they were doing just a few seconds before. Or the researcher may allow the listener to decide for themselves where to stop the tape and to articulate what they had been doing to process the text. Both approaches have their disadvantages. The first assumes that the researcher knows the best place to stop in order to have the respondent give retrospective verbal report. This may not be the case and important data may be overlooked.

A further move away from the time of the event is when the participants break away from the thinking aloud and start to report, or make a comparison with, what they were doing earlier in the task: 'earlier on I thought it meant this, now I'm wondering if it means this'. While this recursive processing may be legitimate evidence of monitoring one's understanding, it may also be methodology induced in that the participants may realize they have not told the researcher certain information that had occurred sometime earlier. A further move still away from the time of the event is when the participants declare that (and sometimes the researcher asks if) this is what they normally do in a similar task situation. Or the participants begin to summarize ('lump together') how they go about doing a task. In order to avoid this undermining of the methodological intention, sometimes researchers quite simply admit defeat and opt for participants to think back, once the task is completed, on how they went about carrying it out.

This can be carried out either in written form, or through researcher questioning. The main difference with this approach is that the processing is being filtered subjectively not only through the participant's (possibly inaccurate) perceptions of what they were doing at the time, but also with the knowledge of perception. In other words, the researcher may not be tapping into those true inner processes, and in addition, the summation of those processes may be affected by the participants' estimate of how well they did in the now completed task.

So far we have looked at techniques which vary in their distance from the event in terms of recent period, there are some situations where it is impossible (or unacceptable) to capture learners' thought processes in the space where the event was taking place. A typical example is during an actual language lesson, where for example a researcher may want to know what the learners' reaction was to specific teacher behavior. Or a researcher interested in investigating the theme of pragmatic competence sets up a role-play in a meeting between student and teacher.

In the above examples a teacher's behavior or the role-play may be video-recorded. The event is then re-presented to the participants some time later and almost always in a different place, in order to stimulate what was going through their minds at the time of the event. Clearly here both time and

location may have an impact on the accuracy with which what the participants now report reflects what their actual thoughts were at the time of the event. The more time that has elapsed the more they may have forgotten what they were thinking and/or the more they might be interpreting the event in the light of later events. Discussing in a small room face-to-face with one researcher may be a different experience for the participants than that of being in a classroom surrounded by their fellow learners. Moreover, stimulated recall is subject to the same methodological decision-making problems as in the think-aloud listening task example above. Should the researcher pre-select the episodes to be used as stimuli or should the participant be self-selecting them? Both have their advantages and disadvantages.

Despite the problems associated with the continuum from 'concurrent' reporting of participants' thoughts to stimulated recall, these participant-centred techniques continue to be very popular because of the rich data that they can elicit and researchers continue to refine the techniques as well as problematizing them. Further good coverage of issues relating to verbal report in L2 research can be found in Brown and Rodgers (2002, p. 53–78), Cohen (1998, p. 49–61), Green (1998) and Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 75–85).

Lesson-41

RECAPITULATING AND EXPLORING FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Topic-201: Recapitulating the History of LTM

This session reviews and summarizes the history of LTM; and for this purpose recapitulates following topics:

1. Language Teaching Methods in Ancient Times
2. LTM in Europe in Early Modern Times
3. LTM in the 19th and Early to Mid-20th Century
4. LTM from the Mid- to Late-20th Century

In fact, history of the consideration of foreign language teaching can be traced back to the ancient Greeks. Greeks were interested in what they could learn about the mind and the will through language learning. Next were the Romans who were the first to study a foreign language formally. They studied Greek, taught by Greek tutors and slaves. Their approach was less philosophical and more practical than that of the Greeks.

This was followed by a continuous effort in the history throughout to develop language teaching methods; and the efforts continue till date.

Topic-202: Recapitulating Some Methods - Part 1

There has always been a struggle to find out appropriate ways o teach language. At various time points in history various methods have been introduced. This session presents a review of some of the methods which include the following:

1. Grammar Translation Method
2. The Direct Method
3. Audio-lingual Method
4. Total Physical Response Method
5. The Silent Way Method
6. Community Language Learning
7. Suggestopedia
8. Whole Language Method

All these methods are presented chronologically as they were introduced at various periods of time in the history of Language teaching. All these methods and approaches differ in their theoretical background. They also differ in focus and goals, views on teacher and learner roles, typical techniques and forms of interaction, attitude to errors, use of mother tongue, role of instructional materials, etc. differ. Each of them has its own strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats as well.

Topic-203: Recapitulating Some Methods- Part 2

As mentioned earlier, in the previous session, there has always been a struggle to find out appropriate ways o teach language. At various time points in history various methods have been introduced. This session presents a review of some of the methods which include the following:

1. Multiple Intelligence
2. Neurolinguistic Programming
3. The Lexical Approach
4. Competency Based Language Teaching
5. Communicative Language Teaching
6. The Natural Approach
7. Cooperative Language Learning
8. Content Based Instruction
9. Task Based Language Teaching

Topic-204: Recapitulating Teaching of Vocabulary, Pronunciation and Skills

This session presents a review of the following:

1. Vocabulary
2. Pronunciation
3. Teaching Speaking
4. Teaching Listening
5. Teaching Reading
6. Teaching Writing
7. Integrating Language Skills

Each of these areas has its own significance with reference to the teaching and learning of any language in general and with reference to the teaching and learning of English in specific.

Topic-205: Future Directions in LTM

This sessions reviews and covers following topics and areas; and provides insights for future directions in LTM:

1. Digital Media and EIL Classroom: Present and Future
2. Global Literacy: EIL Classrooms and World
3. Learner Autonomy
4. Future of Assessment
5. Teacher Training in Future
6. Research in Language Teaching and Future