Basic Concepts

Basic Concepts

Learning styles

Learning styles refer to a range of competing and contested theories that aim to account for differences in individuals' learning.

Language awareness

His explicit knowledge about language, conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning and language teaching and language use is termed as language awareness

Three aim second language culture in language classroom

1) Develop intellectual personal and professional abilities
2) acquired basic language skill in order to communication with the English language
3) Acquire the language component necessary required in the various life situations

Fossilization

Interlanguage fossilization is a phenomenon of second language acquisition (SLA) in which second language learners turn linguistic features that are correct in their first language into permanent errors in the way they speak and write the new language.

Productive Skills

Productive Activities are designed for the development of the productive skills. Speaking and writing are known as productive skills as they produce language. Writing is the most important productive activity for L2 learners to express themselves for developing relevant texts according to the target situation requirements. The learners need to follow the following steps for writing proficiency:

- Formulating mental concepts, that are to be expressed centrally, requires content knowledge.
- Recognizing what content will be relevant for intended readers, and what will be shared versus new information, requires context knowledge.
- Constructing text within socially defined conventions of expression (including selecting linguistic forms and organization patterns that are appropriate for the topic, purpose, and audience) also requires other aspects of knowledge of culture.

Situations are important for understanding culture

1) Greetings 2) Eating Ice-creams 3) Forms of address 4) Promoting business 5) Making requests

Affective domain

It involves the learner along with his social identity or social background in learning the second language. When a teacher allows a learner to get involved in the class along with social values, she invites him/her towards second language learning. In thus way a teacher encourages the student to develop personal relation with the second language. This exchange of personal identity with the second language learning enhances the positive feelings and attitude of the learner towards second language learning. This emotional engagement checks learner's frustration and in return motivates the learner because working singly with second language make the student frustrating. It develops their confidence about learning the second language and makes them understand that learning second language is possible. Sharing their background knowledge or experience of first language makes them prepared for learning second language. So, affective domain must be take in account in teaching and learning second language and it works along with the involvement of first language.

Second language

A person's second language or l2 is a language that is not the native language (first language L1.) of the speaker, but is learned later (usually as foreign language,) but it can be another language used in the speaker's home country.

For Example:

There are two official language of Canada (English and French) and some people use both.

First Language

A first language, native language, or mother/father/parent tongue (also known as arterial language or L1) is a language that a person has been exposed to from birth or within the critical period. A person's first language helps them understand words and concepts in the style of that first language. First language is acquired thus its learning is effortless.

Intake in Light of Input Processing Theory by Bill Van Patten

1. Linguistic data is actually processed from the input.
2. It is held in working memory for further processing.
3. Input processing theory does not offer a complete model of successful processing input.
4. It offers a set of principles.
5. It explains the apparent failures of learners to process the input.

Lesson-23

Lesson-23

ASPECTS OF SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

ASPECTS OF SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY



Self-regulation is the capability of autonomous functioning that mature and skilled individual possess; whereas, children or unskilled individual learn under guidance of other more skilled individuals through a process of other-regulation, mediated through language. Thus, successful learning involves a shift from collaborative inter-mental activity to autonomous intra-mental activity. The process of supportive dialogue that prompts them through successive steps of a problem is known as „scaffolding". The domain where learning can most productively take place is named as the „Zone of Proximal Development". This is a domain where learner is not yet capable of independent functioning but can achieve the desired outcome through relevant scaffolding. Scaffolding has following functions:

- Recruiting interest in the task
- Simplifying the task
- Maintaining pursuit of the goal
- Marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution
- Controlling frustration during problem solving
- Demonstrating an idealized version of the act to be performed

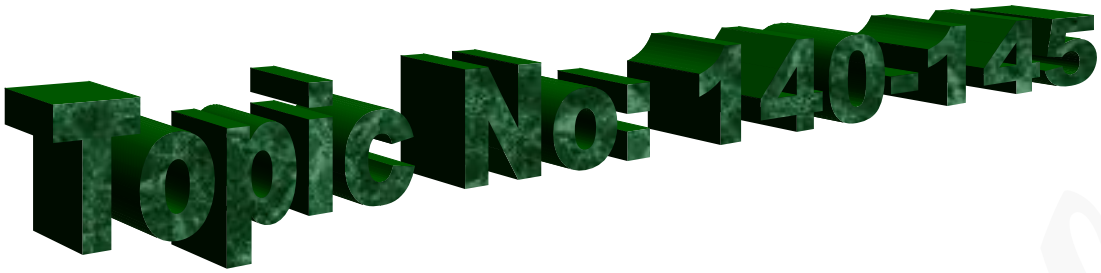
Principles of Socio-cultural Theory across Time Scales

1. Phylogenesis is the learning that happens across different human races across different periods of time.
2. Microgenesis is the description of how humans learn throughout their life.
3. Ontogenesis is the learning that infants pass through in the course of their early development.

Young children are well known to engage in private speech, talk to and for themselves rather than for external conversational partners. This private speech in classic Piagetian theory is seen as an evidence of children"s egocentrism, whereas socio-cultural theory interprets it as an evidence of children"s growing ability to regulate their own behavior. For Vygotsky, private speech eventually becomes inner speech, a use of language to regulate internal thought without any external articulation.

Lesson-24
ACTIVITY THEORY, PRIVATE SPEECH AND SCAFFOLDING

Lesson-24
ACTIVITY THEORY, PRIVATE SPEECH AND SCAFFOLDING



Activity theory comprises a series of proposals for the social context within which individual learning takes place. Activity is defined in terms of sociocultural settings in which collaborative interaction, inter-subjectivity, and assisted performance occur. It contains a subject, an object, actions, and operations. Actions are always goal-directed; different actions or strategies may be taken to achieve the same goal. Operational level of activity is the way an action is carried out and depends on the conditions under which actions are executed.

Socio-cultural perspective sees early language learning as a process of meaning-making in collaborative activity with other members of a given culture. Thus, language itself develops as a „tool" for making meaning. Similarly, second language learner has an opportunity to create yet more tools and new ways of meaning through collaborative activity with other users of target second language. The radically different view challenges the compartmentalization of social and psychological aspects of language learning. The concept of microgenesis of new language forms disputes the distinctions between surface performance and underlying competence. The concept of Zone of Proximal Development links processes of instruction, organized learning, and „naturalistic" development or acquisition. It assumes that knowledge is constructed through collaborative activity and then appropriated by the learners, seen as active agents in their own development.

Three main types of second language private speeches were identified by Ohta (2001), repetition, vicarious responses, and manipulation.

Lesson-25

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE AND SOCIO-CULTURAL LEARNING

Lesson-25
EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE AND SOCIO-CULTURAL LEARNING



Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) conducted a study to examine SL development during scaffolded teacher-student talk. Researchers looked for increased accuracy over time, evidence of students‟ developing capacity to self-correct and reducing dependency on other-regulation by the tutor. The researchers argued that the reduced need for other-regulation constituted evidence for microgenetic development within the learner‟s ZPD.

Socio-cultural theory is relatively newcomer to the field. Its distinctive features are:

1. It rejects conventional separation between social and psychological aspects of cognition and development.
2. It also rejects the classic view of language as a formal abstract system that is distinct from language use.
3. Learning is seen as a social and inter-mental activity taking place in the ZPD which precedes individual development.

Lesson-26

Lesson-26

SECOND LANGUAGE SOCIALIZATION AND IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION

SECOND LANGUAGE SOCIALIZATION AND IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION



They are acquired together, each supporting the development of the other. Meanings and functions are socioculturally organized; linguistic knowledge is embedded in sociocultural knowledge; whereas, understanding of social organization of everyday life is acquired through language. A language socialization perspective predicts that there will be structured strategic relationship between language development and „culturally organized situations of use.

The concept of social identity has been borrowed in SLL studies from social psychology. Social identity is the sense of „belonging‟ to a particular social group, whether defined by ethnicity, by language, or any other means. This concept has been criticized for being too static and too focused on the individual. Norton‟s (2000) longitudinal study explored changes in social identity over time, particularly, their struggle to achieve the right to speak in SL settings. The study presented different examples, such as a young worker Eva‟s transformation from an unskilled immigrant with no right to speak to multicultural citizen possessing the power to impose reception.

Lesson-27
INVESTMENT AND SOCIAL IDENTITIES
IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Lesson-27
INVESTMENT AND SOCIAL IDENTITIES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION



Pavlenko‟s (1998) analysis of autobiographical narratives revealed that many female SL users accepted second language English as the language that gives them enough freedom to be the kind of women they would like to be, because of the positive association between American English and feminist discourses. Norton (2000) shows that learners‟ motivation to succeed in SLL and the amount of effort they are willing to „invest‟ are closely related to the social identities they were aiming to construct over time.

Lesson-28
SOCIOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE ON LANGUAGE LEARNING
AND SECOND LANGUAGE RESEARCH

Lesson-28
SOCIOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE ON LANGUAGE LEARNING AND SECOND LANGUAGE RESEARCH



Sociolinguistically-oriented research has provided rich descriptions of the context for language learning and the speech events. Second language ethnographers believed that learning is a collaborative affair and language knowledge is socially constructed through interaction. They have paid less attention than socio-cultural theorists to the linguistic detail of expert or novice interaction or to „microgenesis‟ of new language forms in learner‟s SL repertoire. On the other hand, current ethnographies of SL communication and language socialization offer rich evidence of the influence of learning context and learner‟s evolving style of engagement with it. SL ethnographers take a more rounded view of the

learner as a social being; thus, dimensions as gender and ethnicity are seen as significant for language learning success.

Achievements

From a **linguistic perspective**, continuing application of UG has led to sophisticated and complex range of proposals. The UG approach has also been instrumental in providing sharper linguistic description of the learner‟s language and has helped to better document the linguistic route.

From a **cognitive perspective**, main developments have been the application of information processing models to grammar learning domains. The connectionist models radically challenge traditional thinking in grammar learning. The functionalist tradition added substantially to our understanding of the course of SL development. Variationist studies suggest that much second language variability can be accounted for by evolving links between form and function.

The **sociolinguistic perspective** tells us that learners‟ engagement in SL interaction is influenced by power relations and other cultural factors which are not inferably fixed but can be negotiated as learners build new identities. Interactionist and socio-cultural research show how ongoing character of SL interaction can systematically affect learning opportunities it makes available.

Lesson-29

Lesson-29

INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND THE ROLE OF L1 IN L2 LEARNING

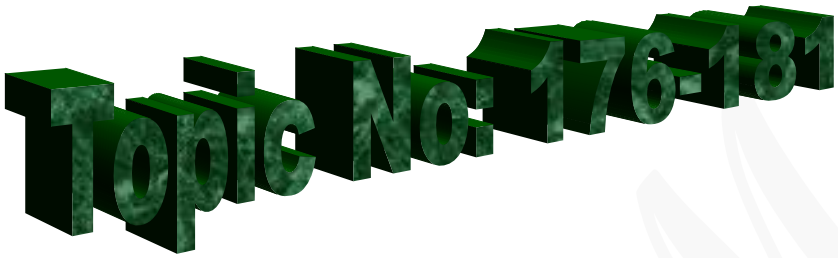
Topic No: 170-175

The role of L1 in L2 learning has been a subject of much research and debate. Shifting paradigms in the debate are discussed in this paper, and teachers and educators are invited to rethink and restructure second language teaching toward more facilitative account of the role of L1. It points out the institutional policy of completely excluding learners‟ home or first language from SL classrooms in the context of elite private schools and universities in Pakistan. This policy is driven by the assumption that maximum L2 input will force learners to eventually think in L2 and that the habit of using L1 interferes and delays L2 learning. The evidence informs that Pakistani elite schools frequently punish, fine, or humiliate students for speaking Urdu or a home language in English classrooms. Despite much emerging evidence of the positive role of L1, its role is condemned in L2 classrooms. This practice not only infests

the learners‟ identities with a sense of shame but also excludes a majority of students from meaningful learning.

Lesson-30

THE FACILITATIVE ROLE OF L1



Dulay and Burt presented a study in 1974 in which they:

1. Challenged the very assumptions of CA.
2. Marginalized the role of L1 in L2 learning.
3. Presented the concept of „creative construction of language‟.
4. Emphasized that notion of „interference‟ was built on the negative transfer of L1.
5. Argued that CA led to „unlearning the habit of L1‟ – not the aim of L2 learning.
6. Criticized the lack of distinction between children and adults in the analysis as evidence was taken from adult settings.

Transitional Competence

The first language acts as facilitator in second language learning and it helps the second language in terms of transition. While learning a second language, the L2 learners rely on their first language. They use their old knowledge to build new structures. Hence, the first language was seen as „transitional competence.‟

Idiosyncratic Dialect

The language (L2) that the learners use while learning the second language can be identified as idiosyncratic dialect. It is not the target language; it is simply another language.

Approximative System

Approximative system is a system of L2 that is near the target language. It is almost like the target language but not exactly like the target language.

Inter-language

It is not essential that all language L2 learners speak like natives. The language (L2) that the L2 learners speak while learning L2 is known as „Inter-language." It is not the target language but a language in its own right.

Selinker (1972) described L1 „transfer" as the first of five processes at work in learners" interlanguage. Corder (1981) suggested that L1 basic grammar is the starting point of this continuum and L1 transfer is a learner strategy for formulating hypothesis about L2, not resulting from the negative transfer but from borrowing. It reformulated the concept of transfer as „intercession." Research focus was shifted to when and how of transfer rather than if. It was suggested that certain similarities may lead to negative transfer; these similarities can also lead to fossilization and „retardation" of L2 development. Corder suggests that borrowing from L1 would be positive in case of close similarities between both languages and would lead to errors if only moderately similar. Jackson (1987) asserts that interference occurs in proportion to the contrast between the two languages. According to Kellerman (1983), the complexity of transfer depends upon the interaction of learner"s perception of distance from L1 and the degree of markedness in L1. Zobl (1982) emphasizes that L1 can accelerate or inhibit the developmental sequence of L2 learning but cannot alter it.

Lesson-31

DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF L1

Topic No: 182-187

Sociocultural theory emphasizes that there is a crucial link between mental processes and sociocultural settings. It asserts that experimental or instructional manipulation can"t deflect learner"s overpowering and transformative agency. This agency embedded in their personal histories inevitably becomes involved in their learning process. The theory argues that the primary elements that promote learning and development are social by nature and meaningful learning occurs in interaction. L1 of learners is an important tool to facilitate interaction and make learning meaningful. The role of L1 in L2 learning from a sociocultural perspective can be argued through discussion of its basic concepts: mediation, scaffolding in the ZPD, and inner speech.

Scaffolding is a dialogic process that assists learners to move from „other regulation‟ to „selfregulation.‟ It is a process of supportive dialogue that directs the learners through successive steps of a problem and enables them to achieve higher linguistic performance that was originally beyond them. Language mediates scaffolding of the learner within Zone of Proximal development (ZPD). First language (L1) assists to establish ZPD of the learner and ensures scaffolding by affording dialogic opportunities for „expansion of established knowledge.‟ This concept is strikingly different from Krashen‟s (1982) input concept that perceives learner receiving input as a passive listening body. The concept of ZPD and scaffolding are social practices of assistance that shape, construct, and influence learning in which learner actively participates. In this, the value of L1 cannot be underestimated as it mediates mutual problem-solving and interaction.

Inner speech is the third fundamental tool in learning conceptualized by sociocultural theory. It assists in regulating internal thought, managing actions, appropriating and systematizing information, and carrying out meta-cognitive activities. It emerges when the learner faces difficulty and supports them in effective manipulation of the task. It works as dominant mode of verbal thought and remains a central fixture governing our higher mental functions.

Lesson-32
LANGUAGE AWARENESS AND L1

Lesson-32

LANGUAGE AWARENESS AND L1

Topic No: 188-193

Learners are more likely to switch to first language (L1) in their inner speech when confronted with a difficult task. In the early development stages, learners have to resort to L1-the only available resource to organize and process new information. This resorting is critical for the learners to understand, contextualize, and respond to new knowledge. Encouraging them to use L1 inner speech allows them the crucial time and space to develop their inner speech in second language (L2), until they are able to manipulate tools of both languages. L1 facilitates self-regulation functions. It maintains the vital dialect relationship between speech and thought. Hence, it is best utilized rather than denied existence in L2 classrooms.

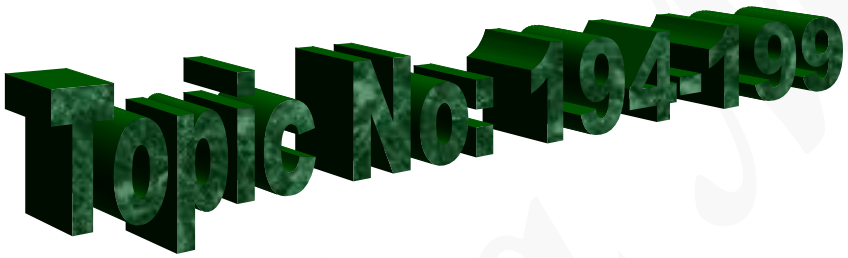
Language Awareness (LA)

Language Awareness (LA) pedagogical theory is suggested as complementary to communicative language teaching for its unique stance between L1 and L2. It accords value to learners‟ social background and their L1 and capitalizes learners‟ knowledge and experience of L1. It emphasizes persons‟ sensitivity and conscious awareness of language‟s nature and role in human life. LA empowers the learners to consolidate and systemize knowledge of L2 and become conscious of the relationship between different languages. It aims to enhance communicative effectiveness in their L1 as well as L2 by cultivating understanding of cross cultural, cross linguistic differences and influences in different modes of manifestation.

Lesson-33
THE FACILITATION OF L1 IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Lesson-33

THE FACILITATION OF L1 IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING



a) Affective domain involves the whole person of learner by encouraging them to develop personal relevance to L2 and assigns importance to their feelings and attitudes.
b) Social domain fosters tolerance and acceptance of ethnic diversity and awareness of the origins and characteristics of their own language, dialect and its place among other languages.
c) Power domain creates awareness of the way language can be used to imply meaning.
d) Cognitive domain helps analyzing the language, drawing inferences, and categorizing new knowledge.
e) Performance domain raises consciousness of learner toward better performance.

Lesson-34
THE ROLE OF L1 IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Lesson-34

THE ROLE OF L1 IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING



The debate about L1‟s role continues though in cognitive rather than behaviorist terms. The use of L1 in L2 classrooms has been appraised as too complex for learners, requiring them to operate in two different ways. It has been argued that frequent resource to L1 would lead to slower L2 learning because of the habit of translation. However, stopping the flow of L1 information and thoughts is not possible, hence it is best to utilize it rather than ignore it. It is argued that focus on form and consciousness-raising could lead to cognitive development and better L2 performance. It has been observed that the learners have a very strong association with their native culture even after spending decades in another country. Ignoring this cultural bond can only add problems for L2 learners. Thus, bilingual medium oriented strategies must be not only allowed but actively encouraged to ensure real communicative competence. Inter-relationship between L1 and L2 lies at a much deeper level than surface or even near-surface categories. The role of L1 as prior knowledge is well founded in the light of human information processing, perceptual mechanism, and memory. Learners must not be deprived of the opportunity to use their language. Instead, they should be encouraged to exploit the richness of bilingualism by developing connections, comparisons and contrasts in formal functions of languages, cultural association, and crosslinguistic reference for knowledge building.

Lesson-35

FACTORS INFLUENCING SLA



Influencing Factors

Some students learn a new language more quickly and easily than others. The factors influencing their success are categorized as internal and external. It is their complex interplay that determines their

learning speed and facility. The internal factors include age, personality, motivation (intrinsic), experiences, cognition, and L2‟s similarity to their native language. The external factors include curriculum, instruction, culture and status, motivation (extrinsic), and access to native speakers. Moreover, there are individual differences in language learning as they are reflected in learning styles, strategies, and affective variables.

Lesson-36

Lesson-36

DIFFERENT LEARINNG STYLES AND STRATEGIES

DIFFERENT LEARINNG STYLES AND STRATEGIES



The term learning styles is commonly reserved for preferred forms of brain activity associated with information acquisition and processing. Researchers and practitioners use learning style research with personality and cognitive styles to determine ability, predict performance, and improve classroom teaching and learning. The terms learning style, cognitive style, personality type, sensory preference and modality etc. are often used loosely and interchangeably. Cognitive-style research initially addressed phenomena as perceptual speed and flexibility; later, researchers focused on processing styles from the point of view of „ego psychology.‟ In recent years, the influence of personality variables on learning styles has increased greatly. Recently preferred models include Multiple Intelligences Model, 4-MAT Model, Kolb‟s Jung-based Model, and Stenberg‟s Mental Self-government Model. Ehrman and Leaver (2001-2003) have reorganized the scales for cognitive styles like random-sequential, levelling-sharpening, and abstract-concrete along with Eherman-defined field (in) dependence/field sensitive styles under the new comprehensive construct. In this model, an ectenic learner wants or needs conscious control over learning process; whereas, a synoptic learner leaves more to preconscious or unconscious processing.

Learning styles and strategies are often interrelated. Styles are made manifest by strategies; strategy is neither good nor bad. It is essentially neutral. A strategy is useful under these conditions:

a) It relates well to the L2 task at hand.
b) It fits the particular students‟ learning style preference to one degree or another.
c) The students employ the strategy effectively and link it with other relevant strategies.

Such strategies make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations.

Oxford (1990) identified six major groups of L2 learning strategies:

1. Cognitive strategies (reasoning, note-taking, synthesizing)
2. Metacognitive strategies (identifying one‟s own preferences and needs, planning, monitoring mistakes and evaluating task success)
3. Memory-related strategies (acronyms, sound similarities, images, key words)
4. Compensatory strategies (guessing from context, circumlocution, gestures, and pause words)
5. Affective strategies (identifying one‟s mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself etc.)
6. Social strategies (asking questions, asking for clarifications, asking for help, talking with native-speakers, exploring culture and social norms)

Biggs (1992) categorizes learning strategies differently, that is, by grouping learning approaches by the purpose of learning. This model and instrument address both motivation and learning strategies:

- Surface (to get a task done with little personal investment)
- Achieving (to succeed in competition and get good marks)
- Deep (to make personal investment in the task through associations and elaboration)

Lesson-37
SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LEARNER MOTIVATION

Lesson-37
SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LEARNER MOTIVATION



Deep processing is an active process of making associations with material that is already familiar, examining interrelationships, elaborating stimulus, connecting the new material with personal experience, and considering alternative interpretations. While surface processing is completion of the task with minimum conceptual effort that results in much less information retained in memory because there is no emotional or cognitive investment in it. Biggs‟ model exploits the probable connection between intrinsic motivation and deep strategies and treats motivation in parallel with strategies.

Ehrman indicates that students may not have a choice for using deep strategies due to weak educational background, lack of aptitude for learning, inexperience, or inflexible learning style. Some other important treatments of language learning strategies are to be found in Cohen (1998) and Wenden & Rubin (1987).

Many researchers have attempted to design and execute strategy training programs. Positive effects of strategy instruction emerged for proficiency in speaking and reading. The most effective strategy instruction included demonstrating when a given strategy might be useful, as well as how to use and evaluate it, and how to transfer it to other related tasks and situations.

Affective factors in SLL include motivation, self-efficacy, tolerance of ambiguity, and anxiety, etc. Gardner and various colleagues proposed the Socio-Educational Model of Language Learning which presents two kinds of motivation: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivated students are more successful language learners than the others. These are the learners who want to integrate into the target culture; however, this orientation proved far less important in foreign language settings.

Clément et al. (1994) identified five orientations of foreign language learners:

(a) Friendship and travel-related
(b) Identification with the target language group
(c) General interest in the culture and in world events
(d) Knowledge expansion and career improvement
(e) Desire to understand L2 media

Lesson-38

Lesson-38

LANGUAGE THEORIES AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER

LANGUAGE THEORIES AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER



According to attribution theory, expectancy is tied to attribution about one‟s success. Some learners believe that their language learning success is attributable to their own actions or abilities. Others believe that their success depends on other people or on fate.

Self-efficacy theory refers to belief in one‟s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments. Such beliefs influence the amount of effort people put forth and how long they continue to pursue tasks. Research indicates that highly motivated successful learners (a) possess self-efficacy; (b) have an internal locus of control; (c) have positive attitudes toward learning; and (d) desire both social relatedness and self-direction or autonomy. According to Eccles (1984) and Wigfield (1994), motivation is based on how much students expect to succeed at a task; and how much they value that success. Eccles proposed four dimensions: attainment value, intrinsic value, extrinsic utility value, and cost attainment value.

Lesson-39
MYTHS RELATED TO SLA

Lesson-39
MYTHS RELATED TO SLA



There are different aspects of second language proficiency. Canadian researcher Jim Cummins (1981) formally defined the two aspects as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) for the sake of simplicity. BICS are often referred to as conversational English, the surface language that native speakers use in informal talk. Although there are individual differences, research shows that SL learners frequently develop native-like conversational skills within two years.

CALP is referred to as academic English, the proficiency to read, write, and learn at an appropriate grade level. This aspect of proficiency is much more critical to students‟ academic success and takes about five to seven years to develop. Educators sometimes mistakenly assume that student with fluent conversational English no longer require language instruction. It is difficult to know how long the academic language process will take for an individual student. There are numerous variables that affect the duration to acquire a second language and the approaches and methods effective in teaching the student. Such as: social and cultural factors, previous educational background, age, oral literacy skills in primary/home language, parental attitudes, and experiences etc. SLL is a complicated process that takes time. Teachers must know how children learn a second language; intuitive assumptions are often mistaken and children can be harmed if teachers have unrealistic expectations of the process of L2

learning and its relationship to the acquisition of other academic skills and knowledge. Some common misconceptions and myths about children and SL learning are:

1. Children learn SL quickly and easily as their brains are more flexible. Current research challenges it. Learning SL is as difficult for a child as it is for an adult or even more difficult since children do not have access to memory techniques and other strategies.
2. The younger the child, the more skilled he is in acquiring an L2. Research does not support this conclusion in school settings.
3. The more time spent in SL context, the quicker they learn the language. Research indicates that increased exposure does not necessarily speed the SL acquisition. Children in bilingual classes acquired SL skills equivalent to those acquired by children who have been in English-only programs.
4. Children have acquired an L2 once they can speak it. For school-aged children, proficiency in face-to-face communication does not imply proficiency in the more complex academic language.
5. All children learn an L2 in the same way. This assumption underlies a great deal of practice. Teachers must be aware of cultural differences. They need to plan varied instructional activities that consider children‟s diversity of experience, as children are likely to be more responsive to a teacher who affirms the values of the home culture.

Lesson-40
CULTURE, DIFFERENCE, AND IDENTITY

Lesson-40

CULTURE, DIFFERENCE, AND IDENTITY

Topic No: 236-241

The methods of teaching and learning are both affected by culture. When we look at Japanese culture, we find that watching, imitating, memorizing, and other receptive methods are well represented in their teaching and learning of Japanese. But in proactive Western teaching-learning repertoire, we find doing, problem solving, comparing, discussing, etc. The former puts emphasis on perception and consideration of the whole context prior to understanding. Whereas, the latter puts emphasis on concentration of overt message and expects a prompt reaction to it. While the former is nearer to the defensive, the latter is nearer to the offensive type of communication behavior.

Identity: There is definite shift in Japanese values toward the western values, but these changes are traceable on consciousness level; very few of these manifest on behavior level. Like, students confess to a strong preference for individualism above collectivism, but in real-life situations they often behave according to the collectivistic behavior patterns. Students do not volunteer in answering question in class. Not because they do not have knowledge, but because no one takes the odium to be singled out from the group. This preference of cooperation and group achievement leads toward less competitiveness and behavior and attitude, and less assertiveness in their communication than their scores suggest in surveys. In Western settings, the main function of communication is information presentation and information exchange. While in Japanese communication, this function is only of secondary importance. The primary function is to maintain good relationships. Therefore, Japanese sacrifice individual preferences or convenience, keep back opinions, and control their communicative behavior to meld into the group.

Truth: The Japanese students avoid risks and show little value for personal choice or freedom of thought. They would rather be quiet than risk thinking differently. If they are unsure of how to do something, they would either refuse to do it or they would follow the crowd as carefully as possible.

Hierarchy: In the Japanese culture, the words and statements of authority (hence of teachers) are not doubted or criticized. Their truth-value is taken for granted and also treated so. Their interaction is less mutual; students are not active and dynamic players of communication. They do not enter into communication flow with the same commitment because they do not feel they have the right to do so. Their passiveness is interpreted as a sign of respect within the Japanese frame and as a sign of indifference within the Western frame.

Lesson-41
TEACHING/ LEARNING OF CULTURE IN SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

Lesson-41

TEACHING/ LEARNING OF CULTURE IN SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS



Cultural information should be presented non-judgmentally without placing value or judgement on distinction between students‟ native culture and the culture explored in the classroom. Kramsch (1993) describes the „third culture‟ of the language classroom – a neutral space that learners can create and

use to explore and reflect on their own and target culture and language. Teachers must allow students to observe and explore cultural interactions from their own perspective to enable them to find their own voices in the SL speech community. Cultural activities and objectives should be carefully organized and incorporated into lesson plans to enrich and inform the teaching content.

Some useful strategies are:

1. Use of authentic materials 2. Proverbs (discussion of common proverbs and their comparison to the proverbs in students‟ native language) 3. Role play (they can act out miscommunications based on cultural differences) 4. Culture capsules (presenting objects like figurines, tools, jewelry, and art originated from the target culture) 5. Students as cultural resources (exchange students and immigrant students who speak target language at home can be invited as expert resources)

Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning. Second language teachers must identify the key cultural items in every aspect of language they teach. Students can be successful in speaking SL only if the cultural issues are an inherent part of the curriculum.

Lesson-42
SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND TEACHING

Lesson-42

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Criticism of SLA Research

Those critical of the role of mainstream SLA research reject the view of teaching as mainly proportional knowledge, as a set of behaviours that can be prescribed by researchers. Instead they view teaching as intuitive knowledge that takes form of theories or as a craft where the context guides the teachers‟ moment-to-moment decisions. Because of these views, basic SLA research has been criticized for paying little attention to the social context of L2 acquisition.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative language teaching (CLT) emerged when teachers were skeptical about the role of grammar in foreign language instruction and felt disillusioned with the results of audio-lingual teaching.

Scholars like Widdowson and Candlin advocated for a view of language as a communication system with focus on language in use. According to Krashen (1985), SL acquisition requires comprehensible input and motivation. Krashen made fundamental distinction between learning and acquisition. He mentioned that the teachers in his environment took it for granted that pointing out students‟ errors was not good nor was it recommended to focus on one single grammatical point at a time. These ideas fostered the adoption by some of the strong versions of CLT. According to which, communicative activities are an integral part of instruction where students‟ attention is focused on the meaning of the message to the exclusion of any focus on the code.

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FOCUS ON FORM AND TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONS

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FOCUS ON FORM AND TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONS



Ellis (1998) identified four macro-options to foster noticing or processing of linguistic form:

1. Processing instruction
2. Explicit instruction
3. Production practice
4. Negative feedback

In processing instruction, pedagogical intervention takes place at the input stage when learners are actively engaged in comprehension. It assumes that FonF interventions at comprehension stage will be less cognitively demanding. The input is carefully manipulated at the comprehension stage; learners are induced to notice the target grammatical features.

Less Explicit Processing Instruction Options

1. Input flood
2. Input enhancement
3. Involvement of comprehension-based activities

In explicit instruction, the pedagogical intervention impinges on the learners‟ L2 knowledge by deliberately directing them to attend to form. An instructional treatment is explicit if rule explanation

forms part of the instruction (deduction) or if learners are asked to attend forms and try to find rules themselves (induction). In other words, explicit instruction can be delivered in two modes, depending on its directness: direct explicit instruction where grammatical explanation is directly communicated either orally or in writing, and indirect explicit instruction where learners discover grammatical rules by themselves through conscious-raising tasks. These tasks develop awareness at the level of „understanding" rather than at the level of „noticing."

Explicit Declarative knowledge is assumed to foster development of implicit procedural knowledge through intake facilitation. DeKeyser (1998) takes a different position about the role of explicit knowledge. He advocates for explicit grammar instruction followed by first form-focused exercises to develop declarative knowledge, then by open-ended activities to foster automatization. In this way, practice may gradually bridge the gap between explicit knowledge and its use.

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EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION AND PRODUCTION PRACTICE



According to Swain (1995), producing language may have three benefits:

1) it makes learners aware of their own limitations,
2) it fosters hypothesis formation and testing, and
3) it promotes reflection on one"s own and others" language use.

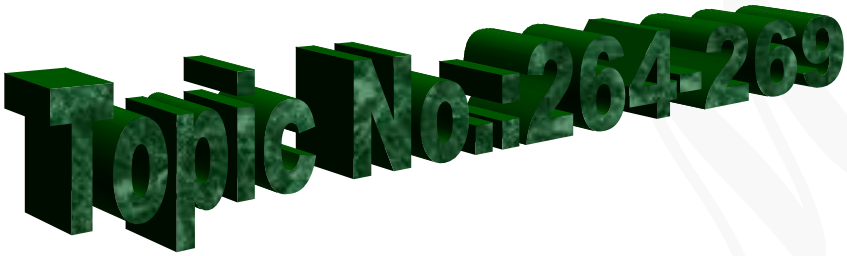
The above mentioned type of task is reformulated by Ellis (2003) as structure-based production task. It suggests three ways of designing a task that incorporates target language features:

1. Task-naturalness: Target structure can be expected to arise naturally and frequently in performing the task, even though it may not be necessary for completion.
2. Task-usefulness: Targeted feature is not essential for completing task but it is very useful.
3. Task-essentialness: Learners are required to use the essential feature to complete the task successfully.

Structure-based production tasks cater to implicit learning, in contrast to conscious-raising tasks, which cater to explicit learning. The negative feedback provides information to the learner as to what is not grammatically possible in the target language. It occurs on the spot in an unplanned way and plays no role in task designing. Its techniques include recasts (implicit negative feedback) and metalinguistic clues (explicit negative feedback). Recasts are viewed as a more attractive option due to its implicit nature.

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INPUT AND SLA PEDAGOGY



A comparative study by Izumi (2002) of the effects of input enhancement vs. output activities failed to show any advantage for the former instructional mode. The other type of input enhancement, which is delivered orally through exact repetition, may be more effective. In contrast to these input modes, research carried out in nineties on form-focused output has been of descriptive nature. It proved validity of dictogloss as a task that promotes attention to form as a result of the students‟ collaboration. Text reconstruction seemed to be a more effective procedure to get learner to focus more often on the targeted features.

Studies have shown that recasts contribute to the learners‟ inter-language development as measured by the performance tests. Recasts were considered more beneficial than models on form. Recasts can also be beneficial on forms of low perceptual salience and little communicative value. The superiority of recasts was confirmed by many researchers.

Important Abbreviations

- FonF~Focus on Form
- UG~ Universal Grammar
- IL~ Inter-language

- TL~ Target Language
- CDS~ Child Directed Speech
- CA~Contrastive Analysis
- SL~ Second Language
- SLL~ Second Language Learning
- SLA~Second Language Acquisition

Maha Malik