SHSA5101	PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING	L	T	P	CREDIT
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Course Objectives:

- To introduce the students to basic principles, theories and practices in ELT
- To enable them to identify changes that took place over a period of time in the area
- To Analyze the teaching approaches and methods
- To Recall basic approaches for teaching language with four skills

UNIT I: English in India **(9 Hrs)**

A Historical Review of ELT-, Michael West the Reading Method -The Role of English in India Today - the Future of English in India - Language Learning and Teaching - Major Theories of Language Acquisition – Behaviorism - Cognitive – Humanism.

UNIT II – Language Acquisition & Theories of Second Language Acquisition **(9 Hrs)**

Factors Affecting Second Language Learning - Discourse Theory - The Neurofunctional - The Universal Hypothesis – Model - The Acculturation - Accommodation -The Variable Competence -The Monitor

UNIT III: Approaches and Task Based Language Teaching Language **(9 Hrs)** Basic Concepts - Curriculum vs. Syllabus, Principles of curriculum planning, Syllabus types. ELT syllabuses – A Review , Guidelines for Syllabus evaluation , Approaches and Methods in ELT

UNI IV: Developing English Language Skills –LSRW **(9 Hrs)**

Developing Listening skills, Types of listening, Barriers to listening, Teaching methods - Casual and Focused listening, Problems of Teaching Oral Communication, Contexts of Speaking

UNIT V:, Research in ELT **(9 Hrs)**

Basic Concepts of language testing , Action Research, Case study, Survey, Presenting papers- Writing an Abstract , Setting Goals, Continuing Professional Development - Stages

Course Outcomes:

Upon successful completion of this course, students will be able to:

- Define with more focus on School of Behaviourism, Cognitive Humanistic approaches
- Explain by writing essays on major theories of language learning
- Identify the differences of several ELT methods and approaches.
- Analyze the teaching approaches and methods that were used in Indian contexts.
- Demonstrate knowledge of the needs and motivation of language learners.
- Understand the basic principles of curriculum and syllabus design with focus on ELT.

Prescribed Book:

- English Language Teaching: Principles & Practice by Saraswathi V, 1 January 2004

References:

1. Harmer .J. The Practice of English Language Teaching. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education. 2007
2. Richards & Rodgets, TS Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge, C U P. 2001
3. Prabhu, NS. Second Language Pedagogy. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1987
4. Ur.P . Vocabulary Activities. Cambridge, CUP. 2012
5. Rod Ellis- Second Language Acquisition
6. M.L. Tickoo- Teaching English as a Second Language
7. Arthur Hughes- Testing for Teachers
8. The Routledge Handbook for Language Testing

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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – I – Principles and Practices of ELT –SHSA5101

UNIT 1

- The Role of English in India Today
- Language Learning and Teaching
- Major Theories of Language Acquisition
- Behaviorism (Environmentalist Theory)
- Cognitive Theory , Humanism
- Factors that Contribute to the Success and Failure of Language Learning
- The Future of English in India

I. The Role of English in India Today

Just a few centuries ago, English was spoken by just five to seven million people on one, relatively small island, and the language consisted of dialects spoken by monolinguals. Today there are more non-native than native users of English, and English has become the linguistic key used for opening borders: it is a global medium with local identities and messages. English has become a world language, spoken by at least 750 million people. It is more widely spoken and written than any other language, even Latin, has ever been. It can, indeed, be said to be the first truly global language. English is nowadays the dominant or official language in over 60 countries. The estimated population using English in Asia adds up to 350 million. India is the third largest English-using population in the world, after the USA and the UK.

Spreading Circles of English

Visualize the spread of English around the world as three concentric circles representing different ways in which the language has been acquired and is currently used. The Inner Circle refers to the traditional historical and sociolinguistic bases of English in the areas where it is the primary language (native or first language; UK, Ireland, Canada, the USA, Australia, New Zealand). The Outer Circle comprises regions colonized by Britain; the spread of English in non-native settings, where the language has become part of the country's chief official language.

Institutions, and plays an important "second language" role in a multilingual setting (India, Singapore, Malawi). The Expanding Circle involves nations which recognize the importance of English as an international language, but they do not have the history of colonization, nor does English have any special status in their language policy. In these areas, English is primarily a foreign language.

L2: A Historical Overview of British Colonization of India

Activity: Lecturing and Class discussion

It was Vasco da Gama who, in 1498, came ashore at Calicut, and restored a link between Europe and the East. India was "a land of spices and of marvels" to European people. Portugal's control of the Indian Ocean lasted throughout the 16th century. The turning point came in the 1580s: in 1580 Portugal was annexed to Spain. Spain was not too interested in former interests of Portugal, and gradually the control of the East fell through their hands. The route to the East was opened to the Dutch and English. The Dutch were first ones to arrive in 1595. The Dutch objective was, plain and simply, the trade. They were not so interested in proselytizing people, or trying to expand their empire; they were monopolists rather than imperialists. The document establishing the British contact with the Indian subcontinent was the Charter of December 31, 1600, granted by Queen Elizabeth I. It granted a monopoly on trade with India and the East to some merchants of London - the East India

Company was formed. The company's objective was actually the spices of Indonesia, but because of Dutch opposition, they decided to change plans and go to India instead. The English won victory over some Portuguese territories in India as well, and the Mughal court, which resented the Portuguese, granted the English the right to trade and to establish factories in return. for becoming the virtual naval auxiliaries of the empire. The English trade became more profitable than that of the Dutch, and the region gradually fell under British contact and domination. In 1818, the British Empire became the British Empire of India, instead of the British Empire in India. The diplomatic settlement remained in force until 1947.

Effect Of Colonization Of India By British On The Indian Language System

The colonization of India by the British Empire had a tremendous effect on the Indian language system. How India lost over a thousand different languages and dialects can be explained by exploring India's occupation by other countries, especially the British. This point will be examined by providing the historical aspect of Indian languages, describing the start of British colonization of India, the language policies that the East India Company implemented during the British Raj, how these policies affected local education, as well as examining certain regions and their specific language issues during the occupation of India by the British. All of these points will tie together why and how the Indian language system is what it is today.

Linguistic History Of India

In order to understand how languages affect the people of India, it is essential to know a bit about its linguistic history, prior to the British Raj. The languages used in India prior to British rule were highly based on social classes Sanskrit was the language for the elite in ancient India and that Pali, Prakrits and Apabharamshas were the languages of the commoners. Persian was the replacement of Sanskrit during Islamic occupation of India. It was during this time that local dialects and languages started to form by mixing different words from languages such as Persian, Turkish and Arabic . Other languages like Urdu and Hindavi became quite popular prior to English occupation. When reading this, please keep in mind that Persian, prior to the British Raj, was the language of the elite, whereas the vernacular languages that were created, were the languages of the people.

British Education Policies In India

When the East India Company took over the leadership of India, they took the time to learn the classical and vernacular languages of the state in order to ultimately gain the “command of

language" which was necessary in order to consolidate the power in India. The East India Company instituted a policy, in the late 1700s, that marked English as the language used for all administration at the highest level, essentially replacing the rank of Persian , and Hindustani as the language of the trade, but at the provincial level, as well as the courts, the Persian language was to be used to facilitate towards the masses. However, the Court of Directors found that the use of only Persian and Hindustani was unfair towards the people of India that practiced other vernacular languages. This changed the company language policy in 1832 from using Persian within the courts, to using the native languages of the regions, to make it more accessible for the public. The language policies that were implemented within India influenced the local education system greatly. This can be proven by examining policies that were installed by Governor-General Warren Hastings in the late 1700s. He based hislanguage policies on a higher tolerance toward native customs than most language policies installed in prior years in any country; he began implementing a policy that became known as "Orientalism" .Orientalism comprises views on language policy and education. The first view of Orientalism is the most classic view, so to say. They believe in the use and the study of the "Asian Classics" only. The second view focuses on the fact that western knowledge should be spread using traditional Indian languages. There is a third position which states that vernacular languages should be used in spreading western knowledge in order to further education. The final position states that native languages are the best way to achieving moral discipline in education.

The British Raj held true to the Orientalist viewpoint of "...respecting and using local vernacular languages.". It was this Orientalist viewpoint that lead to the creation of new linguistic policies. In 1798, a law was created that only civil servants with knowledge of the native languages of India were to be allowed to work within the country. This is the reason why Fort William College was created. This college was to be used for three things: to train any Brit who wanted to begin a career as an Indian civil servant, about the culture, languages and history of the nation, to uphold the policies of the East India Company as well as the British Constitution and to shape their morals as to make them prepared to handle the developing terrain of India and to avoid uncanny situations however the Court of Directors did not see these goals as adequate and only approved the first one. This was the reason for which another college was created, in England; to train those who wanted to come to India to work in the civil services.

Conclusion

The fact that English is now one of the dominant languages in India can be seen as a positive and negative attribute to Indian culture. Yes, local vernacular languages are threatened by the use of English within the state; however, the English language is also a source for jobs for many local people. It can be considered a curse for some and a blessing for others. This shows that English occupation of India drastically changed Indian languages throughout time; it has been nothing but change. In return English has become a dominant language, especially within the Indian education system. client base uses English language as the prime source of communication. A good knowledge of English along with strong interpersonal skills can not only get us employment in the global business world but also brings a lot of opportunities for self-employment as well. Some of the common self-employment careers in English include English teachers/trainers , content writers, bloggers etc.

So while learning and enriching your local and vernacular languages is just as important, today it's a well accepted norm that English has become the language of professional

communication and being able to express yourself and your ideas in English is not just a skill, but also an art!

Source: https://www.urbanpro.com/a/importance-english-india#sthash.NGiN4AEg.dpufmore references

http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/36596/10/10_chapter1.pdf

Extra Reading:

A Brief History of English Language Teaching

Source:http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/23473/3/03.%20chapter%20-%20i.pdf

The history of English Language Teaching (ELT) starts from the 15th Century. The first phase is from the beginning of the 15c to the end of 18th c. and second phase is from the 19th c. The Third and modern stage is from the beginning of the 20th c to the present age. In Europe, during the end of 14th century French gave way to English language and schools in Europe started teaching English. Educational institutions in Europe taught English along with other modern and classical languages. During the 19th century, due to various factors, a rapid development of ELT was made both in Europe and British colonies. During this period the English speaking population increased to several billions from the previous few millions. English became the major language of England during the reign of King Henry IV. Later during the 15th century King Henry V proclaimed English as the official language and by the end of the 15th c law books were made available in English language. Even during this period grammar schools in England taught in Latin, though the people were communicating in English. English textbooks, including grammar text books were not available until 17th c. Following the Latin texts, Teachers used dialogue forms, related to everyday life, in question answer style, to teach English.

By the end of the 16th c pro-Reformationists from Spain and Italy and large number of French people arrived in England. This unexpected scenario encouraged educationalists in England to bring out ELT text books to teach English to non-English speaking Europeans. Among these immigrants, there were teachers who knew English and some of them started teaching English language to the immigrants from Europe. These teachers could be considered the 2 first non-native English language teachers. Knowledge of English helped many of the migrant community to improve their career prospects and business. Jacques Bellot prepared and published two English text books - 'The English School master' and 'Familiar Dialogues' from 1580 to 1590. These textbooks were in an everyday dialogue format. Publication of these text books encouraged many others to bring out ELT books and notable among them was 'The French School-master' (1972) brought out by Holly band, which was depended up on by teachers for several decades. After the return of Italians and other Europeans to their respective countries by the end of the 16th c, ELT in England temporarily came to a standstill. English language lovers could not stop teaching of Latin and Greek in schools of England. During this period John Webbe, who gave prominence for pictures for teaching, and J.A. Comenius, who gave less importance to grammar, published ELT textbooks. Interest in English philosophy and literature prompted people from many European countries like Germany, Denmark and Netherlands to start learning English. French revolution and Restoration also are some of the reasons for people to show interest in English

language. Also plays of Shakespeare and poems of romantic poets attracted many Europeans to English language learning. By 18th c the Russians started learning the English language. In Russia, Michael Permskii brought out a translation of 'Practical English Grammar' to Russian language prompting others to do the same. In 1797, John Miller published 'The Tutor or A New English and Bengalee Work' from Bengal, India. This book can be considered as the first non-European ELT book. In the European secondary schools, English was taught as an additional language and ELT was called TEFL (Teaching English as Foreign Language). English was a special subject and the teaching methods of Latin and Greek helped ELT teachers. With the launching of Grammar Translation method in Germany in 1780s, new ELT theories and approaches, like Berlitz schools, for meeting the 3 specific needs were implemented by different countries in their institutions. Too many methods made it necessary for reforms in the ELT sector. Scientific study of language learning, psychology of language learning, paved the way for theoretical foundation of the language learning Pedagogy. In British colonies English was taught and ELT was called TESL, i.e., Teaching English as Second Language. In these countries England wanted its colony citizens to learn English in addition to their mother tongue. This was for employing the native people who had good knowledge of English, to work in government departments. In colonies like Canada, USA, Australia, and New Zealand, English became the official language. But in countries like India, Burma, Srilanka etc., they ruled over the natives and here the native people were given education which included English language teaching. In addition to the government initiative, Christian missionaries also engaged in imparting education to the natives. European knowledge, culture, literature etc., were imparted to the colony citizens in addition to ELT. The next stage of ELT, i.e., from the beginning of 20th c to the present can be divided into three phases. First phase is from 1900 to 1946 (after the Second World War), from 1946 to 1970 and the third phase from 1970 to the present. During the second phase of the growth of English language, the term ELT was generally accepted. Incorporation of applied linguistics added resources and some scientific base to ELT. New learning theories, approaches and methods of teaching made it necessary for designing the target language learning techniques. In the beginning of the second phase, ELT institutes along with BBC, British Council and publishers of ELT books were located only in London city. This scenario changed with the arrival of a large number of immigrants from erstwhile British colonies to United Kingdom during 1960 because of its economic prosperity. It was a great task to teach the children of these immigrants. During this period ELT was called 'English for Immigrants'. By 1970 it was renamed as (TESL)

English Language Teaching In India:

The East India Company, which ruled parts of India before India became a part of the British Empire, set aside certain amount for the education sector. Until the end of the 19th c, English education was given to the children of East India Company employees and Anglo-Indians. Charles Grant, who was considered the father of modern education in India, suggested that European literature and scientific knowledge could be taught to Indian students through English medium. More Indian students started attending English medium schools and later many of them became great supporters of English language and education. During the beginning of the 19th century, Sir Richard Wellesley founded the 'Fort William College' at Calcutta. Later Thomas Babington Macaulay, who later became the president of the Committee of Public Instruction, was given the responsibility of implementing and spreading

the English education system including English language education in India. During the beginning of the 19th c. the major discussion was regarding the language to be used for higher education. English had to compete with the classical languages, Sanskrit and Arabic. Thomas Babington Macaulay, in this famous 'recommendations' or 'Minutes of Education' (1835), suggested that if more budget allocation was given to English language teaching, Indian citizens could be taught about the modern scientific knowledge, western culture and philosophy. He said: 'we must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions who we govern; a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect.'(Minute on Indian Education). "The vernacular languages, that is, the languages spoken by the people, are dismissed from the discussion as 'rude' and completely unsuitable for the purpose… The Minute is categorical that the amount of one lakh rupees allocated in the Charter Act for education should be used for English education." (Sailaja, Pingali, 2011: 64). Macaulay wanted certain Indians to learn English language and western culture and transfer them to other Indians and enrich Indian languages and culture. The Governor-General of the colony, William Bentick accepted this proposal and this acceptance changed Indian education sector including English language teaching. Bentick's order was as follows: 'His Lordship in council is of the opinion that the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India; and all the funds appropriated for the purposes of education would be best employed on English education alone.' Sailaja Name of the book (2011: 65) writes, "The Educational Despatch of 1854, was considered to be the Magna Carta of Indian education." It was prepared by a committee presided over by Charles Wood. This was the prominent education policy of East India Company which was ruling India then. The recommendations of the committee considered a number of aspects includingall levels of education, mass education and the use of Indian languages. The Educational Despatch insisted that English should be the language of education and not any other Indian languages like Sanskrit or Arabic. On the other hand it recommended encouraging the regional languages instead of classical languages like Sanskrit. The Missionaries founded schools and colleges and the curriculum included resources from Bible and works like Pilgrim's Progress, Paradise Lost, etc. India had a traditional approach of teaching languages like Sanskrit and Persian using 'kavya' (literature) and 'vyakarana' (grammar). This had many similarities with the grammar-translation method advocated by Franz Ahn and H.G. Ollendorff. Learners who wanted knowledge of another language read the texts with the help of dictionaries. English classics used as the text books for teaching English language in India, were good examples of writing and use of classical grammar. There was no great change in the English language education system in India after independence, in 1947. Post independent India followed the legacy of the pre independent English education system. English has been the medium of instruction in colleges, universities and many schools. The growing influence of English language and the difficulty in finding an alternate language acceptable to all Indians were the main reasons for the arrival of English Language.

The University Education Commission (UGC), under the chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, was of the opinion that learning English would help Indians to update themselves with the developments happening in other parts of the world. English will promote national unity and nationalism. … The English language has been one of the potent factors in the development of unity in the country. In fact, the concept of nationality and the sentiment of nationalism are largely the gift 8 of the English language and literature to Indian… Besides, English is an international language and if catastrophic events do not alter the present posture of world forces it

will soon be the world language.(University Grants Commission, 1951: 316). Development of science and technology could be known to India only through the knowledge of English. The report of the commission continues as follows, "…English is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world, and we will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of a dark curtain of ignorance. (1951: 325) The Secondary Education Commission in 1952 made certain recommendations regarding the method of teaching, teaching materials and evaluation system for all. The commission said that 'the emphasis on teaching should shift from verbalism and memorization to learning through purposeful, concrete and realistic situations and for this purpose the principles of 'activity based' and 'project method' should be assimilated in school practice.' (Aggarwal 1884: 115-6) As for textbooks also, the commission suggested that instead of single textbook a reasonable number of books should be used. For languages commission recommended 'definite textbooks for each class to ensure proper gradation'. 'Three language formula' adopted by Chief Ministers of India insisted that the third compulsory language should be English or any other European language'. But nowhere in India, had the schools replaced English with any other European language. This acceptance of three language formula cemented the place of English language in the Indian school and university curriculum. The next education commission, Kothari Commission in 1966 also agreed to the 'three language formula.'

The Commission suggested that English should continue as a library language and medium of instruction in universities and a good level of English language proficiency is required for awarding degrees. It was the Kothari Commission which recommended special units for teaching English language skills instead of focusing more on literature. This shift is in line with the shift from grammar – translation method to Direct Method. A number of English Language Teaching Institutes (ELTIs) and Regional Institute of English (RIEs) were established in different locations of India for giving guidance, models and training to English language teachers. (Aggarwal, 1884) During 1950s and 60s authorities sought the help of professionals from London, including British Council, for preparing structural syllabus. Madras English Language

Teaching (MELT) brought experts from London School. Also and English Language Teaching Institute (ELTI) was established in Allahabad in 1954 with the assistance of British Council. All India Seminar on the Teaching of English in Nagpur in (1957) suggested a revision of syllabus at schools on a national level and accepted structural approach as the basis for the new syllabus. Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL) was established in Hyderabad in 1958. Study groups appointed by Ministry of Education submitted reports in 1967 and 1971 on the 'Study of English in India'. A large number of English medium schools were started in the private sector. Promoting Hindi and local languages along with English, was the policy of central and state governments and thus in India, people as a whole opted for English. The Acharya Rammurti commission in 1986 observed regarding teaching languages, that more importance should be given to the hours of study and the level of attainment of the language than the years of study in a school or college. It also suggested that various government educational institutes should join together to design methods for making uniformity in the acquisition of language competency at school level. Curriculum Development Centre (CDC), set up by the University Grants Commission (UGC) in 1989 directed that the proposed curricula should shift its emphasis from teaching to learning and it should be designed as to make more meaningful to the needs and aspirations of the learners. CDC suggested post 10 graduate courses in British Literature, American Literature, Comparative Literature, Creative Writing in English, Modern English language,

English Language Teaching, etc. Several Indian universities have started many of these courses.

There is great demand for English language in India now. The younger generation in India are convinced that English language will give them more opportunities for economic and career advancement. English has changed from the language of the west to language of the modern era. It is taught or is the medium of instruction in all professional arts & science colleges and Universities. English language is also used to project India's achievements in language, literature, science, philosophy, etc. Many works of Indian writers are being translated into English every year. English language is taught at the first and second year of the course, irrespective of the course students have taken, in both arts and science colleges and professional colleges in Kerala, as done in other states of India. Makhan L. Tickoo writes about the present scenario, Tertiary-level ELT is being forced to respond to the fast globalizing market place. In doing so, ... it can ill-afford to ignore its other equally pressing obligations. These include: a) The growing need to respond to students from weaker sections and first generation learners whose numbers are fortunately on the increase; b) The real aim of higher education and especially education through English being not just the development of skills for the fast expanding job markets but also contributing to a knowledge society, adequate attention also needs to be paid to the larger aims. English today is India's most important language of knowledge – one that empowers graduates to be not just consumers of knowledge which techniques alone and by themselves make possible but, more importantly, participants in the production of knowledge. India of tomorrow cannot afford to remain a recipient of products produced elsewhere. It has to become the equal of the best with a workforce comparable to the very best in the world. To do this tertiary-level ELT must not allow technique to displace content but bring in technique alongside content i.e. the language in its fullness with the riches of literature of all types. (Makhan L. Tickoo, 2010: 75) He says that education and English language have to be available as a tool for every fresh graduate student, without sidelining their vernacular. Students should be allowed to acquire English language on a basis of various regional cultures and languages. Quoting an international consultancy, McKinsey, Graddol (2006) says that even though India produces 25 lakh university graduates every year, a majority of them are unemployable as per western standards. Indian graduates are weak in spoken English skills.

He blames mediocre institutions, uneven curricula and faculty of poor quality for this situation. Shobhaneswari and Dass in their study suggest the following measures to limit the drawbacks of the ELT in colleges and universities in India. (i)being aware of individual areas of lacunae, (ii) using English extensively for transactional communication, (iii) interacting fluently with people who belong to predominantly 'English' culture, (iv) socializing with counterparts / clients outside business discussions, (v) comprehending various regional accents and flavours of expression." (Shobhaneswari and Dass, 2007:51) It is found that there is a problem with teaching learning process as far as the imparting of English language is concerned. Even after 12 plus 3 years of 12 learning English in school and college, they are not able to communicate in English. 1.4 Necessity for a rural ELT People of educationally and economically backward regions of India believe that their backwardness is because of their lack of English language knowledge. Some of them feel that there is a planned movement to deny English language to particular sections of the society. Amol Pdwad (2010: writes, "Our country is now facing a new kind of division – between the English-haves and

English-have-nots." In the present age, especially in third-world countries, accessibility to English language can endow with development and all pervading growth to underprivileged people. Though rural students are more than urban learners, curricula, syllabuses and textbooks are prepared discarding the disparity between rural and urban students. Many educationists oppose this and suggest that there should be different educational practices for both rural and urban educational system. Amod Pdwad writes, We (teachers) often find that the needs and interests of learners, the objectives of teaching and learning English, the content of the course materials, and even recommended methods and evaluation patterns tend to be decided with urban learners in mind. Many believe that this urban focus of our educational design is an important reason why rural learners do not benefit from education and remain poor achievers. (Amod Pdwad, 2010: 21) Majority of rural students are first or second generation learners. This is a disadvantage for them because they will not get educational guidance from parents or relatives as their urban counterparts get. Lack of support includes finance, resources and proper environment. In addition the educational and employment needs of the rural students are different from urban students. 13 Learning methodologies should be changed considering these factors and considering the rural background of the students.

English In India

It's impossible to imagine the world without the two 'e's: Electronic Communication and English. English is all over the Internet, books and all media. English language is followed by almost all the developed and developing countries today. English in India

A lot of Indian personalities have won many global awards for creative literatures in English. In 1997, an Indian author, Arundhati Roy, won the acclaimed Booker Prize for fiction, for her book "The God of Small Things". Millions of copies of her book were sold all over the world.

Over the last 30 years, English language has emerged out to be one of our key strengths inprocuring international acclaim for a number of films made by Indians in English language. In 1998 a famous Indian film director, Shekhar Kapoor's film "Elizabeth" has received 7nominations for Oscar Awards. In 2007, the sequel to the same movie again received 2 Oscar nominations. Thus we can't deny the fact that English language has brought India to an international level.

The Need

English is everywhere. Globalization and the Internet have made English an important aspect of our lives. The finest and the most advanced innovations in science and technology are made in the United States of America, where English language is the primary means of scientific communication.

If we live in India and have the knowledge of English, we can learn from the experiences and mistakes of the people living in other developed countries. We can reject the unacceptable and accept the justifiable. Using English, we can also promote our theories amongst the global audience.

English has thus become an effective means sharing experiences and strengthening our cultural identity all across the globe.

Importance in India

Here's how English is important in India:

Jobs

Knowledge of English opens up a large number of employment opportunities in almost every business domain. Almost every employer expects his employees to have basic to excellent English speaking skills.

Travel

If you were supposed to travel to another country, either for business or as a tourist, imagine how you would communicate with their natives. English, being a global language and spoken by more than 950 million people all across the world, certainly can make your life easier when you travel. Knowledge of English can let you communicate with people anywhere you travel.

Education

English is the major medium of education in India. English medium schools are Those students who are interested in higher studies from universities and colleges abroad, they are supposed to clear exams like IELTS and TOEFL. These test your proficiency of English in usual day to day verbal and written communication.

Language of Science and Technology

English is the language of Science and Technology. Scientific innovations or discoveries in other developed countries cannot reach India without English

All the latest technologies are now at our fingertips but to be able to access to this technology we need to develop English language skills. The syntax of most of the existing computer programming languages is also made up of English keywords.

Internet

Though there are several websites in various other languages, English will always be the primary language for internet access. Most of the information over the internet is in English. So to gaining access to this vast information, knowing English becomes a prerequisite.

Official Language of India

Although English is just one of the official languages of India, but it would perhaps be the only language that can be understood across the country. It is the primary language used in international affairs. It is used in building international relations through the involvement of professional diplomats with respect to issues relate peacemaking, global trade, economy and culture.

Globalization

Apart from general communication, knowledge of the English is an added advantage to help in communicating at the global level. Many global companies have outsources their operations to India which led to the IT and ITeS boom a few years ago. Many Indian companies also have their offices in English speaking countries. Being able to communicate

in English helps interact with your global colleagues as well as advance your career prospects.

Every business with an international

- See more at: https://www.urbanpro.com/a/importance-english-india#sthash.NGiN4AEg.dpuf

II. Language Learning and Acquisition

It is believed that language is leant through exposure, it is picked automatically without realizing it . But it is believed that fro an adult to learnt a language, exposure is not enough as they need to 'focus on form'. It is also believed that they need to use the language to interactand communicate.

Acquiring a Language: Research has identified three main ways in which we learn a foreign language. Experts talk of acquiring a language i.e. ' picking a language'. A person needs have a lot of exposure to the language to hear

What Is Language Acquisition?

Psychologists have different theories on language acquisition, or the process by which we learn to speak, write, or even use sign language in meaningful ways to communicate. refer to

Saraswathi (2004) English Language Teaching – Principles and Practice Orient Longman

Acquisition	Learning
informal	formal
subconscious	conscious
implicit	explicit
effortless	requires effort
'picked up'	'learnt'

What are the implications of language learning theories?

- create exposure to language so learners have more opportunities to learn a language
- create informal atmosphere
- encourage learners to focus on meaning than form
- adopt tolerant attitude towards errors
- provide free from tension atmosphere
- respect their freedom to be silent
- build up pressure for genuine real –life communication

Learning theories are conceptual frameworks describing how information is absorbed, processed, and retained during learning. Cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences, as well as prior experience, all play a part in how understanding, or a world view, is acquired or changed and knowledge and skills retained. Behaviorists look at learning as an aspect of

conditioning and will advocate a system of rewards and targets in education. Educators who embrace cognitive theory believe that the definition of learning as a change in behavior is too narrow and prefer to study the learner rather than their environment and in particular the complexities of human memory. Those who advocate constructivism believe that a learner's ability to learn relies to a large extent on what he already knows and understands, and the acquisition of knowledge should be an individually tailored process of construction. Transformative learning theory focuses upon the often-necessary change that is required in a learner's preconceptions and world view.

The term "behaviorism" was coined by John Watson (1878–1959). Watson believed the behaviorist view is a purely objective experimental branch of natural science with a goal to predict and control behavior.

In an article in the Psychological Review, he stated that "its theoretical goal is the prediction and control of behavior. Introspection forms no essential part of its methods, nor is the scientific value of its data dependent upon the readiness with which they lend themselves to interpretation in terms of consciousness." Behaviorism has since become one of three domains of behavior analysis, the other two being the Experimental Analysis of Behavior, and Applied Behavior Analysis.

B.F. Skinner introduced another type of behaviourism called radical behaviourism, or the Conceptual Analysis of Behavior, which is based on the theory of also treating private events; for example, thinking and feeling. Radical behaviourism forms the conceptual piece of behavior analysis. In behavior analysis, learning is the acquisition of a new behavior through conditioning and social learning.

Learning and conditioning

There are three types of conditioning and learning:

Classical conditioning, **where** the behavior becomes a reflex response to an antecedent stimulus.

Operant conditioning, where an antecedent stimuli is followed by a consequence of the behavior through a reward (reinforcement) or a punishment.

Social learning theory, where an observation of behavior is followed by modeling.

Classical conditioning was discovered by Ivan Pavlov. He observed that if dogs come to associate the delivery of food with a white lab coat or with the ringing of a bell, they will produce saliva, even when there is no sight or smell of food. Classical conditioning regards this form of learning to be the same whether in dogs or in humans.[8] Operant conditioning reinforces this behavior with a reward or a punishment. A reward increases the likelihood of the behavior recurring, a punishment decreases its likelihood.[9] Social learning theory observes behavior and is followed with modelling.

These three learning theories form the basis of applied behavior analysis, the application of behavior analysis, which uses analyzed antecedents, functional analysis, replacement behavior strategies, and often data collection and reinforcement to change behavior. The old practice was called behavior modification, which only used assumed antecedents and consequences to change behavior without acknowledging the conceptual analysis; analyzing

the function of behavior and teaching new behaviors that would serve the same function was never relevant in behavior modification.

Behaviorists view the learning process as a change in behavior, and will arrange the environment to elicit desired responses through such devices as behavioural objectives, Competency-based learning, and skill development and training. Educational approaches such as Early Intensive Behavioral Intervention, curriculum-based measurement, and direct instruction have emerged from this model.

Cognitive theory:

The innateness hypothesis is a linguistic theory of language acquisition which holds that at least some knowledge about language exists in humans at birth. This hypothesis supports linguistic nativism and was first proposed by Noam Chomsky. Facts about the complexity of human language systems, the universality of language acquisition, the facility that children demonstrate in acquiring these systems, and the comparative performance of adults in attempting the same task are all commonly invoked in support. However, the validity of the innateness hypothesis is still debated. Empiricists advocate that language is learned. Some have criticized Chomsky's work, pinpointing problems with his theories while others have proposed new theories to account for language acquisition (with specific differences in terms of language acquisition per se compared to second language acquisition

Linguistic nativism

Linguistic nativism is the theory that humans are born with some knowledge of language.

One acquires a language not entirely through learning.

Human language is complicated and is said to form one of the most complex areas of human cognition. However, despite its complexity, children are able to accurately acquire a language within a short period of time. Moreover, research has shown that language acquisition among children (including the blind and the deaf) occurs in ordered developmental stages. This highlights the possibility of humans having an innate language acquisition ability. According to Noam Chomsky, "The speed and precision of vocabulary acquisition leaves no real alternative to the conclusion that the child somehow has the concepts available before experience with language and is basically learning labels for concepts that are already a part of his or her conceptual apparatus." Chomsky's view that the human faculty of language is innate is also affirmed by Steven Pinker. Moreover, in his work, The Language Instinct, Pinker argued that language in humans is a biological adaptation - language is hard-wired into our minds by evolution. Furthermore, in contrast to children's ease in language acquisition, having passed the critical age for language acquisition the complexity of a language often makes it challenging for adult learners to pick up a second language. More often than not, unlike children, adults are unable to acquire native-like proficiency. Hence, with this idea in mind, nativists advocate that the fundamentals of language and grammar are innate rather than acquired through learning. The innateness hypothesis supports language nativism and several reasons and concepts have been proposed to support and explain this hypothesis. In his work, Chomsky introduced the idea of a language acquisition device (LAD) to account for the competence of humans in acquiring a language. The Universal Grammar (UG) that is also often credited to Chomsky was later introduced.

Language acquisition device

According to Chomsky, humans are born with a set of language learning tools referred to as the LAD. The LAD is an abstract part of the human mind which houses the ability for humans to acquire and produce language. Chomsky expressed that children are able to derive rules of a language through hypothesis testing because they are equipped with a LAD. The LAD then transforms these rules into basic grammar. Hence, according to Chomsky, the LAD explains why children seem to have the innate ability to acquire a language and accounts for why no explicit teaching is required for a child to acquire a language.

Universal Grammar

In his argument for the existence of a LAD, Chomsky proposed that for a child to acquire a language, sufficient innate language-specific knowledge is needed. These constraints were later termed as Universal Grammar (UG). In this theory, it is suggested that all humans have a set of limited rules for grammar that are universal to all natural human languages. These rules are genetically wired into our brains and they can be altered in correspondence to the language children are exposed to. In other words, under this theory, language acquisition is seen as a process of filtering through the set of possible grammatical structures in natural languages pre-programmed in one's mind and this is guided by the language input in one's environment. Chomsky later introduced generative grammar. He argued that "properties of a generative grammar arise from an "innate" universal grammar". This theory of generative grammar describes a set of rules that are used to order words correctly in order to form grammatically-sound sentences. It also attempts to describe a speaker's innate grammatical knowledge.

Poverty of stimulus

One of the most significant arguments generative grammarians had for language nativism is the poverty of the stimulus argument. Since 1980, the poverty of stimulus became increasingly integrated into the theory of generative grammar. In this argument, Noam Chomsky put forth that the amount of input a child receives during language acquisition is insufficient to account for the linguistic output. To be exact, he said that, "the native speaker has acquired a grammar on the basis of very restricted and degenerate evidence". Similaly, in his paper, Pinker concludes that humans have a system that is more sophisticated than what they are being exposed to.

In their article, Pullum and Scholz summarised the properties of a child's environment. They identified properties of positivity, degeneracy, incompleteness and idiosyncrasy. Under positivity, they assert that children are only exposed to positive linguistic data. Moreover, there is lack in negative data that aids a child in identifying ungrammatical sentences that are unacceptable in the language. It is also claimed that children are unable to acquire a language with positive evidence alone. In addition, under degeneracy, it is stated that children are often exposed to linguistic data that are erroneous. This is supported by Zohari that states that in adult speech, erroneous utterances that include speech slips, ungrammatical sentences, incomplete sentences etc. are often observed. Furthermore, the linguistic data each child is exposed to is different (i.e. idiosyncrasy) and there are many utterances that a child might not have heard (i.e. incompleteness). However, despite the properties mentioned above, children would eventually be able to deliver a linguistic output that is similar to the target language

within a relatively short amount of time. In contrast, when placed in certain environments, other organisms are unable to attain the language mastery humans have reached. From the nativists' point of view, all of these highlight that babies are hard-wired with a UG and thus support the innateness hypothesis.

However, it is important to note that the argument that the poverty of stimulus supports the innateness hypothesis remains very controversial. For example, in one of the latest work against the poverty of stimulus argument, Fiona Cowie wrote in her paper that the Poverty of Stimulus argument fails "on both empirical and conceptual grounds to support nativism".

Critical period hypothesis

The critical period hypothesis by Linguist Eric Lenneberg states that full native competence in acquiring a language can only be achieved during an optimal period. This hypothesis supports the innateness hypothesis about the biological innateness of linguistic competence. Lenneberg expressed that age plays a salient role in the ability to acquire language. According to him, a child before the age of two will not sufficiently acquire language, while development of full native competence in a language must occur before the onset of puberty. This suggests that language is innate that occurs through development instead of feedback from the environment. As a result, should a child not hear any language during this period, the child would not be able to learn nor be able to speak. This hypothesis is also said to explain why adults do not acquire languages as well as children.

Evidence for the critical period hypothesis can be seen in the case of Genie. When discovered, she was without language. Genie's subsequent language acquisition process was studied, whereby her linguistic performance, cognitive and emotional development was deemed abnormal. Genie was said to have right-hemisphere language, resembling other cases where language was acquired outside of the "critical period". This would lend support to Lenneberg's hypothesis. Moreover, some saw the case of Genie as a support to the innateness hypothesis. When the LAD is not triggered during the critical period, the natural process of language acquisition cannot be reached. However, Genie's case is complex and controversial. It has been argued that it does not support linguistic innateness. Some have asserted that there is at least a possible degree of first language acquisition beyond the critical period. Moreover, the emotional and cognitive deprivation may have also played a part in Genie's linguistic and cognitive difficulties.

Nonetheless, the critical period hypothesis in relation to language acquisition is also widely debated. Other research has also indicated that any age effects depend largely on the opportunities for learning, learning situations and how significant the initial exposure is.

ped with the capacity for normalisation which plays a fundamental role in acquiring the phonology of a language. Therefore, he contends that a child is born with the ability to learn and this is through testing and guessing instead of the innate ability that nativists support.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Innateness_hypothesis

Extra reading:

Creative Construction Theory or the Naturalistic Approach :

This approach is based on the assumption that language acquisition is innately determined and that we are born with a certain system of language that we can call on later. Numerous linguists and methodologists support this innateness hypotheses. Chomsky, who is the leading proponent, claims that each human being possesses a set of innate properties of language which is responsible for the child's mastery of a native language in such a short time (cf. Brown 2002: 24). According to Chomsky, this mechanism, which he calls the 'language acquisition device' (LAD), 'governs all human languages, and determines what possible form human language may take' (Dulay, Burt, Krashen 1982: 6ff). Some linguists, in particular Stephen Krashen, distinguish between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is supposed to be a subconscious process which leads to fluency. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process which shows itself in terms of learning rules and structures. Furthermore, Krashen claims that there are three internal processors that operate when students learn or acquire a second language: the subconscious 'filter' and the 'organizer' as well as the conscious 'monitor' (cf. Dulay, Burt, Krashen 1982: 11-45). The 'organizer' determines the organisation of the learner's language system, the usage of incorrect grammatical constructions as provisional precursors of grammatical structures, the systematical occurrence of errors in the learner's utterances as well as a common order in which structures are learnt. The 'filter' is responsible for the extent to which the learner's acquisition is influenced by social circumstances such as motivation and affective factors such as anger or anxiety. The 'monitor' is responsible for conscious learning. The learners correct mistakes in their speech according to their age and self-consciousness (cf. Dulay, Burt, Krashen 1982: 45). more at the

Source Link: http://archive.ecml.at/documents/relresearch/projectseminarDN.pdf

III. Theories of Language Acquisition

Behaviorists, like B.F. Skinner (who lived from 1904-1990), argued that language acquisition and development are learned behaviors. Behaviorists believe we learn by associating events, known as classical conditioning. We also learn through rewards and punishments, a process known as operant conditioning. Another aspect of behaviorism is that we learn by observation and imitation.

How do these theories of learning apply to language acquisition? Over repeated exposures, infants may learn to associate an object with a sound or word for that object. When an infant babbles 'dada,' the infant is rewarded by smiling and happy parents who cheer and reward their child's efforts at communicating. And infants may learn language by observing caregivers and imitating their sounds.

Linguist and philosopher Noam Chomsky (born in 1928) has added to how behaviorists like Skinner think about language development. Chomsky believes that infants and children learn language at a speed that cannot simply be explained by the laws of behaviorism. According to Chomsky, children learning language put words together in new ways, creating meaningful sentences they have never heard before. Chomsky argues that children learn rules of language and apply them in their own way, often inaccurately at first. Because children would not have heard adults using rules of language so inaccurately, Chomsky came up with another theory on language development.

Chomsky's linguistic theory states that we are born with an innate ability to learn language, and with little guidance, children will naturally learn language. Chomsky argues we must be

born with a language acquisition device, an area in our brains that makes learning language a natural event. As evidence, he points to the idea that children all over the world learn language in similar ways, regardless of their culture or the language they learn to speak. Recent research on language seeks to understand whether or not humans have a critical period for acquiring language. As we age, language acquisition becomes more difficult, especially for adults learning a new language. Children learning new languages outperform adults learning new languages in terms of learning vocabulary, applying rules of grammar, and speaking with the correct accent. The critical period hypothesis states that we have a time frame for learning new language, and once that time is over, language acquisition becomes much more difficult.

Source Link http://study.com/academy/lesson/what-is-language-acquisition-theories-stages-quiz.html

What are the differences between L1 and L2 learning?

L1 learning		L2 learning
Age	Baby to young age (L1 learning lasts into adolescence some kinds of language and language skills, e.g., academic writing)	Usually at primary school and / or secondary school. It can also start or continue in adulthood.
Way of learning	By exposure and picking up language By wanting and needing to communicate, i.e with strong motivation Through interaction with family and friends By talking about things present in the child's surroundings By listening to and taking in language for many months before using it(silent period) By playing and experimenting with new language	Sometimes through exposure but often by being taught specific language With strong or little or no motivation Through interaction with a teacher and sometimes with classmates Often by needing to produce language soon after it has been taught. Often by using lanaguge in controlled practice activities.
Context	The child hears the language around him/ her all the time Family and friends talk to interact with a child a lot The child has a lot of opportunities to experiment with lanaguge. Caretakers often praise (tell that's/he has done well) and encourage the child use of lanaguge. Care takers simplify their speech	The learner is not exposed to the L2 very much- often no more than about three hours a week. Teachers usually simplify their lanaguge. Teachers vary in the amount they praise of encourage children. The learner does not receive individual attention from the teacher. Teachers generally correct learners a lot.

IV. BEHAVIORISM THEORY OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

http://www2.vobs.at/ludescher/ludescher/lacquisition/behaviourist/seite6.htm

Definition

The learning theory dominant in the first half of the 20th Century was behaviourism. Throughout the 1950s and 60s behaviourism remained influential, although since that time new theories have begun to make substantial inroads in general acceptance. Behaviourism is an approach to psychology and learning that emphasizes observable measurable behaviour. The behaviourist theory of animal and human learning focuses only on objectively observable behaviours and discounts mental activities. Behaviour theorists define learning as a more or less permanent change in behaviour. In behaviourism, the learner is viewed as passively adapting to their environment. Two of the most famous experiments upon which proof of learning is based are the "Dog Salivation Experiment" by Ivan Petrovich Pavlov and the " Skinner Box" experiment with pigeons by B.F. Skinner.

"Give me a dozen healthy infants, well informed, and my own specified world to bring them up in and I'll guarantee to take anyone at random and train him to become any type of specialist I might select--doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant-chief; and yes, even beggar-man and thief, regardless of his talents, penchants, tendencies, abilities, vocations, and race of his ancestors." John Watson

Behaviourism is derived from the belief that free will is an illusion. According to a pure behaviourist, human beings are shaped entirely by their external environment. Alter a person's environment, and you will alter his or her thoughts, feelings, and behaviour. Provide positive reinforcement whenever students perform a desired behaviour, and soon they will learn to perform the behaviour on their own.

The behaviourists tried to explain learning without referring to mental processes. The focus was on observable behaviour and how an organism adapts to the environment. The famous "Dog-Salivation-Experiment" by Ivan Petrovich Pavlov where he makes dogs salivate at the sound of a bell and later experiments by Burhus Frederic Skinner (Refere nce date; 25th of April 1998) with pigeons in the so called "Skinner Box" are very famous examples of behaviouristic learning experiments. Despite these very "low-level" learning experiments focusing largely on reflexes, the behaviouristic theories have been generalized to many higher level functions as well.

Pavlo's experiment

Classical conditioning:

is the process of reflex learning — investigated by Pavlov —through which an unconditioned stimulus (e.g. food) which produces an unconditioned response (salivation) is presented together with a conditioned stimulus (a bell), such that the salivation is eventually produced on the presentation of the conditioned stimulus alone, thus becoming a conditioned response.

Classic conditioning occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus. The most popular example is Pavlov's observation that dogs salivate when they eat or even see food.

Essentially, animals and people are biologically "wired" so that a certain stimulus will produce a specific response.

Components Of Classical Conditioning

The easiest place to start is with a little example. Consider a hungry dog who sees a bowl of food. Something like this might happen:

Food ---> Salivation

The dog is hungry, the dog sees the food, the dog salivates. This is a natural sequence of events, an unconscious, uncontrolled, and unlearned relationship. See the food, then salivate. Now, because we are humans who have an insatiable curiosity, we experiment. When we present the food to the hungry dog (and before the dog salivates), we ring a bell. Thus, Bell with

Food ---> Salivation

We repeat this action (food and bell given simultaneously) at several meals. Every time the dog sees the food, the dog also hears the bell. Ding-dong, Alpo.

Now, because we are humans who like to play tricks on our pets, we do another experiment. We ring the bell (Ding-dong), but we don't show any food. What does the dog do? Right,

Bell ---> Salivate

The bell elicits the same response the sight of the food gets. Over repeated trials, the dog has learned to associate the bell with the food and now the bell has the power to produce the same response as the food. (And, of course, after you've tricked your dog into drooling and acting even more stupidly than usual, you must give it a special treat.)

This is the essence of Classical Conditioning. It really is that simple. You start with two things that are already connected with each other (food and salivation). Then you add a third thing (bell) for several trials. Eventually, this third thing may become so strongly associated that it has the power to produce the old behaviour.

Now, where do we get the term, "Conditioning" from all this? Let me draw up the diagrams with the official terminology.

Food ----------> Salivation

Unconditioned Stimulus ---> Unconditioned Response

"Unconditioned" simply means that the stimulus and the response are naturally connected. They just came that way, hard wired together like a horse and carriage and love and marriage as the song goes. "Unconditioned" means that this connection was already present before we got there and started messing around with the dog or the child or the spouse.

"Stimulus" simply means the thing that starts it while "response" means the thing that ends it. A stimulus elicits and a response is elicited.)

Conditioning Stimulus

Bell with Food ----------> Salivation

Unconditioned Stimulus------> Unconditioned Response

We already know that "Unconditioned" means unlearned, untaught, pre-existing, already-present-before-we-got-there. "Conditioning" just means the opposite. It means that we are trying to associate, connect, bond, link something new with the old relationship. And we want this new thing to elicit (rather than be elicited) so it will be a stimulus and not a response. Finally, after many trials we hope for,

Bell ----------> Salivation

Conditioned Stimulus ---> Conditioned Response

Let's review these concepts.

1. **Unconditioned Stimulus: a thing that can already elicit a response.**
2. **Unconditioned Response: a thing that is already elicited by a stimulus.**
3. **Unconditioned Relationship: an existing stimulus-response connection.**
4. **Conditioning Stimulus: a new stimulus we deliver the same time we give the old stimulus.**
5. **Conditioned Relationship: the new stimulus-response relationship we created by associating a new stimulus with an old response**.

There are two key parts. First, we start with an existing relationship, Unconditioned Stimulus ---> Unconditioned Response. Second, we pair a new thing (Conditioning Stimulus) with the existing relationship, until the new thing has the power to elicit the old response.

A LITTLE HISTORY AND A COMPARISON

The example we used here is from the first studies on classical conditioning as described by Ivan Pavlov, the famous Russian physiologist. Pavlov discovered these important relationships around the turn of the century in his work with dogs. He created the first learning theory which precedes the learning theory most teachers know quite well, reinforcement theory.

The point is this: Classical conditioning says nothing about rewards and punishments which are key terms in reinforcement theory. Consider our basic example, Conditioning Stimulus

BELL

with

Food ----------> Salivation

Unconditioned Stimulus ---> Unconditioned Response

There is nothing in here about rewards or punishments, no terminology like that, not even an implication like that. Classical conditioning is built on creating relationships by association over trials. Some people confuse Classical Conditioning with Reinforcement Theory. To keep them separated just look for the presence of rewards and punishments.

Watson drew heavily on the work of Pavlov, whose investigation of the conditioned reflex had shown that you could condition dogs to salivate not just at the sight of food, but also at the sound of a bell that preceded food. Watson argued that such conditioning is the basis of human behaviour - if you stand up every time a lady enters the room, you're acting not out of 'politeness', but because behaviour is a chain of well-set reflexes. He claimed that recency and frequency were particularly important in determining what behaviour an individual 'emitted' next: if you usually get up when a lady enters the room, you're likely to get up when one enters now.

EVERYDAY CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

This type of influence is extremely common. If you have pets and you feed them with canned food, what happens when you hit the can opener? Sure, the animals come running even if you are opening a can of green beans. They have associated the sound of the opener with their food.

And classical conditioning works with advertising. For example, many beer ads promeniently feature attractive young women wearing bikinis. The young women (Unconditioned Stimulus) naturally elicit a favourable, mildly aroused feeling (Unconditioned Response) in most men. The beer is simply associated with this effect. The same thing applies with the jingles and music that accompany many advertisements.

Perhaps the strongest application of classical conditioning involves emotion. Common experience and careful research both confirm that human emotion conditions very rapidly and easily. Particularly when the emotion is intensely felt or negative in direction, it will condition quickly.

Clearly, classical conditioning is a pervasive form of influence in our world. This is true because it is a natural feature of all humans and it is relatively simple and easy to accomplish.

Operant Conditioning

Behavioural or operant conditioning occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system: If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviourist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance and bowl a ball in a mini-alley.

"Operant conditioning" describes one type of associative learning in which there is a contingency between the response and the presentation of the reinforcer. This situation resembles most closely the classic experiments from Skinner, where he trained rats and pigeons to press a lever in order to obtain a food reward. In such experiments, the subject is able to generate certain motor-output, (the response R, e.g. running around, cleaning, resting, pressing the lever). The experimentor chooses a suited output (e.g. pressing the lever) to pair it with an unconditioned stimulus (US, e.g. a food reward). Often adiscriminative stimulus (SD, e.g. a light) is present, when the R-US contingency is true. After a training period, the subject will show the conditioned response (CS, e.g. touching the trigger) even in absence of the US, if the R-US association has been memorized.

A Skinner box typically contains one or more levers which an animal can press, one or more stimulus lights and one or more places in which reinforcers like food can be delivered. The

animal's presses on the levers can be detected and recorded and a contingency between these presses, the state of the stimulus lights and the delivery of reinforcement can be set up, all automatically. It is also possible to deliver other reinforcers such as water or to deliver punishers like electric shock through the floor of the chamber. Other types of response can be measured - nose-poking at a moving panel, or hopping on a treadle - both often used when testing birds rather than rats. And of course all kinds of discriminative stimuli may be used. In principle, and sometimes in practice, it is possible for a rat to learn to press a bar in a Skinner-box by trial and error. If the box is programmed so that a single lever-press causes a pellet to be dispensed, followed by a period for the rat to eat the pellet when the discriminative-stimulus light is out and the lever inoperative, then the rat may learn to press the lever if left to his own devices for long enough. This can, however, often take a very long time. The methods used in practice illustrate how much the rat has to learn to tackle this simple instrumental learning situation. The first step is to expose the rat to the food pellets he will later be rewarded with in the Skinner box in his home cage when he is hungry. He has to learn that these pellets are food and hence are reinforcing when he is hungry. Now he can be introduced to the Skinner-box.

Initially there may be a few pellets in the hopper where reinforcers are delivered, plus a few scattered nearby, to allow the rat to discover that the hopper is a likely source of food. Once the rat is happy eating from the hopper he can be left in Skinner box and the pellet dispenser operated every now and then so the rat becomes accustomed to eating a pellet from the hopper each time the dispenser operates (the rat is probably learning to associate the sound of the dispenser operating with food - a piece of classical conditioning which is really incidental to the instrumental learning task at hand). Once the animal has learned the food pellets are reinforcing and where they are to be found, it would, however, still probably take some time for the rat to learn that bar-pressing when the SD light was on produced food. The problem is that the rat is extremely unlikely to press the lever often by chance. In order to learn an operant contingency by trial and error the operant must be some behaviour which the animal performs often anyway. Instead of allowing the rat to learn by trial and error one can use a 'shaping' or 'successive-approximations' procedure. Initially, instead of rewarding the rat for producing the exact behaviour we require - lever pressing - he is rewarded whenever he performs a behaviour which approximates to lever pressing. The closeness of the approximation to the desired behaviour required in order for the rat to get a pellet is gradually increased so that eventually he is only reinforced for pressing the lever. Starting by reinforcing the animal whenever he is in the front half of the Skinner-box, he is later only reinforced if he is also on the side of the box where the lever is. After this the reinforcement occurs if his head is pointing towards the lever and then later only when he approaches the lever, when he touches the lever with the front half of his body, when he puts touches the lever with his paw and so on until the rat is pressing the lever in order to obtain the reinforcer.

The rat may still not have completely learned the operant contingency - specifically he may not yet have learned that the contingency between the operant response and reinforcement is signalled by the SD light. If we now leave him to work in the Skinner-box on his own he will soon learn this and will only press the lever when the SD light is on.

For our purpose the important aspect of behaviouristic theories is that the learner is viewed as adapting to the environment and learning is seen largely as a passive process in that there is no explicit treatment of interest in mental processes. The learner merely responds to the

"demands" of the environment. Knowledge is viewed as given and absolute (objective knowledge).

Behaviourism became one of the dominant areas of research into learning throughout the twentieth century. It is particularly associated with Watson and Skinner..

Skinner was not satisfied that all behaviour was based on reflexes. He argued that we behave the way we do because of the consequences generated by our past behaviour. If, every time a man takes his wife out to dinner, she is very loving, then he learns to take her out to dinner if he wants her to be very loving. For Skinner, it is the history of reinforcements that determines behaviour. We learn to choose or avoid behaviours based on their consequences.

The behaviourists' basic mechanism of learning is **stimulus => response => reinforcement**

Skinner particularly insisted on the importance of reinforcement (shifting the emphasis from reflexes) in the learning process, learning being operationally defined as changes in the frequency of a particular response. Skinner developed Pavlovian classical conditioning, where an old response (salivation) is evoked by a new stimulus (bell), to focus more closely on operant conditioning, where a new response (turning the tap anti-clockwise) is developed as a result of satisfying a need (thirst).

Reinforcement is the key element in Skinner's S-R theory. A reinforcer is anything that strengthens the desired response. It could be verbal praise, a good grade or a feeling of increased accomplishment or satisfaction. The theory also covers negative reinforcers -- any stimulus that results in the increased frequency of a response when it is withdrawn (different from adversive stimuli -- punishment -- which result in reduced responses).

Implications of reinforcement theory

Practice should take the form of question (stimulus) - answer (response) frames which expose the student to the subject in gradual steps

Require that the learner make a response for every frame and receive immediate feedback

Try to arrange the difficulty of the questions so the response is always correct and hence a positive reinforcement

Ensure that good performance in the lesson is paired with secondary reinforcers such as verbal praise, prizes and good grades.

Principles:

Behaviour that is positively reinforced will reoccur; intermittent reinforcement is particularly effective

Information should be presented in small amounts so that responses can be reinforced ("shaping")

Reinforcements will generalize across similar stimuli ("stimulus generalization") producing secondary conditioning

Shaping

Skinner developed the idea of shaping. If you control the rewards and punishments which the environment gives in response to behaviours, then you can shape behaviour (commonly known as behaviour modification). The four major teaching/learning strategies suggested by behaviourism are:

Shaping	The intended target behaviour needs to be as specific as possible. If people don't know what you want them to achieve, they can't know whether they're getting closer to achieving it or not.
Chaining	complex behaviours are broken down into simpler ones, each of which is a modular component of the next more complex stage. The learner is rewarded for acquiring a skill, after which the reward is withdrawn until the next, more complex, composite skill is acquired. It's important, that reinforcement should be immediate. Caution should be exercised that the rewards do not become too regular and frequent, otherwise, according to Skinner, they lose much of their effect.
Discrimination learning	the learner comes to discriminate between settings in which a particular behaviour will be reinforced.
Fading	ultimately, the discriminatory stimuli may be withdrawn, a habit is acquired and practised as the effort required is reduced

Behaviouristic view of language acquisition simply claims that language development is the result of a set of habits. This view has normally been influenced by the general theory of learning described by the psychologist John B. Watson in 1923, and termed behaviourism. Behaviourism denies nativist accounts of innate knowledge as they are viewed as inherently irrational and thus unscientific. Knowledge is the product of interaction with the environment through stimulus-response conditioning. Broadly speaking, stimulus (ST) – response (RE) learning works as follows. An event in the environment (the unconditioned stimulus, or UST) brings out an unconditioned response (URE) from an organism capable of learning. That response is then followed by another event appealing to the organism. That is, the organism's response is positively reinforced (PRE). If the sequence UST --> URE --> PRE recurs a sufficient number of times, the organism will learn how to associate its response to the stimulus with the reinforcement (CST). This will consequently cause the organism to give the same response when it confronts with the same stimulus. In this way, the response becomes a conditioned response (CRE).

The most risky part of the behaviouristic view is perhaps the idea that all leaning, whether verbal (language) or non-verbal (general learning) takes place by means of the same underlying process, that is via forming habits. In 1957, the psychologist B.F. Skinner

produced a behaviourist account of language acquisition in which linguistic utterances served as CST and CRE.

When language acquisition is taken into consideration, the theory claims that both L1 and L2 acquirers receive linguistic input from speakers in their environment, and positive reinforcement for their correct repetitions and imitations. As mentioned above, when language learners' responses are reinforced positively, they acquire the language relatively easily.

These claims are strictly criticized in Chomsky's "A Review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behaviour". Chomsky (1959) asserts that there is "neither empirical evidence nor any known argument to support any specific claim about the relative importance of feedback from the environment". Therefore, it would be unwise to claim that the sequence UST --> URE --> PRE and imitation can account for the process of language acquisition. What is more, theory overlooks the speaker (internal) factors in this process.

In brief, Skinner's view of language acquisition is a popular example of the nurturist ideas. Behaviourism, as known by most of us, was passively accepted by the influential Bloomfieldian structuralist school of linguistics and produced some well-know applications in the field of foreign/second language teaching – for instance, the Audiolingual Method or the Army Method. The theory sees the language learner as a tabula rasa with no built-in knowledge. The theory and the resulting teaching methods failed due to the fact that imitation and simple S-R connections only cannot explain acquisition and provide a sound basis for language teaching methodology.

How does learning occur?

Learning occurs when there is a measurable change in the frequency of observable performance. The learner adapts his behaviour to contingencies of events and objectives. Learning is a gradual strengthening of the learned relationship between cue and behaviour, driven by a pattern of consequences (reinforcement). This is called shaping. With enough practice, the link becomes so strong that the time between cue and behaviour gets very small.

Which factors influence learning?

The most critical factor is the environmental condition, meaning the arrangement of stimuli and consequences within the environment. The instruction focuses on conditioning the learner's behaviour.

What is the role of memory?

Although the role of memory is not specifically addressed, there is discussion on the acquisition of habits. Practicing habits maintains a learner's readiness to respond, disuse results in "forgetting" over time.

How does transfer occur?

When experiences are generalized, similar situations involving recognizable features allow the learner to transfer and apply the learning experience to new situations.

What types of learning are best explained by this theory?

Reinforcement by way of repetition, instructional cues, drill and practice processes strengthens the exhibition of desired behaviour. The learner focuses on a clear goal, his behaviour automatically respond to the cues of that goal. For learning that requires quick reaction with sure response, this type of instruction is quite appropriate.

What basic assumptions/principles of this theory are relevant to instructional design? Educational software used in elementary schools, such as drill and practice routines and flash cards from the good old days are examples of behaviourist theory in practice. The use of objectives and goals when introducing material has behaviourist components, as does providing tangible rewards and immediate feedback.

How should instruction be structured to facilitate learning?

First, a task analysis should be undertaken in order to determine the behavioural changes needed to accomplish the task. Then, the instructor should prescribe a sequence of learning events to which will enable the learner to reach the goal. When the goal or target is presented, then opportunities are made available to allow the learner to practice making the proper desired response. Instructional cues assist the learner in making the proper response, and reinforcement strengthens the correct response.

How should learning be evaluated?

Evaluation should be based on a predetermined set of criteria. Every learner engaged in this learning exercise should be evaluated based upon the same set of criteria. Strengths of Behaviourism

Clearly stated objectives allow the learner to focus on one goal.Cueing responses to behaviour allows the learner to react in a predictable way under certain conditions. In a stressful situation like combat or flying a plane, cued responses can be a very valuable tool.

Against Behaviourism

Behaviourist accounts have a certain intrinsic appeal because of their essential theoretical simplicity, and because of the success of numerous controlled learning experiments. But one wonders whether a conditioned response account can explain the acquisition of a large and complex system of knowledge like language given:

a. that language is acquired relatively rapidly

b. that very little actual language teaching/training actually goes on during the acquisition period

c. that children are relatively unresponsive to attempts at overt teaching, particularly through negative reinforcement.

Another point is illustrated by the following dialogue: A caregiver is attempting to correct a child's use of the prescriptively negatively-valued double negative construction, with frustrating results on both sides:

Child: Nobody don't like me.

Mother: No, say, "Nobody likes me."

Child: Nobody don't like me.

Mother: No, say, "Nobody likes me." [further repetitions of this interaction]

Mother: No, now listen carefully. Say, "Nobody likes me."

Child: Nobody don't likes me

There have been many criticisms of behaviourism, including the following:

Behaviourism does not account for all kinds of learning, since it disregards the activities of the mind.

Behaviourism does not explain some learning--such as the recognition of new language patterns by young children--for which there is no reinforcement mechanism.

How Behaviourism Impacts Learning This theory is relatively simple to understand because it relies only on observable behaviour and describes several universal laws of behaviour. Its positive and negative reinforcement techniques can be very effective--both in animals, and in treatments for human disorders such as autism and antisocial behaviour. Behaviourism often is used by teachers, who reward or punish student behaviours.

APPLICATION OF BEHAVIORISM FOR ELT

Behaviorism offers a particular perspective on how learning occurs and how teaching impacts that process. According to Beavers, Eaglin, Green, Nathan and Wolfe (2002)) Learning is a persisting change in performance or performance potential that results from experience and interaction with the world. The importance of measurable and observable performance and the impact of the environment comprise foundational principles of the behaviorist approach to learning.

Some things to remember when incorporating behaviorist principles into your teaching:

- Write observable and measurable behavioral learning outcomes
- Specify the desired performances in advance (the learning outcomes serve this purpose) and verify learning with appropriate assessments
- Emphasize performance, and practice in an authentic context
- Use instructional strategies to shape desired skills
- Reinforce accomplishments with appropriate feedback

Behaviorism can be applied through the teaching method such as Audiolingual method, TPR,Silent way.

A.APPLYING CLASSICAL CONDITIONING IN THE CLASSROOM

The teacher can apply the principles of behaviorism in the classroom that can be applied through classical and operant conditioning. The key elements in classical conditioning (as cited in journal from Asia University). A teacher uses attractive learning aids

Decorate the classrooms

Encourage students to work in small group for difficult learning tasks Greet the students and smile at them when he comes to the classroom

Inform the students clearly and specifically the format of quizzes , tests, and examination Make the students understand the rules of the classroom

Give time for students to prepare for and complete the learning tasks.

B.APPLYING OPERANT CONDITIONING IN THE CLASSROOM

In operant conditioning , the consequences of behavior place changes in the probability that the behavior will occur. Reinforcement and punishment are two main concepts in operant conditioning. The following are some examples on how operant conditioning can be applied in the classroom (as cited in journal from Asia University)

Recognize and reinforce positive behaviors and genuine task accomplishment

Use various types of reinforcement such as teacher approval (praise, smile, attention and pats on the shoulder)concrete reinforcement(cookies, candies and stationery) and privileges(longer recess time and more time with friends) Reinforce good behaviors and punish bad ones consistently

Use schedule of reinforcement, such as surprise rewards, to encourage persistence

Use positive punishment as the last option. Use negative punishment such as detention class ,instead.

Punish students' behavior , not their personal qualities.

Tell the students which behavior is being punished.

THE DIFFERENCES OF BEHAVIORISM WITH OTHER THEORIES

The first is the differences between behaviorism and constructivism theory based on Alzaghoul. The description is as follows:

Behaviorism

Students tend to be passive

The teacher is active in teaching learning process than the students since the teacher presents and provides for practice and feedback. The material is prepared by the teacher.

Constructivism

Students tend to be active

The teacher is passive because the students do their personal discovery knowledge The students understand the information or material constructed by themselves

The second is the differences of behaviorism theory compare with cognitivism and constructivism theories based on Orey (2008).

The Differences of cognitivism ,behaviorism,and constructivism (as cited in Orey:2008) Cognitivism

It stresses on acquisition of knowledge and internal mental structure.

The role of teacher in cognitivism is to

1) Understand that individuals bring various learning experiences to the learning situation which can impact experiences to the learning situation which can impact learning outcomes,
2) Determine the most effective manner in which to organize and structure new information to tap the learners' previously acquired knowledge, abilities, and experiences, and
3) Arrange practice with feedback so that the new information is effectively and efficiently assimilated within the learner's cognitive structure.

Behaviorism

It stresses on a new behavioral pattern being repeated until it becomes automatic including the use of instructional cues, practice and reinforcement.

The role of teacher in behaviorism theory is to

1) Determine which cues can elicit the desired responses,
2) Arrange practice situations in which prompts are paired with the target stimuli that initially have no eliciting power but which will be expected to elicit the responses in the natural setting,
3) Arrange environmental conditions.

Constructivism

It is based on construction of our own perspective of the world, through individual experiences and schema.

The role of teacher is

1) To instruct learners on how to construct meaning
2) To align and design experiences for the learner so that authentic relevant contexts can be experienced. Instructions in constructivism have some characteristics:
    a. An emphasis on the identification of the context in which the skills will be learned and subsequently applied,,
    b. An emphasis on learner control and the capability of the learner to manipulate information,
    c. The need for information to be presented in a variety of different ways, porting the use of problem solving skills that allow learners to go "beyond the information given"
    d. Assessment focused on transfer of knowledge and skills

Source: DINA NOVITA WIJAYANTI https://thesideriver.wordpress.com/category/the-essay-of-behaviorism-theory-of-language-teaching-and-learning/ accesses on 2nd sept 2016

5. The Humanistic Approaches to Learning

An explosion of new and radical approaches to learning a language came to light in the 1970s. These approaches are often grouped under the title of Humanistic Approaches due to their method of concentration, touching on the innate ability and capacity that all learners are presumed to possess.

Suggestopedia

This method is based on the idea that the mind has great potential and can retain information by the power of suggestion. This teaching method uses relaxation as a means of retaining new knowledge.

In their initial lessons learners receive large quantities of information in the new language.

The text is translated and then read aloud with classical music in the background.

The scope is to supply an atmosphere of total relaxation where understanding is purely accidental and subliminal. Using large quantities of linguistic material introduces the idea that language understanding is easy and natural.

In the following lesson, learners use the material in a variety of communication activities. The original learning techniques and theory developed by Georgi Lozanov have since developed into the Accelerated Learning movement.

Summary

When – 1970s to 1980s

Focus – Meaningful texts and vocabulary

Characteristics – Relaxed atmosphere, with music; encourage subliminal learning of English

Supporters – Georgi Lozanov

Total Physical Response (TPR)

Allow students to produce when they are 'ready'. Improvement comes from supplying communicative input, not from forcing production. **– Dr Stephen Krashen**

This method draws on the basic principles of how young children learn their first language. Developed by James Asher, this teaching method involves a wide range of physical activities and a lot of listening and comprehension, as well as an emphasis on learning as fun and stimulating. Total Physical Response has limitations, especially when teaching abstract language and tasks, but is widely considered to be effective for beginners and is still the standard approach for young learners.

Summary

When - 1970s, widely used today for young learners

Focus - Listening comprehension

Characteristics – English speaking delayed until students are ready; meaning clarified through actions and visuals

Supporters – James Asher

The Silent Way

Another example of a method categorized under the Humanistic Approaches, with this technique the teacher is supposed to be practically silent – hence the name of the method – and avoids explaining everything to the students.

This method is based on a problem-solving approach to learning, whereby the students' learning becomes autonomous and co-operative.

The scope is to help students select the appropriate phrases and know how to control them, with good intonation and rhythm. The teacher does not repeat the material nor supplies the phrases that the student has to imitate, and there is no use of the learner's native language.

Patterns contain vocabulary, and coloured guides for pronunciation are used to assist the teacher in guiding the students' understanding while saying the least amount possible.

The Humanistic Teacher

The humanistic teacher should have a good grasp of language learning theories. They will realise the importance of change, which is implicit in all learning.

They will be aware of the individual learners' 'developmental readiness' (Piaget, 1970), which will determine when and how to teach each student something.

They will offer their students problems to solve, as, according to cognitivists, this is precisely how we learn things.

Above all, the successful humanistic teacher will probably be a pragmatist - allowing a combination of language learning theories and their own experience to interact with each other to produce effective language lessons.

The humanistic teacher also needs to be aware of what motivates their students. Some will probably want to learn English because they have to (e.g. for their job), while others want to simply for the sake of it. The former is called 'extrinsic motivation', while the latter is called 'intrinsic motivation'.

Those students who are more extrinsically motivated will be more goal-oriented and might want, for example, a lot of tests and exams. Students who are intrinsically motivated will derive a lot of satisfaction from solving language problems - the solution will be a reward in itself.

In reality, of course, students can be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated. They may be learning English for a specific purpose (e.g. to be accepted into a speech community or to get promotion), but they might also really enjoy the process of learning.

Teachers need to be aware of this mix and need to use this information to determine issues like:

- How much testing to do
- How much fun can be had
- Should the target language be representative of one particular speech community or not?
- Humanism in practice

Teaching 'language items'

In an attempt to be a humanistic language teacher myself, I introduce every new language item at the optimum time of readiness for my class.

I firstly elicit the target language. This fosters a sense of co-operation between the students and me.

Then I try to make the meaning of the language items as clear as possible by using a number of techniques (e.g. pictures, mime, or a mini-explanation). Such work on the concept of the target language needs to be repeated later in a way that is appropriate to the abilities and progress of the group.

At the appropriate time, students also need to practice speech production by saying or writing the target language.

After enough practice, through both teacher-centred and student-centred phases, the student should gradually learn the target language. The student will have fundamentally changed.

Teaching skills

As I want my classes to be able to understand the 'gist' of a spoken interaction, I make sure that they are mentally prepared for it. This means that: The 'text' is not dauntingly hard for them

I create the right conditions for understanding the text by, for example, arousing interest and pre-teaching lexis

Then, by setting an appropriate task I am setting a problem for the students to solve. If I can steer my students towards focusing on the main points of the text then I am enabling learners to become more successful listeners.

After this, students can be encouraged to carry out their own, related, role plays, with the result that students' ability to carry out certain situation-specific interactions will be enhanced. It's worth noting that these principles relate to reading texts too!

The teacher's status

It cannot be denied that the teacher plays a different role from that of his/her students. We each have a particular job. This does not mean, though, that we have higher status. We are certainly not in the classroom to order people around. I try to provide students with learning opportunities, which the students are free to take or not.

However, if a student chooses not to take up an opportunity, and then goes on to become a malign influence in class, I then ask the rest of the class if their learning is being affected and whether they want the offending student to stay in class or not. I then have the authority to ask the student to leave.

Flexibility

Without flexibility, a teacher cannot teach humanistically, because students will never learn completely in step with any designated syllabus. This is why I always make a point of observing my students very carefully so that I know when to introduce certain tasks, according to the progress they're making.

The same applies to lesson plans. I know that if I plough on through my plan regardless of how my students are responding, some students will be lost forever and lose confidence both in me and their own ability to learn English.

Conclusion

The thrust of humanism seems, to me, to be the ability to advance as a species through understanding and co-operation. This means that humanistic language teachers need to have a thorough grasp of both how people learn and what motivates them to learn. They need to shed the old image of the teacher being the fount of wisdom and replace it with the teacher as facilitator.

Source: https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/humanistic-language-teaching

V. The factors that influence the acquisition of a second language

Introduction

Some students learn a new language more quickly and easily than others. This simple fact is known by all who have themselves learned a second language or taught those who are using their second language in school. Clearly, some language learners are successful by virtue of their sheer determination, hard work and persistence. However there are other crucial factors influencing success that are largely beyond the control of the learner. These factors can be broadly categorized as internal and external. It is their complex interplay that determines the speed and facility with which the new language is learned.

Internal factors

Internal factors are those that the individual language learner brings with him or her to the particular learning situation.

Age: Second language acquisition is influenced by the age of the learner. Children, who already have solid literacy skills in their own language, seem to be in the best position to acquire a new language efficiently. Motivated, older learners can be very successful too, but usually struggle to achieve native-speaker-equivalent pronunciation and intonation.

Personality: Introverted or anxious learners usually make slower progress, particularly in the development of oral skills. They are less likely to take advantage of opportunities to speak, or to seek out such opportunities. More outgoing students will not worry about the inevitability of making mistakes. They will take risks, and thus will give themselves much more practice.

Motivation (intrinsic): Intrinsic motivation has been found to correlate strongly with educational achievement. Clearly, students who enjoy language learning and take pride in their progress will do better than those who don't. Extrinsic motivation is also a significant factor. ESL students, for example, who need to learn English in order to take a place at an American university or to communicate with a new English boy/girlfriend are likely to make greater efforts and thus greater progress.

Experiences: Learners who have acquired general knowledge and experience are in a stronger position to develop a new language than those who haven't. The student, for example, who has already lived in 3 different countries and been exposed to various languages and cultures has a stronger base for learning a further language than the student who hasn't had such experiences.

Cognition: In general, it seems that students with greater cognitive abilities (intelligence) will make the faster progress. Some linguists believe that there is a specific, innate language learning ability that is stronger in some students than in others.

Native language: Students who are learning a second language which is from the same language family as their first language have, in general, a much easier task than those who aren't. So, for example, a Dutch child will learn English more quickly than a Japanese child.

External factors

External factors are those that characterize the particular language learning situation. Curriculum: For ESL students in particular it is important that the totality of their educational experience is appropriate for their needs. Language learning is less likely to place if students are fully submersed into the mainstream program without any extra assistance or, conversely, not allowed to be part of the mainstream until they have reached a certain level of language proficiency.

Instruction: Clearly, some language teachers are better than others at providing appropriate and effective learning experiences for the students in their classrooms. These students will make faster progress. The same applies to mainstream teachers in second language situations. The science teacher, for example, who is aware that she too is responsible for the students' English language development, and makes certain accommodations, will contribute to their linguistic development.

Culture and status: There is some evidence that students in situations where their own culture has a lower status than that of the culture in which they are learning the language make slower progress.

Motivation (extrinsic): Students who are given continuing, appropriate encouragment to learn by their teachers and parents will generally fare better than those who aren't. For example, students from families that place little importance on language learning are likely to progress less quickly.

Access to native speakers: The opportunity to interact with native speakers both within and outside of the classroom is a significant advantage. Native speakers are linguistic models and can provide appropriate feedback. Clearly, second-language learners who have no extensive access to native speakers are likely to make slower progress, particularly in the oral/aural aspects of language acquisition.

The information on this page is based on summaries of research into learner variables (internal factors) in second language acquisition in the following resources:

Lightbown, Patsy M., and Nina Spada. How Languages Are Learned. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2013. Print. Macaro, Ernesto. Continuum Companion to Second Language Acquisition. London: Continuum, 2010. Print. http://www.slideshare.net/kabrera100/learner-variables-in-language-learning

Source: http://esl.fis.edu/teachers/support/factors.htm

Learner Variables in L2 / The "Good Language Learner"

Are there personal characteristics that make one learner more successful than another? In your experience, as an English language learner, which characteristics seem to you most likely to be associated with success in L2 acquisition?

There are many ways to define the "success" of language learning .

It is not possible to directly observe and measure qualities such as motivation, personality, aptitude, and intelligence. They are just labels of behaviors.

CALP – cognitive/academic language proficiency ;

BICS – basic interpersonal communicative skills

variables are often not independent of one another . Researchers may use the same labels to describe different sets of behavioral traits.

A correlation of two factors does not mean that there is a causal relationship between them.

That is, the fact that two things tend to occur together does not necessarily mean that one caused the other.

Intelligence

Multiple types of intelligence : Traditionally, intelligence refers to the mental abilities that are measured by an IQ (intelligence quotient) test. It usually measures only two types of intelligence: verbal/linguistic and mathematical/logical intelligence.

There are other types of intelligence such as spatial intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, musical intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, and intrapersonal intelligence .

Linguistic intelligence : speaking, using words, writing, giving presentations, solving word problems.

Logical-mathematical intelligence: using numbers, logic, calculations; learning and understanding grammar rules

Spatial intelligence : drawing, painting, using colour, art, graphics, pictures, maps, and charts.

Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence: muscular coordination, athletic skill, body language, drama and theater.

Musical intelligence : using music, tones, hearing; producing the intonation and rhythm of a language.

Interpersonal intelligence: talking with other people, understanding them, using language to communicate.

Interpersonal intelligence : talking with other people, understanding them, using language to communicate.

Intrapersonal intelligence : self-knowledge, self-confidence, using language to analyze yourself.

Research findings:

Intelligence, especially measured by verbal IQ tests, may be a strong factor when it comes to learning that involves language analysis and rule learning .

On the other hand, intelligence may play a less important role in language learning that focuses more on communication and interaction

Conclusions: It is important to keep in mind that "intelligence" is complex and that a person has many kinds of abilities and strengths.

An individual with strong academic performance does not necessarily mean that s/he is a successful second language learner.

Aptitude

Aptitude refers to potential for achievement . An aptitude test is designed to make a prediction about an individual's future achievements.

Aptitude for language learning is usually composed of four different types of abilities: to identify and memorize new sounds. to understand the function of particular words in sentences to figure out grammatical rules from language samples to memorize new words

Research findings: Earlier research revealed a substantial relationship between aptitude for language learning and performance in foreign language that was taught with grammar-translation or audiolingual methods .However, aptitude seems irrelevant to L2 learning with the adoption of a more communicative approach to teaching (i.e., with a focus on meaning rather than on form)

Successful language learners are not necessarily strong in all of the components of aptitude. e.g., Some may have strong memories but only average ability to figure out grammatical rules.) Teachers can select appropriate teaching approaches and activities based on learners' aptitude profiles to accommodate their differences in aptitude.

Personality

There are a number of personality characteristics that are likely to affect L2 learning, such as

- Extroversion vs. introversion
- Inhibition vs. risk-taking
- Self-esteem (self-confidence)

- Anxiety
- Empathy

Research findings: Some studies have found that learners' success in language learning is associated with extroversion such as assertiveness and adventurousness , while others have found that many successful language learners do not get high scores on measures of extroversion.

Inhibition is a negative force for second language pronunciation performance. However, in general, the research does not show a clearly defined relationship between personality and SLA . The major difficulty is identification and measurement of personality characteristics. Personality may be a major factor only in the acquisition of conversational skills (i.e., oral communicative ability), not in the acquisition of literacy skills (i.e., reading and writing skills).

Motivation & Attitude

Both integrative and instrumental types of motivation are related to success in L2 learning. Most L2 learning situations involve a mixture of each type of motivation. Research strongly favours intrinsic motivation , especially for long-term retention. Intrinsically motivated learners are striving for excellence, autonomy, and self-actualization.

An individual's identity and attitudes towards the second language community:

Positive learning L2 experience produces enrichment.

Negative L2 learning causes resentment.

Social dynamics and power relationships between L1 and L2.

Minority group members learning the language of a majority groups may have different attitudes and motivation from those of majority group members learning a minority language. Think of why an ESL learner's and an EFL learner's attitude may differ in motivation and attitude.

Motivation in the classroom setting:

Motivating students in the lesson:Varying the activities, tasks, and materials to increase students' interest levels.

Using cooperative rather than competitive goals to increase students' self-confidence. Creating a supportive and non-threatening learning atmosphere.

Learner Beliefs

Virtually all learners, particularly older learners , have strong beliefs about how their language instruction should be delivered.

Learner beliefs are usually based on previous learning experiences and the assumption that a particular type of instruction is better than others.

The available research indicates that learner beliefs can be strong mediating factors in learners' L2 learning process. e.g., L2 learners' progress was negatively affected by an

instructional approach that was not consistent with their beliefs about the best ways for them to learn.

Implications:

Learners' preference for learning , whether due to their learning styles or to their beliefs about how language are learned, will influence the kinds of strategies they choose to learn new material. Teachers can use this information to help learners expand their repertoire of learning strategies and thus develop greater flexibility in their second language learning.

Age of Acquisition

The relationship between a learner's age and his/her potential for success in second language learning is complicated .

The relationship needs to take into account the stage of L2 development , 2) the goals of learning L2 (i.e., In what aspects of the L2 the learner has achieved), and 3) the context in which the learner learns L2 (including language input, learning environment, and socio-cultural context).

Research findings:

L2 development in informal language learning environments where the TL is used primarily: Children can eventually speak the L2 with native-like fluency, but their parents and older learners (i.e., post-puberty learners) are hard to achieve such high levels of mastery of the spoken language , especially in pronunciation/accent . Adults and adolescents can make more rapid progress toward mastery of an L2 in contexts where they can make use of the language on a daily basis in social, personal, professional, or academic interaction.

L2 development in formal language learning environments (i.e., classrooms): In the early stages of the L2 development, older learners (adolescents and adults) are more efficient than younger learners (children). Learners who began learning an L2 at the elementary school level did not necessarily do better in the long run than those who began in early adolescent. It is more difficult for post-puberty learners to attain native-like mastery of the spoken language , including pronunciation , word choice , and some grammatical features .

At what age should L2 instruction begin?

Those who support critical period hypothesis (CPH): The Younger is better (particularly in the phonological achievement) Those who consider that the age factor cannot be separated from factors such as motivation , social identity , and the conditions for learning :Older learners may well speak with an accent because they want to keep their L1 identity , and the language input for adults is different from that for children because they rarely get access to the same quantity and quality of language input that children receive in play setting.

When the goal is basic communicative ability of the TL, rather than native-like mastery, and when children's native language remains the primary language , it may be more efficient to begin L2 or FL learning later (e.g., in early adolescence – at age 10, 11, or 12). When learners receive only a few hours of instruction per week, those who start later often catch up with those who began earlier. One or two hours a week will not produce very advanced L2 speakers, no matter how young they were when they began learning

Age is only one of the characteristics which affects the learner's L2 learning. The opportunities for learning (i.e., context - both inside and outside the classroom), the motivation to learn, and individual differences in intelligence, aptitude, personality, and learning styles have also been found to be important determining factors in both rate of learning and eventual success in learning. The study of individual learner variables is not easy and the results of research are not entirely satisfactory, partly because of the lack of clear definitions and methods for measuring the individual characteristics and partly because of the complex interactions of those characteristics Thus, it remains difficult to make precise predictions about how a particular individual's characteristics influence his/her success as a language learner .

Even though the research findings are not conclusive in the relationship between personal factors and second language learning, teachers should take learners' individual aptitudes,

personalities, and learning styles into account to create a learning environment in which virtually all learners can be successful in learning a second language.

8. Future of English Language in India

Introduction: In the present age of Globalization, English language has become an important medium of communication between India and the world. English language has bright future in Modern India. English, as a language, must be studied in Free India.

Global International Language: English language, as it stands today is not the language of a particular people or particular country; it has assumed a world-wide significance. It is a language, understood and spoken by more than half the population of the world. In a sense, English has become an International language. It is spoken, understood, read and written in many countries of the world.

Co-existence of Hindi and English languages in India: Hindi shall maintain its national significance while let us adopt English as an international language.

Unifying Link between Hindi and Non-Hindi speaking people: Even today, English Language has brought about an intellectual and cultural unification of the Indians living in north, south, east and west of the country. 'It is the greatest unifying link between the Hindi-speaking and non-Hindi speaking people of India'.

Promotes communication with outside world: English language is a link between India and the outside world. Not only today but in the past also, the great Indian philosophers and spiritualists, like Swami Vivekananda and Swami Ram Tirath, exalted and glorified India's name and fame in distant countries, like America and Canada by dint of their mastery of English language. The congress, during the days of its struggle for Independence, fought against the alien rulers through English language.

Rich treasure of literature: English language contains the richest treasure of literature. English literature has had an impressive and dynamically creative impact on the Indian literary tradition. Tagore was deeply inspired by Shelley and Swinburne; Prem Chand was profoundly influenced by Hardy, Bankim by Scott and Sarat by Dickens.

Indispensable for scientific and technological studies: Apart from its literary value English language is almost indispensable for higher scientific and technological studies. The

University Grants Commission has aptly recommended to the Universities in India that scientific studies in the Indian colleges by conducted through English medium.

International Transactions : English language is the one of the most popular language which is employed all over the Globe for transaction of international trade. Apart from all these, we have sufficient ground for supporting the use of English for commercial and economic purposes in our country.

Conclusion: Modern age, it must be remembered, has an international or cosmopolitan out-look. We have to evolve an international cosmopolitan culture, a wider and broader horizon of human civilization. For adapting ourselves to the changed world-picture and international urge, we must have a cosmic vision of life. We should not have any narrow prejudice in the context of learning foreign languages.

Source: http://www.importantindia.com/15277/essay-on-future-of-english-language-in-india/

VI. Stages of L1 & L2 acquisition

Stages of first language (L1) acquisition Babbling (Prelinguistic): 6-8 months, basic sound production, a range of sounds are produced One word production (Holophrasic): 9-18 months, one word is used to convey wants and emotions

First Language (L1) Acquisition	
Factor	Questions to Address
Age: When does language acquisition begin and how does it progress?	Generally L1 acquisition begins when children are infants and they begin to babble. As they continue to grow the babbling turns into one word meaningful utterances brought about by the world directly around the child. Further progressing with interacting with his/her environment with two and then multiple word sentences.
Sound System: How do young children learn the L1 sound system and the rules of the native language?	Children learn the sounds and the rules of language through listening, repetition and imitation of those around them. With trial and error, they lengthen their thoughts and ideas based on the reaction/reinforcement from those around them in order to satisfy a want, need or expressing of emotion.
Learning Environment: Where does L1 take place and under what conditions and circumstances does early language learning occur?	Early language occurs with interaction with others and the environment around the child. Children listen and imitate those around them attempting to find meaning in their “words” and received positive and negative reinforcement for their efforts.
Second Language (L2) Acquisition	

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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – II – Principles and Practices of ELT –SHSA5101

- Theoretical perspective of first language acquisition
- Acquisition
- Learning
- Stages of L1 acquisition
- Second language learning
- Implications of first language acquisition for second language learning
- Factors affecting L2 Learning

Acquisition and Learning

Within the field of Applied Linguistics, controversy has arisen between two different terminologies used by linguists: acquisition and learning. As the applied linguist Rod Ellis stated: "The term 'acquisition' is used to refer to picking up a second language through exposure, whereas the term 'learning' is used to refer to the conscious study of a second language." (Ellis 1985: 06). The American applied linguist, Stephen Krashen, made a similar suggestion regarding the acquisition / learning difference. He emphasized the idea that language that is acquired is language that can be used spontaneously, since it is ready to be used when needed. On the other hand, language that is learned, that is to say, language that is studied through grammar rules and vocabulary cannot be used in spontaneous conversation, as its only function is to act as a monitor of spontaneous communication. Nevertheless, Ellis made reference to the fact that these two terms can be used interchangeably, disregarding whether conscious or unconscious processes are involved. In the following paper, the two terms will be applied according to Ellis'view. Moreover, linguists have made a distinction concerning the meanings of first and second language. The former refers to

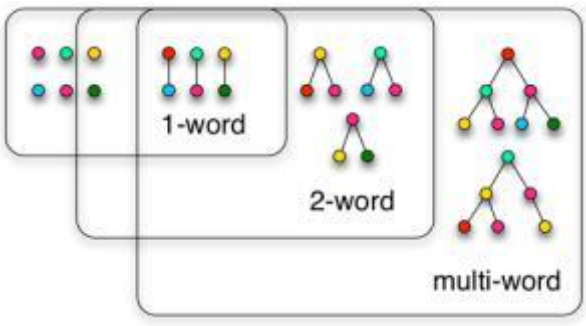
"…a person's mother tongue or the language acquired first."
The latter, is defined as
"…a language that plays a major role in a particular

Stages of Language Acquisition

There are four main stages of normal language acquisition:
The babbling stage, the Holophrastic or one-word stage, the two-word stage and the Telegraphic stage. These stages can be broken down even more into these smaller stages: pre-production, early production, speech emergent, beginning fluency intermediate fluency and advanced fluency.

Babbling

Within a few weeks of being born the baby begins to recognize it's mothers' voice. There are two sub-stages within this period. The first occurs between birth – 8 months. Most of this stage involves the baby relating to its surroundings and only during 5/6 – 8 month period does the baby begin using it's vocals. As has been previously discussed babies learn by imitation and the babbling stage is just that. During these months the baby hears sounds around them and tries to reproduce them, albeit with limited success. The babies attempts at creating and experimenting with sounds is what we call babbling. When the baby has been babbling for a few months it begins to relate the words or sounds it is making to objects or things. This is the second sub-stage. From 8 months to 12 months the baby gains more and more control over not only it's vocal communication but physical communication as well, for example body language and gesturing. Eventually when the baby uses both verbal and non-verbal means to communicate, only then
does it move on to the next stage of language acquisition.



Holophrastic / One-word stage

The second stage of language acquisition is the holophrastic or one word stage. This stage is characterized by one word sentences. In this stage nouns make up around 50% of the infants vocabulary while verbs and modifiers make up around 30% and questions and negatives make up the rest. This one-word stage contains single word utterances such as "play" for "I want to play now". Infants use these sentence primarily to obtain things they want or need, but sometimes they aren't that obvious. For example a baby may cry or say "mama" when it purely wants attention. The infant is ready to advance to the next stage when it can speak in successive one word sentences.

Two-Word Stage

The two word stage (as you may have guessed) is made of up primarily two word sentences. These sentences contain 1 word for the predicate and 1 word for the subject. For example "Doggie walk" for the sentence "The dog is being walked." During this stage we see the appearance of single modifiers e.g. "That dog", two word questions e.g. "Mummy eat?" and the addition of the suffix –ing onto words to describe something that is currently happening e.g. "Baby Sleeping."

Telegraphic Stage

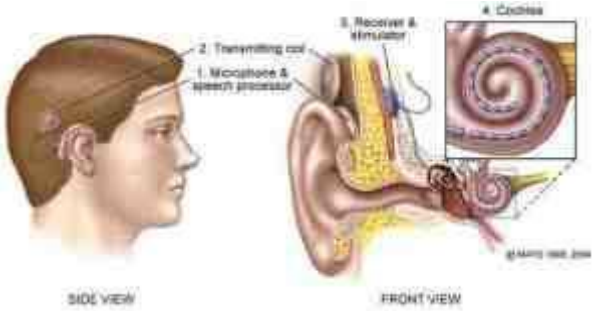
The final stage of language acquisition is the telegraphic stage. This stage is named as it is because it is similar to what is seen in a telegram; containing just enough information for the sentence to make sense. This stage contains many three and four word sentences. Sometime during this stage the child begins to see the links between words and objects and therefore overgeneralization comes in. Some examples of sentences in the telegraphic stage are "Mummy eat carrot", "What her name?" and "He is playing ball." During this stage a child's vocabulary expands from 50 words to up to 13,000 words. At the end of this stage the child starts to incorporate plurals, joining words and attempts to get a grip on tenses. As a child's grasp on language grows it may seem to us as though they just learn each part in a random order, but this is not the case. There is a definite order of speech sounds. Children first start speaking vowels, starting with the rounded mouthed sounds like "oo" and "aa". After the vowels come the consonants, p, b, m, t, d, n, k and g. The consonants are first because they are easier to pronounce then some of the others, for example 's' and 'z' require specific tongue place which children cannot do at that age.

As all human beings do, children will improvise something they cannot yet do. For example when children come across a sound they cannot produce they replace it with a sound they can e.g. 'Thoap" for "Soap" and "Wun" for "Run." These are just a few example of resourceful children are, even if in our eyes it is just cute.

Disabilities that can slow Language Acquisition

For many children the only barrier to limitless language is their willingness. But for a few there is more than just that to overcome. Deafness in children is a major inhibitor in their path to acquiring language. But luckily, thanks to modern day scientists, inventors and teachers deaf children can now learn to speak. The major breakthrough in allowing the deaf to speak was the Cochlear implant. The cochlear implant is a device that stimulates the auditory nerves inside the ear with an electric field. The implant amplifies incoming sounds so that the stimulated ear can pick these up, 'translate' the vibrations into recognizable sounds and then sends them to the brain.

After the scientists and inventors have done their job it's the teachers turn. It may sound easy but teaching someone who has never heard a sound before to speak is a monumentous task. Most of the time teachers will teach the deaf to communicate via sign language and then proceed to



speaking after that. This breakthrough in technology and education has allowed deaf people to speak and provided over 150,000 worldwide with great happiness.

Language Acquisition Theories

There are 3 theories of why children learn to use language so effectively by the age of five. These are:

Universal grammar / Innate approach

This approach to language acquisition basically states that the children are all programmed to speak. The leading philosopher on this theory is Noam Chomsky. Noam Chomsky is an American linguist who has been at the forefront of the ever expanding Universal Grammar Theory. Chomsky believes that all children have a language acquisition device (LAD) somewhere in their brains, and when they are have the correct circumstances it will activate. The LAD is believed to contain the principles of grammar and speech shared by all languages. Chomsky also states that the LAD can only be present or active for the first 4-5 years of a child's life. The Universal grammar theory has a large amount of supportive evidence. One of the initial reasons Chomsky proposed his theory is that a child has an amazing ability to learn any language at an extremely fast rate before a certain age. After this age children no longer can learn language with such ease and tend to find it a task. Noam Chomsky believes that this ability children have is actually the LAD coming into play. People who are proficient at a specific language know what words and expressions are accepted in today's society. Yet a question arises when we ask ourselves 'How do people innately know this?' Linguistic experts –like Noam Chomsky- have explored this and found no other explanation than the Universal Grammar theory. Chomsky's proposition of universal grammar lies on the basis that the human brain contains a set of rules which, when met, will trigger a device which allows rapid language acquisition in children.

Behavioral Approach

This approach stresses that children learn to speak by imitation. For example when children hear sounds around them they immediately try to imitate them and, with positive reinforcement and aid via parents, children obtain a mastery of a language. There have been many cases which support this approach. One such case is the story about a girl who was raised by wild dogs. This woman, now 23, looks and dresses normal thanks to the impact of modern society but yet she cannot talk anywhere near as well as others. Believers in the behavioral theory are certain that this is because she could not imitate human language from the dogs. When a child first learns to speak they simply imitate words around them and attempt to associate them with things. For example a family's dog is named "Rex" so whenever the child in that family sees another dog he/she assumes that dog is also called "Rex". This is called over-generalizing which is covered in another page (see "Children's views of the world via semantics). A child adopts the words and phrases that are being used around them and uses them for their self. If adequate positive reinforcement is given and corrections are made on the caretakers part, that child learn that phrase or word and then adjusts it to use to their advantage. For example a baby is exposed to the phrase "Lily wants milk?"- When a parent is giving the child a glass of milk. The baby then implements something that they want, for example, juice and the phrase becomes "Lily wants juice."(This will only happen if the baby has reached the telegraphic stage, See Stages of Language Acquisition). The Behavioral approach suggests that babies learn purely from a mixture of imitation, association, reinforcement and correction and when each of these is provided a child will acquire the language.

The Interactionist approach

While the previous two theory's are different views on how a child acquires language, the Interactionist approach incorporates the most viable ideas of each and in turn lies somewhere in the middle of those two. As the word Interactionist implies, this theory involves the interaction of ideas from each of the other two theories to produce the most believable and well explained theory. These include linguistic environments, level of brain development and maturation. A Leading physiologist, Jean Piaget says that language isn't either innate or learned by is obtained when a child is at the correct level of social and linguistic development. So for a child to learn the word 'Poodle' they must first understand the meaning of the word 'Dog' and then associate it to that type of dog. As time progresses more people are moving towards the Interactionist approach in which Universal grammar and the Behavioral approach both have their place in explain certain aspects of language acquisition.

Second Language Acquisition

As different languages are become more and more prominent in our ever growing world the need to be able to communicate in these languages is also rising. The best way to learn a second language is for a baby to be exposed to it whilst growing up. When a baby is being raised in an environment where, for example English is the spoken language that baby will learn English as its primary language. It is also known that if a baby is brought up being exposed to two different languages that the child will learn both just as well as it would've learnt a single language. But unfortunately young children do not really decide what language to learn and it is only in adulthood that they look back and wish they were taught a foreign language as a child. But learning a second language when you're an adult is much harder then when you're young. It has been said that the younger you start the better. There have been many proposed explanations for this. Some of these include Chomsky's Universal Grammar theory, specifically the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), the fact that teenagers and adults are more self-conscious and are less willing to experiment with a new language and even the types of methods used to teach youngsters a second language e.g. games and activities. Even though the methods used to teach different age groups a second language are very different the steps that the language is learnt in is relatively similar to language acquisition in a child. There is no best way to teach a second language but if people have the willingness to learn and are taught correctly anybody can learn a foreign language. source: https://enlsac2max.wordpress.com/stages-of-language-acquisition/

Stephen Krashen and the acquisition of languages

Perhaps no-one has looked at the question more closely than the linguist Stephen Krashen, who has introduced some of the most influential concepts to the study of second-language acquisition.

In his *input hypothesis*, he makes the distinction between *learning*: the conscious, traditional grammar-based process in the classroom; and *acquisition*: essentially how we, as children, pick up our first language. He says that our mistake is trying to teach languages in the same way we teach science, history and mathematics. Instead, he believes that learners should acquire second languages in the same way children learn their first.

Krashen sums up the idea in a famous documentary on the subject called ***A child's guide to learning languages,*** produced by BBC Horizon in 1983. In the documentary, he says that acquisition is 'where the action is'. In other words, in every successful example of language-learning – an infant mastering a first language, an adult learner of English scoring a band 9 on the IELTS test – the reason for their success is that they have 'acquired' rather than 'learned' the language.

So, how do children and proficient adult learners perform the seemingly magical trick of mastering a language, and what can teachers learn from this? Krashen offers the following ideas:

1. We acquire languages when we can understand messages

Learners need to be exposed to what Krashen calls 'comprehensible input' – that is, exposure to interesting and understandable listening and reading material. In Krashen's view, we acquire languages when we understand messages. He stipulates that the emphasis should be on meaningful interactions and not on form. When parents speak to their children, for example, the emphasis is on meaning rather than the correct use of grammar. If the child says, 'Daddy fish water!', the parent is likely to respond, 'Yes, you're right, there's a fish in the river', rather than by correcting the child's grammar. The theory here is that exposure to sufficient quantities of comprehensible input always results in acquisition.

2. Getting the right level is crucial

Krashen makes the important point that comprehensible input needs to be at the right level for the learner, namely just higher than the learner's own. He calls this theoretical level 'i + 1'. A good practical example of this in action are graded readers. These are books that are specially created for learners of foreign languages at various levels, such as A2, B1, C2, etc, on the common European framework

3. The silent period

Children don't start speaking their mother tongue straight away. Until they utter their first words, they are acquiring language, even if they are not using it. The miraculous first words and sentences that quickly follow are the result of this acquisition. Adult learners, both inside and outside the classroom, need this silent period, too. Teachers shouldn't be afraid when their students don't participate in debates in class – perhaps they are simply acquiring the language. Moreover, putting pressure on the learner to speak before they are ready will result in anxiety.

4. Anxiety is the student's arch enemy

This brings me to one of Krashen's most famous insights, namely the ***affective filter***. This means that the rate of acquisition decreases if we are under stress, or if we experience anxiety. Luckily, most children have a virtually stress-free language-learning environment at home with their mothers and fathers. But for learners of a second language, the classroom can be a cause of anxiety, greatly affecting the way they receive and process comprehensible input.

By contrast, a house party with lots of international guests is a great place to practise languages, as everybody is relaxed and having a good time. Such an environment offers the language learner plenty of comprehensible input, but (hopefully) none of the anxiety. The lesson here for teachers is that they can create a similar environment by turning the classroom into a sort of house party where people feel comfortable and relaxed.

5. The monitor hypothesis

According to Krashen, conscious language-learning cannot be the source of spontaneous speech, **it can only monitor output**, i.e., production in speech or writing. In other words, when learners freely formulate an utterance in the target language, they can only draw upon their repertoire of acquired language to check whether it is grammatically correct. This reduces errors as the learner can apply consciously learned rules to an utterance before producing it, or after production through self-correction. As many people place a high value on accuracy, especially in formal situations, the existence of the 'monitor' could be seen as a reason for retaining a grammar focus in a given lesson.

One way to apply this in the classroom would be to have learners notice grammatical features in listening and reading texts using a guided discovery approach. For example, if the learners were given a listening task to do on the biography of a famous person who is still alive, the teacher could hand out the transcript and get the students to underline all of the examples of the present perfect tense. This might be followed by a short discussion, led by the teacher, as to why the tense is being used in this particular situation, followed by some concept-checking questions to ensure students understand how to use the target language. However, Krashen is

clear that the main focus of classroom activity should be on giving learners as much comprehensible input as possible. Teachers should base their lessons on meaningful interactions with plenty of graded listening and reading input.

6. The natural order hypothesis

The grammar and vocabulary of a language are acquired in the same general order, irrespective of who the learner is, which language they are acquiring and the order of the grammar syllabus. You can teach students reported speech, such as in the sentence, 'she mentioned that she had been at the shop that morning', but learners won't acquire it unless they are ready to. Certain elements of grammar are 'late-acquired', such as the third person '-s', and others are 'early-acquired'. This explains why my little niece continues to say things like 'Daddy go to work every day', even when she has already mastered more complex grammatical structures such as a conditional sentence like, 'I would do it if I had time'. Evidence for this 'natural sequence' of language acquisition can be found in the morpheme studies by Dulay and Burt. This casts doubt on the teaching of many points of grammar too early, that is, before students are ready to acquire them, such as the future perfect tense at intermediate level.

The advantages children have over adult learners

Before looking at the classroom implications of Krashen's insights, we should remind ourselves of some of the advantages that children learning their first language have over adults learning a second language. One of the principle advantages is that children are exposed to copious amounts of comprehensible input at just the right level, and there is no pressure on them to speak until they are ready to do so. Children can also take their time and wait until they feel confident before attempting to speak. Moreover, they often have lower expectations of themselves and this helps to ensure that their anxiety levels are low, which, in turn, increases their rate of acquisition.

One of the most surprising things is that when children acquire a language, the language acquisition itself is not their objective. Rather, it is a by-product of the achievement of some other purpose, such as making friends in a school playground. Moreover, they pick up the elements of their first language in its natural order. They are not 'force-fed' grammar too early before their language acquisition devices are ready for it. Instead, they acquire the language first and then consider its structure after acquisition has already taken place. Finally, they learn the elements of a language in the natural order.

The practical implications of Krashen's ideas for the classroom

From Krashen's theories, and having looked at the advantages that children have over adults when it comes to learning languages, we can draw certain conclusions about what conditions make for a successful learning environment. First, class time should be taken up with as much comprehensible input as possible. Second, classes should be stress-free environments where students are encouraged to relax and acquire the language by having fun with it.

One particularly important implication of Krashen's findings is that students, particularly at lower levels, should have lower demands made on them to speak, and materials and teacher talking time should be modified for each student's level. Furthermore, grammar instruction should be done on a need-to-know basis, and only with older learners. Last, but perhaps most important, lessons should not be based on grammar points, but rather on the exchange of meaning.

Acculturation Model is a theory proposed by John Schumann to describe the acquisition process of a second language (L2) by members of ethnic minorities that typically include immigrants, migrant workers, or the children of such groups.

This very acquisition process takes place in natural contexts of majority language setting. The main suggestion of the theory is that the acquisition of a second language is directly

linked to the acculturation process, and learners' success is determined by the extent to which they can orient themselves to the target language culture.

The acculturation model came into light with Schumann's study of six non-English learners The process of acculturation was defined by Brown as "the process of being adapted to a new culture" which involves a new orientation of thinking and feeling on the part of an L2 learner. According to Brown, as culture is an integral part of a human being, the process of acculturation takes a deeper turn when the issue of language is brought on the scene. Schumann based his Acculturation Model on two sets of factors: social and psychological. Schumann asserts that the degree to which the second-language learners acculturate themselves towards the culture of target-language (TL) group generally depends on social and psychological factors; and these two sorts of factors will determine respectively the level of *social distance* and *psychological distance* an L2 learner is having in course of his learning the target-language.

Social distance, as Ellis notes, concerns the extent to which individual learners can identify themselves with members of TL group and, thereby, can achieve contact with them. Psychological distance is the extent to which individual learners are at ease with their target-language learning task.

Communication accommodation theory (**CAT**) is a theory of communication developed by Howard Giles. It argues that, "When people interact they adjust their speech, their vocal patterns and their gestures, to accommodate to others." It explores the various reasons why individuals emphasize or minimize the social differences between themselves and their interlocutors through verbal and nonverbal communication. This theory is concerned with the links between language, context, and identity. It focuses on both the intergroup and interpersonal factors that lead to accommodation, as well as the ways that power, macro and micro-context concerns affect communication behaviors.

This theory describes two main accommodation processes. "Convergence" refers to strategies through which individuals adapt to each other's communicative behaviors to reduce these social differences. Meanwhile, "divergence" refers to the instances in which individuals accentuate the speech and non-verbal differences between themselves and their interlocutors. Sometimes when individuals try to engage in convergence they can also end up over-accommodating, and despite their good intentions their convergence can be seen as condescending.

Speech accommodation theory

The communication accommodation theory was developed by Howard Giles, professor of Communication at the University of California, Santa Barbara. It evolved from the speech accommodation theory (SAT), but can be traced back to Giles' accent mobility model of 1973.[1] The speech accommodation theory was developed to demonstrate the value of social psychological concepts to understanding the dynamics of speech. It sought to explain "...the motivations underlying certain shifts in people's speech styles during social encounters and some of the social consequences arising from them." Particularly, it focused on the cognitive and affective processes underlying individuals' convergence and divergence through speech. The communication accommodation theory has broadened this theory to include not only speech but also the "non-verbal and discursive dimensions of social interaction." Thus, it now encompasses other aspects of communication. In addition CAT has moved in a more interdisciplinary direction than the previous speech accommodation theory. It now also covers a wider range of phenomena.

Discourse Theory

Discourse theory is gaining prominence and it has great implications in an educational context, especially in the field of second language acquisition. When a sentence gives a

limited meaning, the relevant text around it should be considered for a deeper meaning.

Relevance of Discourse Theory in Language Acquisition

Linguists traditionally define a sentence as the basic unit of expression. A sentence is defined as a group of words that makes sense. Most utterances and texts are in fact more than a sentence. The surrounding texts of the sentence gives it a deeper meaning. Subsequently, it gives validity and depth of meaning to a discourse. To understand the meaning of a sentence in its full meaning, the reader is helped by the surrounding text to get clarity of thought and meaning. Discourse theory states that all the relevant text around a message should be considered to understand it clearly and universally, instead of viewing it as a stand alone sentence. Discourse theory has received prominence in social sciences. Discourse theorists challenge rationalist and individualist approaches in many fields.

Discourse Theory On Second Language Acquisition

The discourse theory has great implications in an educational context. It shows how written, visual and oral texts give more depth to the texts when the context is understood. Interaction and categorization between teachers and students can be understood more deeply in the relevant circumstance in the social context. Instructional dialogue should be closely linked to the particular scenario in a classroom. The thoughts and connections between teachers and students during the process of teaching and language acquisition develop the rigorous nature of pedagogy. In this scenario, ideas and concepts will be mutually understood. It calls for a variety of teaching methods and teaching conditions specific to that classroom.

For instance, if the topic of history is to be taught, it would not be fitting to make a few statements from the text about the topic. The topic should be discussed and the teacher should find out the existing knowledge of the learner, along with the learner's interest, opinion and feedback on the topic. This process calls for a large variety of speech motivation and vocabulary building in language acquisition. It should call for a global approach to a given topic with clear distinctions of what is important and what is not. As a result, learners will distinguish between what is the core of the lesson and what are just details. Classroom instruction can consist of creating titles, keywords, abstracts, themes and reports. Forming groups, pairs or clusters to plan, deliver and implement events and programs can be part of a schemata.

In order to understand topics of geography, law and social sciences, students would need background knowledge of the world they live in. Environmental discussions will call for an understanding of the plants, animals and the living world around them. Visual and auditory information would enhance the understanding of what is important and what is not. Practicing in simulated or realistic situations gives students a better understanding of the information learned. Ideas and their linguistic expressions exist within a society, with its web of customs, practices and institutions and discourse theory enhances the understanding of learners in language acquisition. Discourse theory is increasingly becoming popular in the study of national ideologies, foreign policies and in a whole range of academic and non-academic perspectives.

Input hypothesis

The **input hypothesis**, also known as the **monitor model**, is a group of five hypotheses of second-language acquisition developed by the linguist Stephen Krashen in the 1970s and 1980s. Krashen originally formulated the input hypothesis as just one of the five hypotheses, but over time the term has come to refer to the five hypotheses as a group. The hypotheses are the input hypothesis, the acquisition–learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis. The input hypothesis was first published in 1977.

The hypotheses put primary importance on the comprehensible input (CI) that language learners are exposed to. Understanding spoken and written language input is seen as the only

mechanism that results in the increase of underlying linguistic competence, and language output is not seen as having any effect on learners' ability. Furthermore, Krashen claimed that linguistic competence is only advanced when language is subconsciously *acquired*, and that conscious *learning* cannot be used as a source of spontaneous language production. Finally, learning is seen to be heavily dependent on the mood of the learner, with learning being impaired if the learner is under stress or does not want to learn the language.

Krashen's hypotheses have been influential in language education, particularly in the United States, but have received criticism from some academics. Two of the main criticisms state that the hypotheses are untestable, and that they assume a degree of separation between *acquisition* and *learning* that has not been proven to exist. The five hypotheses that Krashen proposed are as follows:

- The *input hypothesis*. This states that learners progress in their knowledge of the language when they comprehend language input that is slightly more advanced than their current level. Krashen called this level of input "i+1", where "i" is the learner's interlanguage and "+1" is the next stage of language acquisition.
- The *acquisition–learning hypothesis* claims that there is a strict separation between *acquisition* and *learning*; Krashen saw acquisition as a purely subconscious process and learning as a conscious process, and claimed that improvement in language ability was only dependent upon acquisition and never on learning.
- The *monitor hypothesis* states that consciously learned language can only be used to *monitor* language output; it can never be the source of spontaneous speech.
- The *natural order hypothesis* states that language is acquired in a particular order, and that this order does not change between learners, and is not affected by explicit instruction.
- The *affective filter hypothesis*. This states that learners' ability to acquire language is constrained if they are experiencing negative emotions such as fear or embarrassment. At such times the affective filter is said to be "up".

If *i* represents previously acquired linguistic competence and extra-linguistic knowledge, the hypothesis claims that we move from *i* to *i+1* by understanding input that contains *i+1*. Extra-linguistic knowledge includes our knowledge of the world and of the situation, that is, the context. The *+1* represents new knowledge or language structures that we should be ready to acquire.

The comprehensible input hypothesis can be restated in terms of the natural order hypothesis. For example, if we acquire the rules of language in a linear order (1, 2, 3...), then *i*represents the last rule or language form learned, and *i+1* is the next structure that should be learned.[4] It must be stressed, however, that just any input is not sufficient; the input received must be comprehensible.[3] According to Krashen, there are three corollaries to his theory.

Corollaries of the input hypothesis

1. *Talking (output) is not practicing.* Krashen stresses yet again that speaking in the target language does not result in language acquisition. Although speaking can indirectly assist in language acquisition, the ability to speak is not the *cause* of language learning or acquisition. Instead, comprehensible output is the *effect* of language acquisition.[3][5]
2. *When enough comprehensible input is provided*, i+1 *is present*. If language models and teachers provide enough comprehensible input, then the structures that acquirers are ready to learn will be present in that input. According to Krashen, this is a better method of developing grammatical accuracy than direct grammar teaching.[3]

3. *The teaching order is not based on the natural order*. Instead, students will acquire the language in a natural order by receiving comprehensible input.[3]

Acquisition-learning hypothesis

In modern linguistics, there are many theories as to how humans are able to develop language ability. According to Stephen Krashen's **acquisition-learning hypothesis**, there are two independent ways in which we develop our linguistic skills: acquisition and learning.[3] This theory is at the core of modern language acquisition theory, and is perhaps the most fundamental of Krashen's theories.

Acquisition of language is a natural, intuitive, and subconscious process of which individuals need not be aware. One is unaware of the process as it is happening and, when the new knowledge is acquired, the acquirer generally does not realize that he or she possesses any new knowledge. According to Krashen, both adults and children can subconsciously acquire language, and either written or oral language can be acquired.[3] This process is similar to the process that children undergo when learning their native language. Acquisition requires *meaningful* interaction in the target language, during which the acquirer is focused on meaning rather than form.[6]

Learning a language, on the other hand, is a conscious process, much like what one experiences in school. New knowledge or language forms are represented consciously in the learner's mind, frequently in the form of language "rules" and "grammar", and the process often involves error correction.[3] Language learning involves formal instruction and, according to Krashen, is less effective than acquisition.[6] Learning in this sense is conception or conceptualisation: instead of learning a language itself, students learn an abstract, conceptual *model* of a language, a "theory" about a language (a grammar).

Monitor hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis asserts that a learner's learned system acts as a monitor to what they are producing. In other words, while only the acquired system is able to produce spontaneous speech, the learned system is used to check what is being spoken.

Before the learner produces an utterance, he or she internally scans it for errors, and uses the learned system to make corrections. Self-correction occurs when the learner uses the Monitor to correct a sentence after it is uttered. According to the hypothesis, such self-monitoring and self-correction are the only functions of conscious language learning.

The Monitor model then predicts faster initial progress by adults than children, as adults use this ‘monitor’ when producing L2 (target language) utterances before having acquired the ability for natural performance, and adult learners will input more into conversations earlier than children.

Three conditions for use of the monitor

According to Krashen, for the Monitor to be successfully used, three conditions must be met:

1. *The acquirer/learner must know the rule*
   This is a very difficult condition to meet because it means that the speaker must have had explicit instruction on the language form that he or she is trying to produce.
2. *The acquirer must be focused on correctness*
   He or she must be thinking about form, and it is difficult to focus on meaning and form at the same time.
3. *The acquirer/learner must have time to use the monitor*
   Using the monitor requires the speaker to slow down and focus on form.

Difficulties using the monitor

There are many difficulties with the use of the monitor, making the monitor rather weak as a language tool.

1. *Knowing the rule*: this is a difficult condition to meet, because even the best students do not learn every rule that is taught, cannot remember every rule they have learned, and can't always correctly apply the rules they do remember. Furthermore, not every rule of a language is always included in a text or taught by the teacher.
2. *Having time to use the monitor*: there is a price that is paid for the use of the monitor- the speaker is then focused on form rather than meaning, resulting in the production and exchange of less information, thus slowing the flow of conversation. Some speakers over-monitor to the point that the conversation is painfully slow and sometimes difficult to listen to.
3. *The rules of language make up only a small portion of our language competence*: Acquisition does not provide 100% language competence. There is often a small portion of grammar, punctuation, and spelling that even the most proficient native speakers may not acquire. While it is important to learn these aspects of language, since writing is the only form that requires 100% competence, these aspects of language make up only a small portion of our language competence.

Due to these difficulties, Krashen recommends using the monitor at times when it does not interfere with communication, such as while writing.

Natural order hypothesis

The natural order hypothesis states that all learners acquire a language in roughly the same order. This order is not dependent on the ease with which a particular language feature can be taught; some features, such as third-person "-s" ("he runs") are easy to teach in a classroom setting, but are not typically acquired until the later stages of language acquisition. This hypothesis was based on the morpheme studies by Dulay and Burt, which found that certain morphemes were predictably learned before others during the course of second-language acquisition.

Affective filter hypothesis

The **affective filter** is an impediment to learning or acquisition caused by negative emotional ("affective") responses to one's environment. It is a hypothesis of second-language acquisition theory, and a field of interest in educational psychology.

According to the affective filter hypothesis, certain emotions, such as anxiety, self-doubt, and mere boredom interfere with the process of acquiring a second language. They function as a filter between the speaker and the listener that reduces the amount of language input the listener is able to understand. These negative emotions prevent efficient processing of the language input.[3] The hypothesis further states that the blockage can be reduced by sparking interest, providing low-anxiety environments, and bolstering the learner's self-esteem.

According to Krashen (1982), there are two prime issues that prevent the lowering of the affective filter. The first is not allowing for a silent period (expecting the student to speak before they have received an adequate amount of comprehensible input according to their individual needs). The second is correcting their errors too early-on in the process.

Reception and influence

According to Wolfgang Butzkamm & John A. W. Caldwell (2009), comprehensible input, defined by Krashen as understanding messages, is indeed the necessary condition for acquisition, but it is not sufficient. Learners will crack the speech code only if they receive input that is comprehended at two levels. They must not only understand what is meant but also how things are quite literally expressed, i.e. how the different meaning components are put together to produce the message. This is the principle of dual comprehension. In many cases both types of understanding can be conflated into one process, in others not. The German phrase “Wie spät ist es?” is perfectly understood as “What time is it?” However learners need to know more: *How late is it? That’s what the Germans say literally, which

gives us the anatomy of the phrase, and the logic behind it. Only now is understanding complete, and we come into full possession of the phrase which can become a recipe for many more sentences, such as “Wie alt ist es?” / “How old is it?” etc. According to Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009:64) “dually comprehended language input is the fuel for our language learning capacities.” It is both necessary and sufficient.

The theory underlies Krashen and Terrell's comprehension-based language learning methodology known as the natural approach (1983). The Focal Skills approach, first developed in 1988, is also based on the theory. English as a Second Language Podcast was also inspired by Krashen's ideas on providing comprehensible input to language acquirers. The most popular competitors are the Skill-building Hypothesis and the comprehensible output hypothesis. The input hypothesis is related to Instructional scaffolding. Applications in language teaching

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Beginning level

- Class time is filled with comprehensible oral input
- Teachers must modify their speech so that it is comprehensible
- Demands for speaking (output) are low; students are not forced to speak until ready
- Grammar instruction is only included for students high school age and older

Intermediate level

- Sheltered subject-matter teaching that uses modified academic texts to provide comprehensible input. (Note that sheltered subject-matter teaching is not for beginners or native speakers of the target language.)
- In sheltered instruction classes, the focus is on the meaning, and not the form.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org

Lamendella's Neurofunctional Theory

Lamendella's Neurofunctional theory of second language acquisition (1979) states that the acquisition of second and foreign languages is mainly the product of neural (brain-based) processes. In turn, the neurofunctional activity is also based on sub-processes which take charge of specific pieces of the language itself.

According to the theory, language functioning is dependant on brain activity, particularly on the left hemisphere of the brain. The areas associated with language learning are identified as the Wernicke's area and the Broca area.The areas of Wernicke and Broca process the information that leads to comprehension and final production of language.

The theory also touches on research that shows that the right side of the brain is in charge of processing language holistically, that is, in a more generalized and universal way. This side of the brain recognizes patterns in speech and intonation that are reinforced by constant exposure to the second language.

Lamendella argues that formulaic speech and fossilization, among other aspects of second language acquisition are processes that primarily occur in the brain as a natural function. Hence, the Neurofunctional theory of linguistics is founded on the biological and neural aspects of acquisition, and not in a behavioral or merely developmentally cognitive approach. The theory further offers that language acquisition is done in a primary and secondary manner. The secondary manner refers to SLA. Depending on which neurological process takes place, different aspect of of the L2 will be acquired accordingly. There is a list of sub-processes, or hierarchies, which work together to achieve the final product. One of these hierarchies is the ***communication*** hierarchy, which consists on all the sub-processes taking place during interpersonal communication to include monitor language usage. The other hierarchy is the ***cognitive hierarchy ,*** or the combination of sub-processes that analyze and synthesize information. The latter is highly influential in acquiring language because it is through comprehension that it can actually be applied.

In contrast to other theories, Lamendella's Neurofunctional theory is one of the few that reaffirms SLA as a mainly brain-based process that, with enough exposure and opportunity for application, can be achieved by just about anybody.

The Variable Competence Model

The variable competence model of second language acquisition proposes that the ability to use language varies systematically within functional domains and linguistic contexts, and that such variability is inherent in interlanguage as well. ROD ELLIS(1984) proposed The Variable Competence Model According to him, many aspects of language and vocabulary are learned implicitly through exposure: word structure and form, collocations, word class, and certain extent meaning. This suggests that a great deal of exposure to a target language is necessary for learning.

The way a language is learned is a reflection of how it is used.

- Product: continuum of discourse types ranging from entirely planned to entirely unplanned –
- Process: Distinction between linguistic knowledge (rules) and the ability to use this knowledge (appropriate use of language as well as correct use)

Language develops as user applies the knowledge of language to contextual situations –

Variable competence: user possesses a heterogeneous rule system

Variable application of procedures: user applies a variety or procedures to confirm language knowledge

Language acquisition is the result of making sense of language events

There is a single knowledge store containing the variable rules for language use (automatic & analyzed). The learner has a capacity for language use with both primary (unplanned & unanalyzed) and secondary (planned & analyzed) discourse processes.

L2 performance is variable based on use of the processes mentioned above

Language development occurs: acquisition of new L2 rules through participation discourse events activation of L2 rules so they become part of unplanned discourse

Unplanned discourse & Planned discourse: L2 Knowledge analytic automatic primary processes secondary processes

Motivation

Motivation affects level of language acquisition

Integrative Motivation: occurs when person learning a second language does so in order to be identified with or become part of target group.

Instrumental Motivation: occurs when person learning second language see it as a tool for personal or professional progress.

Those with Integrative Motivation tend to acquire second language better. **THE UNIVERSAL HYPOTHESIS** Introduction

A number of possible determinants of second language acquisition (SLA) have now been considered the learner's first language (L1), input/interaction, and learner strategies. One possibility that has not so far been considered is that SLA is governed by properties of the two languages involved the target and the native languages. Wode (1980b), for instance, proposes that language acquisition manifests 'developmental principles , which he defines in terms of the linguistic properties of the target language. He argues that the order of development is determined by the nature of the linguistic rules that have to be acquired. This proposal is very different from that discussed in the preceding chapter. There the process of development was explained as the result of inductive strategies operating on the input data. Although these strategies were defined with specific reference to SLA, they must nevertheless be seen as general cognitive procedures which will be involved in other kinds of development, quite apart from l

anguage. However, proposes that there is an independent linguistic faculty that is responsible for language acquisition. Thedevelopmental principles he discusses derive from lingua-cognitive abilities, rather than general inductive abilities. Wode (1984) makes this quite explicit:. . . the kind of cognition required to be able to learn languages must be different from the general cognition or the capacities underlying problem solving or the kind of operations crucial in Piagetian types of developmental psychology. The claim that language acquisition is dependent on a separate linguistic faculty which all human beings possess. The purpose of this discussion was to provide the background to the study of interlanguage universals. These universals, however, were explained by postulating a 'cognitive organizer' (Dulay and Burt 1977) rather than by considering the formal linguistic devices of the target language. That is, the regularities of SLA were seen as the product of inductive procedures rather than of an independent language faculty.

The study of linguistic universals has contributed to explanations of SLA in two ways. First, it has been proposed that the linguistic properties of the target language vary in how difficult they are to acquire, according to whether they are universal or language-specific. That is, those properties of the target language which are common to many or all languages are easy to learn in comparison to those properties that are found in few languages, or only in the target language. This approach involves a consideration of just the target language. The second approach involves a comparison of the target and native languages. It has been suggested that the study of linguistic universals can help to overcome one of the major problems of the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis, namely that not all the linguistic differences between the native and target languages result in learning difficulty (see Chapter 2). Linguistic universals can be used to help predict which differences lead to difficulty and which ones do not. Thus, the study of linguistic universals has helped to revamp transfer theory. This chapter will draw heavily on Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar and also typological universals. These are explained in the section that follows. The next section considers the role of universals in L1 acquisition, as it is here where the pioneering research was done. Then the role of linguistic universals in SLA is examined, with regard to their effects on grammar formation and on L1 transfer. Finally some of the problems of the Universal Hypothesis are discussed.

Linguistic universals

Two rather different approaches to describing linguistic universals have been adopted. Chomsky(e.g. 1965, 1980, 1981) seeks to identify linguistic universals by the in-depth study of a single language. He argues that only in this way is it possible to discover the highly abstract principles of grammar that constrain the form of any specific grammar. He refers to these principles as Universal Grammar. In contrast, Greenberg (1966) and those following in his path (e.g. Comrie 1981) have answered about identifying universals by examining a wide range of languages from different language families in order to discover what features they have in common. The universals established in this way are referred to as typological universals.

Universal Grammar

Cook (1985) in a lucid explication of the Chomsky an view of Universal Grammar writes: The language properties inherent in the human mind make up 'Universal Grammar', which consists not of particular rules or of a particular language, but a set of general principles that apply to all languages. Two questions arise from this definition: (1) Why are these properties 'inherent in the human mind ?',and (2) What exactly are the 'general principles that apply to all languages?

Chomsky`s explanation for the innateness of Universal Grammar is that without a set of innate principles it would not be possible for a child to learn the grammar

of his mother tongue. This is because the data available from the input are insufficient to enable the child to discover certain rules. As those working in the Chomskyan tradition put by the input data. Felix (1984) gives three ways in which these data are inadequate. First, some structures are so rare and marginal that it would not be possible for the child to obtain sufficient exposure to them. Second, the only way in which wrong hypotheses could be discarded would be if the input were to provide negative feedback, which, in fact, it does not do. Third, the rules of any grammar are highly abstract and so do not reflect the surface properties of the language. As an example of the kind of argument that is used to justify the existence of a genetically programmed Universal Grammar, consider the following two sentences:1 We gave the book to the girl.2 We explained the answer to the girl.

These sentences share the same surface structure, but whereas (1) contains an indirect object and can be rewritten as (3):3 We gave the girl the book.(2) contains a prepositional phrase and cannot be rewritten as (4):4* We explained the girl the answer.

How does the child find nut that ‘give’ takes an indirect object and ‘explain‘ a prepositional phrase? How does the child discover that (4) is ungrammatical? One possible answer to these questions is that the child obtains negative evidence; that is, an adult tells him that (4) is ungrammatical and that this is because ‘explain' can take only a prepositional phrase. But research has shown that parents do not provide this kind of information, nor do they correct children’s errors very often. lt seems logical to assume, therefore, that there must be some innate principle which prevents the child producing sentences like (4), The child must be constrained from wrongly categorizing verbs like ‘give’ and ‘explain’ as taking an indirec t object or preposition phrase. Universal Grammar is composed of different kinds of universals. Chomsky (1965) identifies two types: substantive and formal. Substantive universals consist of fixed features such as the distinctive phonetic features of which sounds are made, or syntactic categories such as noun, verb, subject, and object. Formal universals are more abstract. They are statements about what grammatical rules are possible. For example, it is possible to formulate principles constraining the way in which word order transformations are used to construct questions. Much of Chomskyan linguistics is taken up with the search for formal universals

Universal Grammar constrains the form which the grammars of individual languages can take. However, it does not do this directly by providing the child with ready-made rules which he can incorporate into his grammar. Rather it sets parameters which must then be fixed according to the particular input data that the child obtains. In other words, formal and substantive universals constitute constraints on the kind of grammar that the child can develop. They delimit the number of options which the child needs to explore. The child, however, still has to discover which of the various options pertain in the target language. This is where the environment comes in: the child needs input data to fix the parameters by selecting the appropriate option. Those rules that the child discovers with the aid of Universal Grammar form the core grammar of his language. However, not all rules are core rules. Every language also contains elements that are not constrained by Universal Grammar. These comprise the periphery, Cook (1985) gives some examples, Peripheral rules are those that are derived from the history of the language (eg. structures like ‘the more the merrier’, which comes from Old English), that have been borrowed from other languages (e.g. the pronunciation of ‘police ’ comes from (French), or that have arisen accidentally. Thus, the child's knowledge of his mother tongue is made up of rules determined by Universal Grammar (the core) and those that have to be learnt without the help of Universal Grammar (the periphery).

Related to the concepts of core and periphery is Chomsky’s theory of markedness. Cote rules are unmarked; that is, they accord with the general tendencies of language. Periphery rules are marked; that is, they are exceptional in some way. However, marked and unmarked rules

are at the opposite extremes of a continuum, and rules can be more or less marked. The relationship between core/periphery and unmarked/marked is shown diagrammatically in Figure 8.1. Rutherford (1982) provides a number of examples of unmarked and marked rules for English. The criterion of markedness that he applies is whether one of a pair of rules or features is more grammatically restricted that the other. Thus the adjectives 'big', 'long', and 'fast' are unmarked in relation to 'small', 'short', and 'slow', because they occur in both declarative and interrogative sentences, while the latter occur only in declarative sentences (i.e. they cannot be used in interrogative sentences like 'How slow can he run?`). Where syntax is concerned, another example is in declarative vs. interrogative sentences. The former are considered to be unmarked, because they can be used to form both statements and questions: He can run fast.marked, the whole construct of markedness must be considered of doubtful value for empiricalresearch.5.The final problem is a methodological one. Chomsky is concerned with describing and explaining competence, SLA researchers are, more often than not, concerned with carrying out empirical research, which must necessarily involve them in examining performance (see Chapter 1). The question that arises ts what type of performance provides the best window for looking at competence. Most of the research reported in the previous section was based on grammaticality judgments. However, as was made clear in Chapter 4, error patterns evident i n such tasks are very different from those evident in tasks involving more spontaneous speech. Results are likely to be messy, as a result of different performance styles. This is not a problem, if competence itself is seen as heterogeneous, as suggested by Tarone (1983), but it poses a serious methodological problem if, as Chomsky proposes, competence is viewed as homogeneous.7 It is not clear what sort of performance best reflects homogeneous competence.These various criticisms do not invalidate the Universal Hypothesis. They suggest that at the moment its explanatory power may be limited, and they point to methodological difficulties in examining it empirically.

Summary and conclusion

The Universal Hypothesis states that there are linguistic universals which determine the course of SLA as follows:

1.Linguistic universals impose constraints on the form that interlanguages can take,

2.Learners find it easier to acquire patterns that conform to linguistic universals than those that do not. The linguistic markedness of L2 rules explains the developmental route,

3.Where the L1 manifests linguistic universals, it is likely to assist interlanguage development through transfer.

sources:

https://www.scribd.com/doc/144067224/The-Universal-Hypothesis-and-Second-Language-Acquisition

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second-language_acquisition

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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – III – Principles and Practices of ELT –SHSA5101

Unit III

(Acknowledgement: Compiled from online sources- url for which is provided for every article)

I. Topic Areas:

Curriculum Planning, Syllabus Design and Approaches to Teaching Language

- Basic Concepts - Curriculum vs. Syllabus , Principles of curriculum planning,
- Syllabus types
- ELT syllabuses – A Review , Guidelines for Syllabus evaluation
- Approaches and Methods in ELT
- The Grammar Translation Method, The Direct Method, The Oral Approach,
- Audiolinguilism, The Structural Approach, The Communicative Approach, The
- Humanistic Approaches, Total Physical Response , The Silent way, Communicative
- Language Teaching
- The Task Based Language Teaching
- Recent Trends in Second language Teaching
- The Teacher and the Learner , Teachers' attitudes to teaching
- The Learner -Back ground, needs motivation for learning English Language
- Blooms Taxonomy of Learning Domains

II. Curriculum and Syllabus

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	SYLLABUS	CURRICULUM
Meaning	Syllabus is the document that contains all the portion of the concepts covered in a subject.	Curriculum is the overall content, taught
Origin	Syllabus is a Greek term.	Curriculum is a Latin term.
Set for	A subject	A course
Nature	Descriptive	Prescriptive
Scope	Narrow	Wide

Set out by	Exam board	Government or the administration of school, college or institute.
Term	For a fixed term, normally a year.	Till the course lasts.
Uniformity	Varies from teacher to teacher.	Same for all teachers.

Definition of Syllabus

The syllabus is defined as the documents that consist of topics or portion covered in a particular subject. It is determined by the examination board and created by the professors. The professors are responsible for the quality of the course. It is made available to the students by the teachers, either in hard copy or electronic form to bring their attention towards the subject and take their study seriously.

A syllabus is considered as a guide to the in charge as well as to the students. It helps the students to know about the subject in detail, why it is a part of their course of study, what are the expectations from students, consequences of failure, etc. It contains general rules, policies, instructions, topics covered, assignments, projects, test dates, and so on.

Definition of Curriculum

The curriculum is defined as the guideline of the chapters and academic content covered by an educational system while undergoing a particular course or program.

In a theoretical sense, curriculum refers to what is offered by the school or college. However, practically it has a wider scope which covers the knowledge, attitude, behaviour, manner, performance and skills that are imparted or inculcated in a student. It contains the teaching methods, lessons, assignments, physical and mental exercises, activities, projects, study material, tutorials, presentations, assessments, test series, learning objectives, and so on.

The curriculum is well planned, guided and designed by the government or the educational institution. It is aimed at both physical and mental development of a student. It is the overall learning experience that a student goes through during the particular course of study

Key Differences Between Syllabus and Curriculum

The basic differences between syllabus and curriculum are explained in the point given below:

1. The syllabus is described as the summary of the topics covered or units to be taught in the particular subject. Curriculum refers to the overall content, taught in an educational system or a course.

2. Syllabus varies from teacher to teacher while the curriculum is same for all teachers.
3. The term syllabus is a Greek origin, whereas the term curriculum is a Latin origin.
4. The curriculum has a wider scope than the syllabus.
5. The syllabus is provided to the students by the teachers so that they can take an interest in the subject. On the other hand, normally the curriculum is not made available to the students unless specifically asked for.
6. Syllabus is descriptive in nature, but the curriculum is prescriptive.
7. Syllabus is set for a particular subject. Unlike curriculum, which covers a particular course of study or a program.
8. Syllabus is prepared by teachers. Conversely, a curriculum is decided by the government or the school or college administration.
9. The duration of a syllabus is for a year only, but curriculum lasts till the completion of the course.

Conclusion

Curriculum and Syllabus are the terms of education, imparted to the students by teachers. It means the knowledge, skills or qualifications that are passed on from one generation to another. A subject syllabus is a unit of the curriculum. The two terms differ in a sense that curriculum is a combination of some factors which helps in the planning of an educational program, whereas a syllabus covers the portion of what topics should be taught in a particular subject

Sourcehttp://keydifferences.com/difference-between-syllabus-and-curriculum.html#ixzz4NF6cOMCe

III. Curriculum Development Principles

Curriculum development is a comprehensive term, inside cover: planning, implementation and evaluation. Curriculum planning is the first step to build the curriculum when the curriculum workers to make decisions and take action to produce a plan that will be used by teachers and learners. Implementation of curriculum or curriculum implementation is also commonly referred to curriculum planning to transfer into operational action. Curriculum evaluation is the final step of curriculum development to determine how big the learning outcomes, level of achievement for programs that have been planned, and the results of the curriculum itself.In curriculum development, not only involve people directly associated with education alone, but it has involved many people, such as politicians, businessmen, parents of students, teachers, and elements - other elements of society who feel concerned with education.

The principles will be used in curriculum development activities are essentially the rules or laws that would animate a curriculum. In curriculum development, can use the principles that have developed in daily life or even creating their own new principles. Therefore, in implementing a curriculum in educational institutions is very possible the use of different principles with curriculum that is used in other educational institutions, so it will find a lot of the principles that were used in a curriculum development. In this case, Nana Syaodih Sukmadinata (1997) explores the principles of curriculum development is divided into two

groups: (1) principles - General principles: relevance, flexibility, continuity, practical, and effectiveness, (2) specific principles: principles with respect to educational objectives, content selection principles with respect to education, the principle regarding the selection of teaching and learning process, the principle regarding the selection of media and learning tools, and principles regarding the selection of assessment activities. While Hernawan Asep Herry et al (2002) put forward five principles in curriculum development, namely:

1. The principle of relevance; internally that have relevance in the curriculum between the components of the curriculum (goals, materials, strategies, organization and evaluation). While externally that the components tersebutmemiliki relevance to the demands of science and technology (epistomologis relevance), demand and potential learners (psychological relevance) and the demands and needs of the community development (relevance sosilogis).

2. The principle of flexibility; in curriculum development effort that produced by nature flexible, supple and flexible in its implementation, allow for adjustments based on the situation and condition of the place and time is always growing, and the ability andb background bekang learners.

3. The principle of continuity, namely the existence of kesinambungandalam curriculum, both vertically or horizontally. Learning experiences provided the curriculum should pay attention to sustainability, both inside the classroom level, between levels of education, as well as between levels of education with the type of work.

4. The principle of efficiency, ie see to it that can utilize in curriculum development time, cost, and other sources that there is an optimal, carefully and precisely so that the results adequately.

5. The principle of effectiveness; ie curriculum development activities seek to achieve goals without the wasteful activities, both in quality and quantity.

Related with Education Unit Level Curriculum development, there are some principles that must be met, namely:

1. Centered on the potential, progress, needs and interests of learners and their environment. The curriculum was developed based on the principle that learners have a central position to develop the competencies to be a human being faithful and obedient to God's compassion, morality, healthy, knowledgeable, capable, creative, independent, and become citizens of a democratic and accountable. To support the achievement of these objectives the development of competencies of students adjusted to the potential, progress, needs and interests of learners and the demands of the environment.

2. The curriculum was developed by taking into account the diversity of learner characteristics, local conditions, and levels and types of education, without distinction of religion, ethnicity, culture and customs, as well as socioeconomic status and gender. The curriculum shall include the substance of the charge component of the curriculum, local content, and self-development in an integrated way, and have been prepared in the relevance and sustainability antarsubstansi meaningful and appropriate.

3. Responsive to developments in science, technology and art. The curriculum was

4. developed on the basis of the awareness that science, technology and art of growing dynamically, and therefore the spirit and content of the curriculum encourages students to follow and make the proper development of science, technology and art.

5. Relevant to their lives. Curriculum development conducted by involving stakeholders (stakeholders) to ensure the relevance of education to the needs of life, including social life, business world and the world of work. Therefore, the development of personal skills, thinking skills, social skills, academic skills, and vocational skills is a necessity.

6. Comprehensive and sustainable. The substance of the curriculum covers all dimensions of competency, the field of scholarly study and subjects who planned and presented on an ongoing basis antarsemua levelsof education.

7. Lifelong learning. The curriculum is directed to the development process, acculturation and the empowerment of learners that lasts a lifetime. The curriculum reflects the linkages between the elements of formal education, non-formal and informal, to conditions and demands of the evolving environment and the direction of the whole human development.

8. Balance between national interests and regional interests. The curriculum was developed by taking into account national interests and regional interests to build a society, nation and state. National interests and regional interests must complement and empower in line with the motto Unity in Diversity within the framework of the Unitary Republic of Indonesia. Compliance with the principles above is what distinguishes between applying one with Education Unit Level Curriculum previous curriculum, which was apparently often neglected. Because of these principles may be regarded as a spirit or soul curriculum In face it PT a change in the curriculum, many people focused only on meeting the curriculum as a body structure of the curriculum. Yet far more important is the change kutural (behavior) to meet the specific principles contained in curriculum development. *Sumber akhmadsudrajat.wordpress.com

http://ariefsugianto503.blogspot.in/2010/09/curriculum-development-principles.html

IV. Types of Syllabuses in Language Teaching – ESL/EFL Context

Etymologically syllabus means a ‘label or ‘table of contents’. The American Heritage Dictionary defines syllabus as outline of a course of study. Syllabus represents the expression of educational ideas in practice. Syllabus can also be seen as a “summary of the contents to which the learners will be exposed”.

In the context of non-native countries, where English is taught as a second language, the selection of English syllabus requires a deep understanding, a comprehensive knowledge of various syllabus designs and a mature insight into the issue that which type of syllabus is indispensable to design, so that syllabus could fulfill learners’ requirements with all the paraphernalia of pedagogical objectives. Syllabus presents the complete program of study to teach academic contents in a specific time period. To gain the maximum benefits of syllabus in a limited time, it is imperative that syllabus must be designed taking into account the learners ‘needs and objectives, essential to require.

There are two major types of syllabuses, product-oriented syllabus and process-oriented syllabus. A good and valid syllabus is that covers more or less all aspects of both these types, therefore, proper and appropriate implementation of syllabus in language teaching is undeniable. Without proper implementation of syllabus, on the one hand, desired objectives will be hard to obtain and on the other hand students will suffer from the lack of appropriate syllabus which could fulfill their immediate pedagogical requirements and sharpen their abilities in different areas of language. In this perspective, the characteristics of each syllabus are discussed in a nutshell. All these syllabuses will prove beneficial if carefully implemented.

Product–Oriented Syllabus: product-oriented syllabus focuses on what the learners will know as a result at the end of instruction session. The grammatical, situational and notional-functional are the examples of product-oriented syllabus.

***Grammatical*:** This type of syllabus is designed when the purpose is to teach the systematic development of grammatical structures. Learners are exposed to these structures step by step and it is expected that they will enhance their grammar collection by memorizing different grammar rules. The internalization of these rules is considered a prerequisite to grasp the technicalities of a language.

***Situational*:** The primary purpose of this syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in real-life situations. Here, the emphasis is on the learner, who it is expected will actively participate in different situations where L2 is being spoken. Examples of situations include, seeing the doctor, making an appointment, meeting people at the party, buying clothes and so on. One advantage of the situational approach is that motivation will be heightened, since it is learn-centered rather than subject-centered.

***Notional–Functional*:** A notional-functional syllabus is a practical way of organizing language-learning syllabus, rather than an approach or method to teach and instructions are organized in terms of notions and functions. In this design, a 'notion' is a particular context in which people communicate. A 'function' is a specific purpose in a given context. For example, the notion of shopping requires numerous language functions, such as asking about prices or features of a product and bargaining. An important point regarding notional-functional syllabus is that the needs of the students have to be analyzed and explored by different types of interaction and communication; a learner may be involved in, hence, needs analysis is central to design such syllabuses.

Process-Oriented Syllabus: Process-oriented syllabus focuses on the pedagogical processes leading to the language outcomes. The task-based, skill-based and content-based types of syllabus are included in it.

Task-Based Syllabus: This syllabus is designed when the purpose is to complete some complex and meaningful tasks. Even though, the primary purpose is to complete tasks, however, language competence is developed through the very process of performing of the task. The language learnt comes out of the linguistic demands of the activity. Learners perform various tasks together in a co-operative environment. Task-based syllabus promotes and encourages collaborative learning. Since language learning is considered subordinate to

task performance, therefore, language teaching also occurs as the need arises during the performance of the particular task.

***Skill-Based Syllabus*:** The purpose of this syllabus is to teach some specific skills that are considered necessary or useful in using a language. Skill-based syllabus focuses on skills and gradual development of skills gives learners the confidence. This syllabus must be designed and implemented keeping in mind the learners' cognitive levels. Skill-based syllabus group linguistic competencies(pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to the spoken language for the main idea, writing-well formed paragraphs, specific purpose writing and so on.

Content-Based Syllabus: This syllabus is designed when the purpose is to teach some content or information in a language that students are also learning. The students are simultaneously the language students and the students of whatever content is being taught. In this type of syllabus, the language is enhanced through different contents and/or in the context of various types of information. Although the subject matter is of primary and vital importance, language learning occurs concurrently with content learning.

Conclusion

Each syllabus type is of great significance, keeping in mind the learners' needs, contexts and situations, so a subtle and pragmatic approach is required in the implementation of language teaching syllabus. In short, a language teaching syllabus involves a combination of two practical questions regarding subject matter (what to teach) and linguistic matter (how to teach). These two crucial questions can be answered satisfactorily by applying a viable syllabus design.

Source: http://eltweekly.com/2011/02/82-research-article-types-of-syllabuses-in-language-teaching-eslefl-context-by-shabnum-iftikhar/

V. 4. THE PLACE OF THE SYLLABUS

A language teaching syllabus involves the integration of subject matter (what to talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about it); that is, the actual matter that makes up teaching. Choices of syllabi can range from the more or less purely linguistic, where the content of instruction is the grammatical and lexical forms of the language, to the purely semantic or informational, where the content of instruction is some skill or information and only incidentally the form of the language. To design a syllabus is to decide what gets taught and in what order. For this reason, the theory of language explicitly or implicitly underlying the language teaching method will play a major role in determining what syllabus is adopted. Theory of learning also plays an important part in determining the kind of syllabus used. For example, a syllabus based on the theory of learning espoused by cognitive code teaching would emphasize language forms and whatever explicit descriptive knowledge about those forms was presently available. A syllabus based on an acquisition theory of learning, however, would emphasize unanalyzed, though possibly carefully selected experiences of the new language in an appropriate variety of discourse types.

The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible.There has been much confusion over the years as to what different types of content are possible in language teaching syllabi and as to whether the differences are in syllabus or method. Several distinct types of language teaching syllabi exist, and these different types may be implemented in various teaching situations.

SIX TYPES OF SYLLABI

Although six different types of language teaching syllabi are treated here as though each occurred "purely," in practice, these types rarely occur independently of each other. Almost all actual language teaching syllabi are combinations of two or more of the types defined here. For a given course, one type of syllabus usually dominates, while other types of content may be combined with it. Furthermore, the six types of syllabi are not entirely distinct from each other. For example, the distinction between skill-based and task-based syllabi may be minimal. In such cases, the distinguishing factor is often the way in which the instructional content is used in the actual teaching procedure. The characteristics, differences, strengths, and weaknesses of individual syllabi are defined as follows

1. "A structural (formal) syllabus." The content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples include nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and so on.

2. "A notional/functional syllabus." The content of the language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express. Examples of functions include: informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting; examples of notions include size, age, color, comparison, time, and so on.

3. "A situational syllabus." The content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some activity in a specific setting. The language occurring in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a plausible segment of discourse. The primary purpose of a situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language thatoccurs in the situations. Examples of situations include: seeing the dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the book store, meeting a new student, and so on.

4. "A skill-based syllabus." The content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. While situational syllabi group functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence

in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.

5. "A task-based syllabus." The content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second language ability. Language learning is subordinate to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. Tasks integrate language (and other) skills in specific settings of language use. Task-based teaching differs from situation-based teaching in that while situational teaching has the goal of teaching the specific language content that occurs in the situation (a predefined product), task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work (a process). The students draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples include: applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

6. "A content-based-syllabus." The primary purpose of instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is primary, and language learning occurs incidentally to the content learning. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice-versa. Content-based language teaching is concerned with information, while task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes. An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language the students need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustment to make the science more comprehensible.

In general, the six types of syllabi or instructional content are presented beginning with the one based most on structure, and ending with the one based most on language use. Language is a relationship between form and meaning, and most instruction emphasizes one or the other side of this relationship.

CHOOSING AND INTEGRATING SYLLABI

Although the six types of syllabus content are defined here in isolated contexts, it is rare for one type of syllabus or content to be used exclusively in actual teaching settings. Syllabi or content types are usually combined in more or less integrated ways, with one type as the organizing basis around which the others are arranged and related. In discussing syllabus choice and design, it should be kept in mind that the issue is not which type to choose but which types, and how to relate them to each other.

PRACTICAL GUIDELINES TO SYLLABUS CHOICE AND DESIGN

It is clear that no single type of content is appropriate for all teaching settings, and the needs and conditions of each setting are so idiosyncratic that specific recommendations for

combination are not possible. In addition, the process of designing and implementing an actual syllabus warrants a separate volume. Several books are available that address the process of syllabus design and implementation both practically and theoretically (see For Further Reading section; the full-length monograph includes a 13-item annotated bibliography of basic works on syllabus design and a 67-item reference list). These books can help language course designers make decisions for their own programs. However, a set of guidelines for the process is provided below.

Ten steps in preparing a practical language teaching syllabus:

1. Determine, to the extent possible, what outcomes are desired for the students in the instructional program. That is, as exactly and realistically as possible, define what the students should be able to do as a result of the instruction.
2. Rank the syllabus types presented here as to their likelihood of leading to the outcomes desired. Several rankings may be necessary if outcomes are complex.
3. Evaluate available resources in expertise (for teaching, needs analysis, materials choice and production, etc.), in materials, and in training for teachers.
4. Rank the syllabi relative to available resources. That is, determine what syllabus types would be the easiest to implement given available resources.
5. Compare the lists made under Nos. 2 and 4. Making as few adjustments to the earlier list as possible, produce a new ranking based on the resources' constraints.
6. Repeat the process, taking into account the constraints contributed by teacher and student factors described earlier.
7. Determine a final ranking, taking into account all the information produced by the earlier steps.
8. Designate one or two syllabus types as dominant and one or two as secondary.
9. Review the question of combination or integration of syllabus types and determine how combinations will be achieved and in what proportion.
10. Translate decisions into actual teaching units.

In making practical decisions about syllabus design, one must take into consideration all the possible factors that might affect the teachability of a particular syllabus. By starting with an examination of each syllabus type, tailoring the choice and integration of the different types according to local needs, one may find a principled and practical solution to the problem of appropriateness and effectiveness in syllabus design.

FOR FURTHER READING

Alexander, L.G. (1976). Where do we go from here: A reconsideration of some basic assumptions affecting course design. "English Language Teaching," 30(2), 89-103.

Dubin, F., & Olshtain, E. (1986). "Course design: Developing programs and materials for language learning." Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gattegno, C. (1972). "Teaching foreign languages in schools: The silent way (2nd ed.)." New York: Educational Solutions. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 157 403)

Krahnke, K.J. (1981). "Incorporating communicative instruction into academic preparation ESL curricula." (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 210 915)

Mohan, B. (1979). Relating language teaching and content teaching. "TESOL Quarterly," 13(2), 171-82.

Steiner, F. (1975). "Performing with objectives." Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

ABOUT THE MONOGRAPH

"Approaches to Syllabus Design for Foreign Language Teaching," by Karl Krahnke, includes chapters on the place of the syllabus in language teaching, six types of language teaching syllabi, and choosing and integrating syllabi, as well as individual chapters devoted to each of the six types of syllabi defined here.

Source http://www.ericdigests.org/pre-928/design.htm

VI. METHODS AND APPROACHES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN BRIEF

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Abbreviations:

T: Teacher

Sts: Students

L1: First Language, Mother Tongue

L2: Second Language, The language the students aim to learn

THE GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD (GTM)

1. **Learning Theory:** Deductive learning is essential. First, the teacher gives rules explicitly then the rules are reinforced with examples and exercises.
2. **Language Theory:** Language is for understanding the literature. Translation is the way to learn the language. Oral communication is not primarily important. Written language is superior to spoken language. Students also learn the structure of their own native language. Those who study a foreign language become more cultured and intellectual.
3. **Culture:** Culture is limited to literature and fine arts.
4. **Teachers' Role:** Teacher is the strict authority. Classes are teacher centred.
5. **Students' Role:** Students are the passive receivers of the new information. The teacher starts the activities and directs them. Students are supposed to memorise the rules and the new vocabulary with their meanings in their native language.
6. **Interactions:** Very often "*Teacher –Student*" interactions occur. Rarely "*Student – Student*" interactions also occur.

7. **Vocabulary** Teaching: The most common vocabulary teaching technique is "the memorisation of long lists of vocabulary with their equivalents in the students' native language.Other techniques are

   Teaching "cognates" (i.e., "cinema –sinema", "theatre – tiyatro" ..., etc).

   -Using synonyms and antonyms

8. **Grammar Teaching:** The teaching of grammar is deductive. The teacher introduces the rules explicitly and wants the students to apply these rules to new examples in exercises. Students are supposed to memorise the rules. In order to explain the rules, the teacher uses comparison and contract between the students' native language grammar and target language grammar.b Translation is a common way to clarify the meanings of the new grammar patterns in the target language.

9. **Materials:** Texts from the target language literature are used. The teacher may either write the text or use an authentic literary text.

10. **Syllabus:** Structural syllabus (i.e., list of structures to be taught during the course) is used. The order of structures starts from the easiest

11. **Role of L1:** L1 (i.e., students' native language) has an important function in teaching vocabulary and grammar. Since oral communication in the target language is not important, classroom instructions are given in L1.

12. **Evaluation:** Translation is an important technique to test students' progress in the target language. In addition, "fill-in-the-blank" type test items are also used. Synonyms, antonyms, and cognates can be asked to test vocabulary in formal tests. Reading passages and comprehension questions about the passages can also take place in tests as the reading section.

13. **Goals and Objectives:** Among the goals are to teach translation, to read and understand literary texts in the target language, to make students aware of their native language structure and vocabulary, and to improve students' mental capacities with grammar exercises.

14. **Error Correction:** The teacher corrects the errors strictly. Errors are not tolerated. Accuracy is emphasised strictly. Accuracy means grammatical correctness.

15. **Student's Feelings:** There is no information about how GTM deals with students' feelings. V Therefore, we cannot consider this method as a humanistic approach.

16. **Techniques:**

    a. Translation of a Literary Passage: Students translate a passage from the target language into their native language. The passage provides the focus for several classes: vocabulary and grammatical structures in the passage are studied in the following lessons.

    b. Reading Comprehension Questions: Students answer questions in the target language based on their understanding of the reading passage. First, they answer information questions whose answers they can find in the passage. Second, they answer inference

questions based on their comprehension of the passage although the answer cannot be found in the passage directly in the passage. Third, they answer questions that require students to relate the passage to their own experience.

c. Antonyms / Synonyms: Students are given one set of words and are asked to find antonyms in the reading passage. A similar exercise could be done by asking students to find synonyms for a particular set of words.

d. Cognates: Students are taught to recognise cognates by learning the spelling or sound patterns that correspond between the languages. Students should be aware of "true cognates" (i.e., theatre-tiyatro) and "false cognates" (i.e., apartment-apartman).

e. Deductive Application of Rule: Grammar rules are presented with examples. Exceptions to each rule are also noted. Once students understand a rule, they are asked to apply it to some different examples.

f. Fill-in-the blanks: Students are given a series of sentences with words missing. They fill in the blanks with new vocabulary items or necessary items of grammatical features.

g. Memorisation: Students are given lists of target language vocabulary words and their native language equivalents and are asked to memorise them. Students are also required to memorise grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations.

h. Use words in Sentences: In order to show that students understand the meaning and use of a new vocabulary item, they make up sentences in which they use the new words.

i. Composition: The teacher gives the students a topic to write about in the target language. The topic is based upon some aspect of the reading passage of the lesson. Sometimes, instead of creating a composition, students are asked to prepare a précis (pronounced as /preɪsɪ/).

j. Skills: The primary skills to be improved are "reading" and "writing". Little attention is given to speaking and listening, and almost no attention to pronunciation.

THE DIRECT METHOD (DM)

DM was born as a reaction to GTM because GTM cannot prepare learners for real life language situations in which oral communication is the media.

1. **Learning Theory:** Inductive learning is essential. There is a direct relation between form and meaning. L2 learning is similar to L1 acquisition. There is a direct exposure to the target language. Exposure of Long chunks in the target language. Learning occurs naturally.

2. **Language Theory:** Language is for oral use. Each language is unique. There is a direct relation between form and meaning. No other language should interfere when learning a language.

3. **Culture:** Not only art or literature, but also other aspects of culture (namely, life style, customs, traditions, institutions, food, daily habits, history, geography, etc.) Should be taken into consideration. Daily speech is important.
4. **Teacher's Role:** The teacher usually directs the interactions but he/she is not as dominant as in GTM. Sometimes acts like a partner of the students.
5. **Students' Role:** Sts are active participants. Sometimes pair works take place. Even the teacher takes roles in activities.
6. **Interactions:** T- st and St - st interactions often occur.
7. **Vocabulary Teaching:** Pictures, realia, examples, sample sentences are used to teach vocabulary. Use of L1 is not allowed. There is a direct relation between form and meaning.
8. **Grammar Teaching:** Grammar is taught inductively. Examples and drills are given and students are expected to discover and acquire the rules. Drills like chain drill, yes question, no question, or question are used to help students induce the rule.
9. **Materials:** Reading passages (for topics), Dialogues (for situation), plays (for situations) are used.
10. **Syllabus:** Situational and topical syllabuses are used.
11. **Role of L1:** L1 is not permitted.
12. **Evaluation:** Sts' ability to use the language is tested. Not about language, the language itself.
13. **Goals and Objectives:** Teaching Sts how to communicate in the target language. Teaching of thinking in the target language.
14. **Error Correction:** Sts' self correction.
15. **Sts' Feelings:** There is no information dealing with this issue.
16. **Techniques:** Reading aloud, Question and answer exercise, self correction, conversation practice, fill-in-the-blank exercise, dictation, drawing (for listening comprehension), and paragraph writing.
17. **Skills:** Speaking, listening, reading and writing are important skills. Especially speaking and listening are emphasised. Vocabulary is over grammar.

THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD (ALM)

Learning Theory: Learning is based on the principles of Behaviourism. (Mim-mem approach).

Habit Formation is essential.

Habit Formatio

Reinforcement (Behaviour is likely to occur again)

Stimulus----organism 

No reinforcement or negative reinforcement (Behaviour is not likely to occur again)

Rules are induced from examples. Explicit grammar rules are not given. Learning is inductive.

Habit formation is actualised by means of repetitions and other mechanical drills.

1. **Language Theory:** Language is based on descriptive linguistics. Every language is seen as its own unique system. The system is comprised of several different levels. (i.e. phonological, morphological, and syntactic). There is a natural order of skills. 1. Listening, 2. Speaking, 3. Reading, 4. Writing. Everyday speech and oral skills are important. Perfect pronunciation is required. Language is primarily for Oral *Communication.*
2. **Culture:** Culture consists of everyday behaviour, and lifestyle of the target language community. Culture is presented in dialogues.
3. **Teacher's Role:** T is like an orchestra leader. S/he directs and controls the language behaviour of the students. T is a good model of the target language, especially for pronunciation and other oral skills. The differences between Sts' L1 and L2 should be known by the teacher.
4. **Students' Role:** Sts are imitators of the teacher as perfect model of the target language or the native speakers in the audio recordings.
5. **Interactions:** T-St, ST- ST. Interactions are mostly initiated by the teacher.
6. Vocabulary Teaching: Meaning is taught directly. L1 is prohibited because it may cause bad habit formations. Vocabulary is introduced through dialogues.
7. Grammar Teaching: Explicit rules are not provided. Students induce the rules through examples and drills. Students acquire grammar by being exposed to patterns through mechanical drills.
8. **Materials:** Dialogues
9. **Syllabus:** Grammar points and sentence patterns in structural syllabus.
10. **Role of L1:** L1 is not allowed in the classroom. It may cause interference and bad habit formation in L2.

11. **Evaluation:** Discrete-point tests are used. Each item (question) should focus on only one point of the language at a time. E.g. distinguishing between words in a minimal pair. Appropriate verb form in a sentence.

12. **Goals and Objectives:** to enable students to speak and write in the target language. To make students able to use the target language automatically without stopping to think. To form new habits in the target language.

13. **Error Correction:** Errors are corrected by the teacher since errors may cause bad habit formation.

14. Sts' Feelings: There are no principles related to Sts' feelings.

15. **Techniques:**

1. Dialogue Memorisation

2. Minimal pairs: (for teaching pronunciation)

3. Complete the dialogue

4. Grammar Games

5. Mechanical Drills

    a. Repetition drill

    b. Chain Drill

    c. Single- slot Substitution Drill (T gives one cue to be substituted)

    d. Multiple-slot Substitution Drill (T gives more than one cue to be substituted)

16. **Skills:** Listening and speaking are emphasised. There is a natural order of skills.

    1. Listening 2. Speaking 3. Reading 4. Writing

    2.

THE SILENT WAY (SW) (Caleb Gattegno)

1. **Learning Theory:** Cognitive Psychology is the basis. Language learning is not habit formation. It is rule formation. Language learning has a sequence from the known to the unknown. Students induce the rules from examples and the languages they are exposed to, therefore learning is inductive

2. **Language Theory:** Languages of the world share a number of features (e.g. every language uses subject, object; every language has adjective, adverb, verb ...etc.) However each language is unique. Language is for self expression (to express thoughts, perceptions, ideas and feelings). "Cognitive Coding" helps learners learn the language. "Colour rods" and "Fidel Chart" are used for cognitive coding.

3. **Culture:** Culture is an inseparable part of language. Language reflects culture. Everyday life, art, literature. etc. should be learnt.

4. **Teachers' Role:** The teacher is a technician or an engineer who facilitates learning. Only the learner can do learning. The teacher is aware of what the students already know and he/she can decide the next step. The teacher is silent. Silence is a tool because *teacher's silence* gives the responsibility to the student. Besides *teacher's silence* helps students monitor themselves and improve their own inner criteria.

5. **Students' Role:** Students should make use of what they already know. They are responsible for their own learning. They actively take part in exploring the language. The teacher works with the students and the students work on the language. St-st interaction is important. Sts can learn from each other.

6. **Interactions:** The teacher is silent in "T-st" interactions. St-st interactions are also possible because students can learn from each other.

7. **Vocabulary Teaching:** Vocabulary is taught by means of visual aids and word-charts. Vocabulary is always recycled by means of word-charts. Vocabulary is restricted at the beginning.

8. **Grammar Teaching:** There is a focus on the structures of the language although explicit grammar rules are never given.

9. **Materials:** Sound Colour Charts (For teaching pronunciation; one colour represents one sound), Colour Rods (for cognitive coding of grammatical patterns), 8 Fidel Charts (used for sound spelling association.

10. **Syllabus:** There is no linear structural syllabus. The teacher starts with what students already know, and builds from one structure to the next. The syllabus develops according to the students' learning needs.

11. **Role of L1:** L1 can be used to give instructions when necessary. Meaning is made clear by focusing the student's perceptions, not by translation. During feedback sessions L1 be used at beginning levels. L1 can be exploited. For example, similar sounds in L1 and L2 can be used to make students aware of phonological similarities.

12. **Evaluation:** The teacher may never give a formal test. He/she assesses students' learning all the time. Continuous monitoring by the teacher is essential.

13. **Goals and Objectives:** Students should be able to use the target language for self expression (to express their thoughts, feelings, ideas). To help students improve their inner criteria for correctness. Students should rely on themselves to be able to use the target language.

14. **Error Correction:** Errors are natural and inevitable. The teacher uses students' errors to decide where further work is necessary. Self correction is necessary for the students to compare their own production with their developing inner criteria. If students cannot self-correct, the teacher supplies the correct language but only as a last resort. Peer correction is also very common, but it should be in a co-operative manner.

15. **Student's Feelings**: Students' negative feelings are treated by the teacher. During feedback sessions, students can express their feelings like their fears, what they think about classes, and learning a foreign language, their needs and wants. Students are

encouraged to co-operate with one another in order to create a relaxed and enjoyable classroom atmosphere.

16. **Techniques:**

- Teaching pronunciation with "sound colour charts"
- Cognitive coding with colour rods.
- Peer correction to improve co-operative manner.
- Self correction gestures
- Teacher's Silence
- Structured feedback: Students are invited to talk about the day's instruction (what they have learnt that day during classes). Students learn to take responsibility for their own learning by becoming aware of themselves, and by controlling and applying their own learning strategies.
- Fidel Charts: Used to teach sound spelling association.
- Word Charts: Used to teach and recycle vocabulary. The words are written in different colours so that students can learn basic pronunciation patterns.

17. **Skills:** Pronunciation is emphasised at the very beginning. It is important that students acquire the melody of the language. All four skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) are worked on from the beginning.

SUGGESTOPEDIA (Georgi Lazanov)

1. **Learning Theory:** People use 5-10% of their mental capacity. In order to make better use of our mental reserves, limitations need to be desuggested. Students should eliminate the feelings that they cannot be successful and thus, to help them overcome the barriers to learning. Psychological barriers should be removed.

There are six principle theoretical components through which desuggestion and suggestionnoperate and that set up access to reserves.

- Authority: People remember best when the new information comes from a reliable authoritative source.
- Infantilization: Authority is also used to suggest a teacher-student relation like that of "parent-child" relationship. In the child's role the learner takes part in role playing, games, songs and gymnastic exercises that help the older student regain the self confidence, spontaneity and receptivity of the child.
- Double-planedness: The learner learns not only from the instructions but also from the environment. Physical features of the classroom are important.

- Intonation: Varying intonation of the presented material helps to avoid boredom. T should present the material with different intonation patterns. Correct intonation patterns should be emphasised.
- Rhythm: Materials presented with varying rhythm and tones are more interesting.
- Concert pseudo-passiveness: Materials presented with varying rhythm, intonation, and tone should be accompanied by music. Music should have sixty beats in a minute. Baroque concertos work very well for this purpose.

2. **Language Theory:** Lazanov does not articulate a theory of language. However according to this method communication is a two-plane process. Language is the first of the two planes. In the second plane, there are factors, which influence the linguistic message (e.g. the way one dresses, non-verbal behaviours that affect the linguistic message).
3. **Culture:** The culture, which students learn, concerns the everyday life of people who speak the target language. The use of fine arts is also common.
4. **Teachers' Role:** Teacher is the authority. Learners learn better if they get the information from a reliable authority. Students must trust and respect that authority.
5. **Students' Role:** Students play a child's role (infantilization). They adopt a new identity (new name, job, family...etc.) As they feel more secure, they can be less inhibited.
6. **Interactions:** "St-st" and "T-st" interactions occur. Students often do "pair work" and "group work".
7. **Vocabulary Teaching:** Vocabulary is emphasised. Claims about the success of the method often focus on the large number of words that can be acquired. Comments and explanations about the meanings can be provided in student's L1.
8. **Grammar Teaching:** Grammar is taught explicitly but minimally. Explicit grammar rules are provided in L1.
9. **Materials:** Dialogues are used with their translations in L1 on the opposite side. Texts with literary value are used. The textbook posters are used for peripheral learning.
10. **Syllabus:** A course lasts 30 days and ten units of study. Each unit has a long dialogue consisting of 1200 words. There is grammar review and commentary section with a list of vocabulary. The dialogues are graded by lexis and grammar.
11. **Role of L1:** L1 is used to make the meaning of dialogues clear. The teacher can use L1 when necessary but he uses L1 less and less as the course proceeds.
12. **Evaluation:** Evaluation is conducted on students' "in-class-performances" and not through formal tests, which would threaten the relaxed atmosphere, which is considered essential for accelerated learning.

13. **Goals and Objectives:** Teachers hope to accelerate the process by which students learn to use a foreign language for everyday communication. For this, more of the students' mental power must be tapped. This can be achieved by removing psychological barriers.

14. **Error Correction:** At the beginning levels, errors are not corrected immediately because the emphasis is on communication. When errors of form occur, teachers uses the correct form later on during class, because immediate interference by the teacher may destroy the relaxed atmosphere in classes.

15. **Student's Feelings:** A great deal of attention is given to students' feelings. Students should feel relaxed and secure. Teacher's existence and classmates' existence should not threaten the individual. Individual's self-confidence is important. Choice of new identity makes students feel more comfortable and secure. The classroom conditions (temperature, lighting, armchairs) should supply students with the feeling of relaxation and comfort.

16. **Techniques:**

Classroom set up: dim lights, soft music, cushioned armchairs, and posters on the walls.

Positive Suggestion:

- Direct Suggestion: The teacher tells students they are going to be successful to create self-confidence.
- Indirect Suggestion: This is provided by music and comfortable physical conditions of the classroom.

Peripheral Learning: Posters, lists, charts, texts, paintings, and graphs are hung on the walls of the classroom. Students learn from these although their attentions are not directly on these materials.

Visualisation: Students are asked to close their eyes and concentrate on their breathing. Then the teacher describes a scene or an event in detail so that students think they are really there. When the scene is complete, the teacher asks students to slowly open their eyes and return to the present. This can be done just before students write a composition in order to activate their creativity.

Choose a New Identity: Students can be asked to write about their fictional new identity, new home town, family, etc.

First Concert: Music is played. The teacher begins a slow, dramatic reading, synchronised in intonation with the music. The music is classical. Teacher's voice is usually hushed, but rises and falls with the music.

Second Concert: Students put their scripts aside. Students close their eyes and listen as the teacher reads with musical accompaniment. This time the content that is read by the teacher is emphasised by the way the teacher reads the text. Music is secondarily important. At the end of the concert, the class ends for the day.

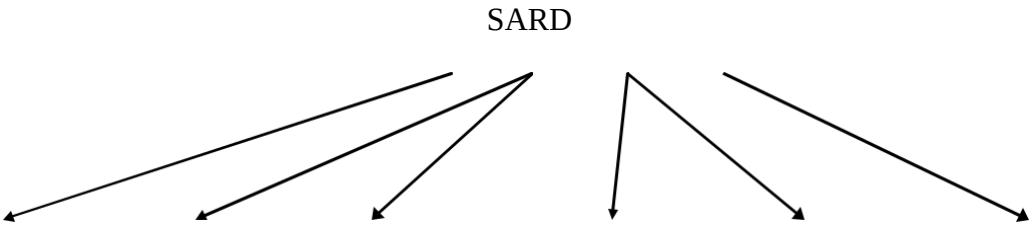
Primary Activation: Primary activation and secondary activation are the components of the active phase of the lesson. Students read the dialogue in the target language aloud as individuals or groups. They read it sadly, angrily, and amorously.

Secondary Activation: Students engage in various activities such as singing, dancing, dramatising, and playing games. Linguistic forms are not important. Communication is important. In order to make students focus on communication, activities are varied.

17 . Skills: Oral communication is emphasised. Speaking and listening are important. Writing and reading are also important. Students write imaginative compositions to improve their writing, and read dialogues or texts to practise reading are also important. Students write imaginative compositions to improve their writing, and read dialogues or texts to practise reading.

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING (CLL)

1. **Learning Theory:** CLL advocates a holistic approach to language learning. *"True human learning"* is both cognitive and affective. This is termed *"whole person learning"*. A group of ideas concerning the psychological requirements for successful and "*non-defensive" learning* are collected under the acronym (SARD).



Security: Students should feel secure to enter into a successful learning experience. Classroom atmosphere, students' relations with each other, teacher's attitude to students all affect students' feelings of security.

Attention: Attention is the learner's involvement in learning.

Aggression: is to show what has been learnt for "self-assertion" like a child who tries to show what he/she has learnt. The child tries to prove the things he/she has learnt.

Retention: If the "whole person" is involved in the learning process, what is retained is internalised and becomes a part of the learner's "new persona" in the foreign language. The material should neither be too old nor be too new or conversely too familiar. Retention will best take place somewhere in between novelty and familiarity.

Reflection: Students need quiet reflection time in order to learn. The teacher reads the text for three times and the students relax and listen for reflection. Students also listen to their own voice from the tape for reflection.

Discrimination: Students should discriminate the similarities and the differences among target language forms by listening to themselves and the teacher carefully. They should also listen to discriminate if what they say is similar or different from what the teacher says.

E.g.

Similarity:

Present Continuous: *She is studying French*

Past Continuous: *Tom was cooking.* (In Both tenses "-ing" is used)

Difference:

John visited his uncle (regular verb)

John bought a new car (irregular verb)

John bought a new car (irregular verb)

2. **Language Theory:** Language is for communication. Language is for developing creative thinking. Culture is integrated with language. The focus shifts from grammar and sentence formation to a "s*haring and belonging between persons*". Language is what you learn and share with others. Students should trust the learning process, the teacher and the others.

3. Culture: Knowing the target culture is important to be successful in communication. Culture is integrated with language. Social life style, art, literature, customs, habits should be learnt.

4. Teacher's Role: T's initial role is that of a counsellor. The teacher tries to remove the threatening factors in the classroom. Even the teacher stands behind the students to reduce because the teacher's superior knowledge and his existence are also threatening factors.

5. Students' Role: Initially the learner is dependent on the teacher. As s/he goes on studying the language he becomes more and more independent.

6. **Interactions:** st-st, T-st interactions occur in the classroom. In addition, group work, nd pairwork tasks are carried out by students. Usually the teacher physically removes himself/herself from the circle in order to increase **st-st** interactions.

7. **Vocabulary Teaching:** Literal native language equivalents are given to the target language in order to teach their meanings. This makes meaning clear.

8. **Grammar Teaching:** Large chunks are analysed by means of equivalents in L1. It can be explicit when necessary.

9. **Materials:** A textbook is not considered necessary. Materials may be developed by the teacher as the course develops. Materials depend on students' needs. Conversations are generated by the students depending on what they want to say in the target language.

10. **Syllabus:** CLL does not use a conversational 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. Syllabus is developed in terms of students' communication needs.

11. **Role of L1:** Students' security is initially enhanced by using their native language. Where possible, literal native language equivalents are given to the target language words that have been transcribed. This makes their meaning clear and allows students to combine the target language words in different ways to create new sentences. Directions in class, students' expressions of feelings are in L1. In later steps, more and more L2 is used.

12. **Evaluation:** A teacher-made classroom test would be an integrative test rather than a discrete point test. Students are asked to write a paragraph or they can be given an oral interview.

13. Goals and Objectives: Students should learn how to use the target language communicatively. Students should learn about their own learning to take an increasing responsibility about it. Non-defensive learning is the result when the teacher and the students treat each other as a whole person.

14. **Error Correction:** The error is treated in a non-threatening way. The teacher repeats the correct form without calling further attention to the error and the owner of the error.

15. **Sts' Feelings:** Students' feelings are considered extremely important. One regular activity is getting feedback from students' about their feelings; how they feeling about learning a foreign language. Negative feelings may block students' learning. Security is basic. Clear instructions, enough time, should be given to the individual for the respond.

16. **Techniques:**

    a. **Transcription:** The teacher writes the L1 equivalent of the text in the target language on the board or a poster-sized paper in order to be able to refer later. Students copy them in their notebooks.

    b. **Reflection on Experience:** Students tell about their feelings about language learning experience.

    c. **Reflective Listening:** Students relax and listen to their own voices speaking the target language on the tape. The teacher may also read the transcript while students are listening.

    d. **Human Computer:** The teacher repeats the correct form as many times as the students need. The teacher never corrects the student's error. Only repeats the correct form.

    e. **Small Group Tasks:** Students learn from each other. Also small groups can let students know each other well.

17. Skills: In the early stages, students design the syllabus. They decide what they want to say in L2. The most important skills are listening comprehension and speaking. Reading and writing are also worked on.

THE TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE METHOD (TPR)

1. **Learning Theory: There are three hypothesis:**

a. **Innate Bio-program:** There exists a specific, innate bio-program for language learning, which defines an optimal path for first and second language development. Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak. They make “a blue-print” ofthe language first. They develop "a cognitive map" of the language during listening process.

b. **Brain Lateralisation:** The brain has two main parts: left hemisphere, and right hemisphere which have different learning functions. If both hemispheres are activated, learning is more effective.

c. **Stress (an affective filter):** Stress intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned. The lower the stress is, the greater the learning becomes.

2. **Language Theory:** Language is primarily oral. It is just like the acquisition of native language. Learners first listen (silent period), then oral production starts. Oral communication is crucial. Skilful use of imperatives by the instructor can be helpful for the acquisition of many vocabulary items and grammatical structures. Asher views the verb and particularly the verb in the imperative as the central linguistic motif around which language use and learning are organised.

3. **Culture:** Culture is the lifestyle of people who speak the language natively. Daily habits, social life traditions should be learned.

4. **Teachers' Role:** Initially the teacher is the director of all student behaviour. In the later stages, the teacher is being directed.

5. **Students' Role:** Initially students are the followers of the teacher. Usually after ten to twenty hours, of instruction some students will be ready to speak the language. At this point they start to direct the teacher.

6. **Interactions:** T with whole group, T- respond by students non-verbally; Sts - Sts; St - st

7. **Vocabulary Teaching:** Vocabulary is introduced through imperatives. Verb is the kernel. Other categories like adjective, adverb, and noun can be introduced around verb. Objects, especially the objects in the immediate environment are introduced.

8. **Grammar Teaching:** Imperatives play an important role. Multi-word chunks, single-word chunks are used with imperatives. The teacher uses his/her creativity to introduce various grammatical patterns with the accompaniment of imperatives.

   E.g. For the introduction of “If " clause type 1

   Stand up if you are from Ankara" "Smile if you are wearing a blue T-shirt"

9. **Materials**: Objects around in the classroom, visuals, written texts, tasks for kinaesthetic learning can be used.

10. **Syllabus:** Sentence based syllabus with grammatical and lexical criteria is used. TPR requires initial attention to meaning rather than to the forms of items.

11. **Role of L1:** The method is introduced in the students' L1. After the introduction, rarely would the mother tongue be used. Meaning is made through body movements.

12. **Evaluation:** Teachers will know immediately whether or not students understand by observing heir students' actions. Formal evaluations can be conducted simply by commanding individual students to perform a series of actions. As students become more advanced, their Performance in the skits they have created can become the basis for evaluation.
13. **Goals and Objectives:** To make students enjoy learning the target language and communicate with it. Stress should be reduced.
14. **Error Correction:** Errors are inevitable. The teacher should be tolerant of students'errors; only major errors should be corrected. The teacher should be gentle when correcting students' errors. As students get more advanced, teachers can correct more minor errors.
15. **Student's Feelings:** The teacher should not force the students to speak. Silent period must be taken into consideration. When they begin to speak, perfection is not necessary. Stress should be reduced. The teacher should use "zany commands" and humorous skits of actions to make classes more enjoyable.
16. **Techniques:**
    a. **Commands:** Use of commands is the major technique. Commands are given to students to perform an action; actions make meaning clear.
    b. **Role reversal**: Students command their teacher and classmates to perform actions. Students speak after the silent period. Students should not be forced before they feel ready.
    c. **Action sequence:** The teacher may give three connected commands (e.g. "Point to the door, walk to the door, and touch the door")
17. **Skills:** Natural order of skills:
    a. Listening (Very important during the silent period)
    b. Speaking (teacher should not force sts to produce the language especially during the silent period sts are expected to produce the target language voluntarily)
    c. Reading
    d. Writing

THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH (CA)

1. **Learning Theory**: Little is known about the learning theory of “The Communicative Approach". Activities that involve real communication promote learning. Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.
2. **Language Theory:** Language is for communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop "communicative competence". Using the language appropriately in social contexts is important and communicative competence should be acquired.

What is language according to the Communicative Approach?

a. Language is a system for expression of meaning.

b. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.

c. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

d. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

3. **Culture:** Culture is the everyday life of people. There are some important aspects of language which are important to communication; for instance, the use of non-verbal behaviour. Body language, which may differ from culture to culture.

4. **Teacher's Role:** The teacher is a facilitator of his/her students' learning. He/she is a manager of classroom activities. He/she acts as an advisor and monitors students' performance.

5. **Students' Role:** Students are communicators. They are engaged in negotiating meaning actively. Students are responsible are responsible managers of their own learning.

6. **Interactions:** St-st interactions take place very often. Students benefit from group work, pair work, group discussions, projects...etc.

7. **Vocabulary Teaching:** Meaning is paramount. Meaning should be conveyed through visual aids, real objects, models, and context. Vocabulary should be taught within the context.

8. **Grammar Teaching:** Each linguistic form has a function. One function may be expressed with different forms.

9. e.g. (Asking for permission "May I go out?" Or “Would you let me go out?” etc.)

10. In addition, different forms may have one function.

11. E.g. (The modal "can" has various functions

12. "I can lift this chair" = ability

13. "It can rain today" = strong possibility

14. "Can I use your telephone?" = asking for permission

Functions are taught explicitly. Grammatical explanations can be given explicitly if it is believed to be useful for the acquisition of the form and function.

15. **Materials:** Authentic materials. Articles from magazines or newspapers, songs, short stories, advertisements...etc., which are used by native speakers in real life are used as class materials. Communicative activities (information gap, opinion gap activities) are used to promote students' communication in classes. Pictures, and other visual aids and realia are very important to support meaning. Task based activities are also used to promote students' involvement in classes.

16. **Syllabus:** Usually (but not always) functional-notional syllabus is used (e.g. frequency, motion, location).

17. **Role of L1:** Students' L1 has no particular role in the Communicative Approach. L2 should be used during not only activities, but also when the teacher is giving explanations, instructions, and homework. Students should see L2 as a tool for communication, not a subject to study.

18. **Evaluation:** The teacher evaluates students' accuracy and fluency. The teacher may give communicative tests, which are integrative tests and which have real communicative function. The teacher may tell students to write a letter to a friend to test their writing skill. Improvisation of a situation orally can also be a means of evaluation of the students' oral performance.

19. **Goals and Objectives:** To make students communicatively competent (i.e., being able to use the target language appropriately in a given context). For this reason, students need knowledge of linguistic forms, meanings, and functions. Students must know that many different forms can be used to perform a function, and one single form can serve a variety of functions. Students should be able to choose the most appropriate form for a specific function.

20. **Error Correction:** Errors of form can be tolerated since they are natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Students can have limited linguistic knowledge and still be successful communicators.

21. **Sts' Feelings:** Students' motivation is important. Students should feel that they are learning something useful for their lives. Students' security is enhanced by many opportunities for co-operative interactions with their fellow students and the teacher. The teacher gives students an opportunity to express ideas and opinions on a regular basis so that students integrate the target language with their own personality. Thus, they feel more secure about using the target language. Games, dramas and other enjoyable activities are used to make classroom atmosphere better, more friendly and relaxing.

22. **Techniques**:

    a. Authentic Materials: Genuine materials from newspapers, magazines, videos from real English TV channels, menus, time tables, etc is used.

    b. Scrambled Sentences: for cohesion and coherence.

    c. Language Games: In order to provide valuable communicative practice of the target language.

    d. Picture Strip Story: This activity provides opinion gaps. Students discuss which activity should come first.

    e. Role Play: this technique provides the opportunity to practise the target language in various social contexts. If the role plays is unprepared improvisation it also provides genuine communication (i.e., information gap - natural unpredictability of what each participant will say to each other).

23. **Skills and Language Areas:** Language functions are emphasised over forms. The target language is taught at supra sentential or discourse level, too. Students learn cohesion and coherence. Conversation structure in the target language is also reviewed. The four

language skills are learnt from the very beginning. "Skimming, and "Scanning" in reading and listening are improved.

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Source: http://w3.gazi.edu.tr/~gboran/Boran%20Yeni%20WebEnglish/eltmethods.htm

VII. A Task-based approach

Present Practice Produce (PPP)

During an initial teacher training course, most teachers become familiar with the PPP paradigm. A PPP lesson would proceed in the following manner.

- First, the teacher *presents* an item of language in a clear context to get across its meaning. This could be done in a variety of ways: through a text, a situation build, a dialogue etc.
- Students are then asked to complete a controlled *practice stage*, where they may have to repeat target items through choral and individual drilling, fill gaps or match halves of sentences. All of this practice demands that the student uses the language correctly and helps them to become more comfortable with it.
- Finally, they move on to the production stage, sometimes called the 'free practice' stage. Students are given a communication task such as a role play and are expected to *produce* the target language and use any other language that has already been learnt and is suitable for completing it.

The problems with PPP

It all sounds quite logical but teachers who use this method will soon identify problems with it:

- Students can give the impression that they are comfortable with the new language as they are producing it accurately in the class. Often though a few lessons later, students will either not be able to produce the language correctly or even won't produce it at all.
- Students will often produce the language but overuse the target structure so that it sounds completely unnatural.
- Students may not produce the target language during the free practice stage because they find they are able to use existing language resources to complete the task.
-

A Task-based approach

Task -based learning offers an alternative for language teachers. In a task-based lesson the teacher doesn't pre-determine what language will be studied, the lesson is based around the completion of a central task and the language studied is determined by what happens as the students complete it. The lesson follows certain stages.

Pre-task

The teacher introduces the topic and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do at the task stage and might help the students to recall some language that may be useful for the task. The pre-task stage can also often include playing a recording of people doing the task. This gives the students a clear model of what will be expected of them. The students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task.

Task

The students complete a task in pairs or groups using the language resources that they have as the teacher monitors and offers encouragement.

Planning

Students prepare a short oral or written report to tell the class what happened during their task. They then practise what they are going to say in their groups. Meanwhile the teacher is available for the students to ask for advice to clear up any language questions they may have.

Report

Students then report back to the class orally or read the written report. The teacher chooses the order of when students will present their reports and may give the students some quick feedback on the content. At this stage the teacher may also play a recording of others doing the same task for the students to compare.

Analysis

The teacher then highlights relevant parts from the text of the recording for the students to analyse. They may ask students to notice interesting features within this text. The teacher can also highlight the language that the students used during the report phase for analysis.

Practice

Finally, the teacher selects language areas to practise based upon the needs of the students and what emerged from the task and report phases. The students then do practice activities to increase their confidence and make a note of useful language.

The advantages of TBL

Task-based learning has some clear advantages

- Unlike a PPP approach, the students are free of language control. In all three stages they must use all their language resources rather than just practising one pre-selected item.
- A natural context is developed from the students' experiences with the language that is personalised and relevant to them. With PPP it is necessary to create contexts in which to present the language and sometimes they can be very unnatural.
- The students will have a much more varied exposure to language with TBL. They will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms.
- The language explored arises from the students' needs. This need dictates what will be covered in the lesson rather than a decision made by the teacher or the course book.
- It is a strong communicative approach where students spend a lot of time communicating. PPP lessons seem very teacher-centred by comparison. Just watch how much time the students spend communicating during a task-based lesson.
- It is enjoyable and motivating.

Conclusion

PPP offers a very simplified approach to language learning. It is based upon the idea that you can present language in neat little blocks, adding from one lesson to the next. However, research shows us that we cannot predict or guarantee what the students will learn and that ultimately a wide exposure to language is the best way of ensuring that students will acquire it effectively. Restricting their experience to single pieces of target language is unnatural.

For more information see *'A Framework for Task-Based Learning'* by Jane Wills,

Longman; *'Doing Task-Based Teaching'* by Dave and Jane Willis, OUP 2007.

Also see www.willis-elt.co.ukRichard Frost, British Council, Turkey

Source: http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/a-task-based-approach

VIII. Recent Trends in Second language Teaching

This is an article about new trends in English language teaching (ELT) resources, but none of the trends that follow are, strictly speaking, new.

Take, for example, the idea of spaced repetition, which is a buzzword at the moment. Back in 1885 (I told you it wasn't a new idea), Hermann Ebbinghaus carried out an experiment

designed to measure how quickly we forget. He discovered that, unless new information is reinforced, we quickly forget what we have learned. In the 1930s, other researchers followed this up by looking at how often we need to reinforce new information, and found that spacing out repetition – revising the information every two days, then every four, then every eight, and so on – was most effective.

So, we've known about spaced repetition for quite a while, but it has been difficult to implement, as it involves keeping track of an awful lot of words. However, this is something that a language-learning computer programme or app can do brilliantly. And so we're starting to see more and more language-learning apps which use the principles of spaced repetition, such as Lingopolis or Olive Green

Another way in which digitalisation is affecting ELT resources is in the way it's connecting learners with the outside world. Students nowadays have access to an incredible amount of English-language material online. But while this is clearly beneficial, it can also be a bit overwhelming. Students don't always know where to go for the most appropriate material. For teachers, the amount of time needed to find, select and prepare materials can be off-putting.

As a result, more and more sites that adapt materials for students are appearing. Easier English Wiki, for example, provides students (and teachers) with free materials based on articles from New Internationalist magazine. Newsmart is an app that uses daily, up-to-date content from the Wall Street Journal to teach language and develop reading and listening skills.

More traditional learning materials are also following this trend by joining up with outside companies. Unlock is a new series from Cambridge University Press, which uses content from Discovery Education. Pearson's Speakout series, a previous ELTon award winner, has partnered up with the BBC.

Another effect of our increasingly online world is the growth in more specialised ELT materials. While publishers continue to produce large, globally oriented courses, there is more and more scope for niche, local products written for specific groups of learners. Dr Chris Lima's EAP Shakespeare materials, nominated for the Macmillan Award for New Talent in Writing, is one such example.

Teachers are starting to create materials in ways that would have been impossible some years ago. Nearly every student now carries a powerful mini-computer, video camera and audio recorder in their pocket (otherwise known as a mobile phone) and teachers are finding new ways to use this technology in the classroom for learning English.

Web tools and unprecedented access to authentic materials online mean that teachers can create courses tailored to the specific needs and interests of their students.

But not all the latest trends rely on technology. A very noticeable trend is towards more creativity in the classroom. This probably started with Ken Robinson's talk, How schools kill creativity. Viewed millions of times, it has definitely brought creativity back to the forefront of teaching and materials design. There are other signs too, such as the setting up of The C Group: a group of ELT teachers and materials writers dedicated to encouraging creativity in the classroom.

Quite a number of the nominees for this year's ELTons reflect this creativity. For example, Mytera's Fortress and the Atama-ii set of graded readers, both of which draw on fantasy role-playing games. Or Creative English, which uses soap-opera scenarios, and ARM Cubes, which encourages learners to interact with language by working with audio and video.

Creativity is often about seeing things from a new perspective. This brings us to my final trend: 21st-century skills. Some people might say this isn't new either, as people have been talking about 21st-century skills since the start of the century. However, I think the idea is still developing, not least because not everyone entirely agrees about what we mean by 21st-century skills. Generally, it is used to refer to skills that are felt to be of particular importance in today's world. For example, critical thinking, problem-solving and collaboration.

But weren't these skills always important, you may ask? Yes, of course, but in a world where people are unlikely to stay in the same job for life, and interpreting and using information is becoming more important than memorising it, the emphasis on these sorts of skills needs to be greater.

With this in mind, we are seeing ever more materials that teach these kinds of skills as well as the language. Oxford Discover is one such series, based on the 'four Cs' (critical thinking, communication, collaboration and creativity). Another example is the Macmillan Life Skills series, which treats broader soft skills such as raising self-awareness, and influencing and managing others.

While none of these five trends may be exactly new, they are tremendously exciting. ELT resource creators are not just producing the same old stuff year on year. Teachers and their students have a lot to look forward to.

Join Rachael Roberts

Source: https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/whats-new-english-language-teaching

IX. Current Trends in Teaching and Learning EFL/ESL

Trend 1: Change in the Goal of Teaching English In my opinion, there are two key changes in the purpose of teaching English. Firstly, as Penny Ur (2009) noted the goal is "to produce fully competent English-knowing bilinguals rather than imitation native speakers." As I mentioned in a previous blog, the purpose is not to aspire to become native speakers of English, because we are already native speakers of our own L1, but to focus on English as a means of communication. Secondly, English is not viewed as an end in itself but as a means to learn content such as science and mathematics. Content and language integrate learning (CLIL) is an approach where the English teacher uses cross-curricular content and so the students learn both the content and English.

Trend 2: Early Start in Teaching English Many countries have started teaching English in earlier grades at school. For example, since 2011, Saudi Arabia and Vietnam have been introducing English from Grade 4. Also in 2011, Japan introduced English in the primary stage, and, in 2012, Dubai introduced English in the KG stage instead of Grade 1.

Trend 3: Change in the Approach to Teaching Culture Both the local or native and international culture dominate in English language classes. There is less focus on teaching the culture of native speakers of English unless there is a specific purpose for doing so.

Trend 4: Changing View of an English Teacher It is increasingly being recognized that the quality or effectiveness of teachers is determined by their linguistic, teaching, and intercultural competence rather than their being a native speaker of English.

Trend 5: Change in Teaching Content and Test Design Teachers use a range of local texts or English translations of literature in the classroom. The use of L1 as appropriate as well as the use of a variety of accents in listening activities or tests are encouraged in English language classrooms.

Trend 6: E-Learning Because of the proliferation of tablets and smart phones, I believe that textbooks will disappear in a few years. Furthermore, the access to knowledge in terms of flexibility and mobility has changed drastically.

Trend 7: Strategic Teaching and Learning

Teaching in English language classes focuses on fostering student thinking as well as language content, outcomes, and learning activities. There are significant and complex student-teacher interactions inside and outside the classroom. The gamification of learning is emerging as a way to make language learning more engaging and relevant to the younger generation.

Trend 8: Teachers as Life-Long Learners

In a knowledge-based society and to remain competitive and employable, teachers are expected to engage in continuous professional development or professional learning activities from the beginning to the end of their careers. As with any other profession, teachers are also expected to assume greater responsibility for their own professional learning, continually developing their knowledge and skills. by

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X. Characteristics of a Good Instructor/ Teacher

In his well-known book, *What the Best College Teachers Do*, Ken Bain (2004) identified a set of core characteristics of exemplary college teachers. Bain generated his recommendations by interviewing, assessing, and observing over 60 outstanding teachers across many disciplines and kinds of higher education institutions. These teachers were identified through the awards they had received and their reputations for high quality teaching.

According to Bain (2004), excellent teachers produce "important educational results" (p.5), such as high achievement on standardized and professional tests and satisfied, inspired students. These teachers changed the way students "think, act or feel" (p. 7). The students of the best teachers not only learn, but also learn to love learning, which in turn provides a sustained and significant impact on the students' lives. In these teachers' classes, understanding is more important than remembering, arguments and evidence are more important than facts and figures. In Bain's view, excellent teaching has little to do with implementing a set of teaching tips or best practices. Rather, excellent teaching focuses on unusual and remarkable results like sustained and deep understanding, a fundamental change in the student's world view and mental models, a desire to learn more, and the effective communication of the teachers' attitudes toward their profession, discipline, and students.

Given the differences between teaching face-to-face and teaching online, how can faculty members capture the best parts of "what works" in their courses across different delivery modes? How can they demonstrate in online course delivery the characteristics of the most effective teachers identified by Bain? How can online faculty members best "make a difference" with their online students?

Despite Bain's observations and recommendations, most of the literature on online pedagogy focuses on "best practices" (e.g., Keengwe & Kidd, 2010). Since the early days of online learning, there have been suggestions about how technologies can be used to enhance collaborative learning opportunities (Chickering & Ehrmann, 1996). More recently, reviewers have identified several best practice principles related to Bain's work including communicating clear goals and expectations; incorporating multiple active learning opportunities; providing frequent, prompt, and constructive feedback; and creating teacher support resources (e.g., Berge, 2002; Grandzol & Grandzol, 2006; Puzziferro & Shelton, 2009).

Whereas best practices are clearly necessary for good teaching, we do not think that they are sufficient for excellent teaching. If becoming an outstanding teacher merely entails implementing recommended best practices, then there would be many more outstanding teachers than there currently are. Clearly, there are good and bad (or more and less effective) ways to implement these practices. There seem to be things that cannot simply be borrowed, copied, or plugged into courses. These are the less tangible attributes that Bain (2004) discussed as the essential characteristics of the best teachers

http://www.facultyfocus.com/articles/online-education/instructor-characteristics-that-affect-online-student-success/

Teachers and Learners

In the process of learning, there are numerous things that play a significant role towards making it a smooth, pleasurable and constructive process.

First of all, the teachers are those who set the tone for a great learning environment. However, a lot depends on the way the learners face the lessons and overall, learning. To begin with, a learner must seriously take into consideration that learning is a great commitment. Most of the times, it requires hard work in order for it to be a successful

procedure. Building up knowledge should be continuous; that is, the learners should consistently study so as not to have any gaps, for the reason that then they will have serious problems in their learning. Learning is like a chain, and each lesson and studying time is a link in the chain. If the learners fail to study or miss a lesson without making up for it, then they automatically break the learning chain and their learning is disrupted. For that reason, teachers are there to remind learners that both of them should stick to a schedule and that when a lesson is missed, it will surely be made up for. Secondly, learners must understand what kind of learner they are: are they visual, aural, kinesthetic? This can be encouraged by the teachers. Not everyone learns the same way. (Unfortunately, I have heard teachers say "Oh, why is that student constantly whispering when he reads?" – Well, maybe he likes to hear himself and assimilate the text better, someone might say? Or: "Don't look at the board, everyone write it down!" – Well, what if the students are visual and can cope well with that?) It is important for them to decide on what kind of learner they are, as this will help them tremendously.

Learning will become much easier and naturally, more pleasant for them. Plus, they will help their teachers enormously, as the latter will be able to adapt their lessons to their learners' needs and special traits. For instance, at a young age I realized I could learn better when hearing something when the teachers spoke in my daily lessons at school. I later took advantage of my personal learning style and enjoyed assimilating through listening to my teachers speak, from tapes and television (here in combination with images), or from the radio, whatever the lesson. Up to now, my aural learning style has assisted me in my teaching as well, for the reason that I enrich my knowledge by attending seminars and conferences, where you can hear a number of speakers. Thus, each person must look inside themselves and discover what type of learner they are; it will help tremendously in promoting learning. A characteristic of the good learner is concentration, both in class and in the study place. A good learner pays attention to the teacher while delivering the lesson and also to their classmates, when they are asking a question about the lesson or answering the teacher's questions. (Naturally, the teacher has to be enthusiastic and make the lesson as interesting as possible so that the students become engaged as well.) It is very constructive to pay attention when classmates have questions, because for example it may be something they cannot comprehend. Teachers need to encourage and remind this and try to engage a number of students when someone asks a question. This is a very good opportunity for the others in class to learn something new, something maybe they had not thought or about, or they can even answer the questions themselves, if of course they can explain the unintelligible point in question.

Moreover, there must be concentration in the study place as well. The learner must choose to study in a comfortable, warm environment, if possible away from distractions like telephones, computers or televisions. Above all, studying should take place at an appropriate time for the learners: they should ask themselves what the best time of day for them is in order to study and keep that as permanent study time. Therefore, learners have to create a good study schedule and combine it with any other daily activities or work, if they are professionals. Having a schedule aids the learning process a great deal, for the reason that it helps maintain organization. Last of all, but equally important to all the aforementioned factors, learners should be prepared to study hard. It is highly beneficial to study not only the work assigned by the teacher, but also to access additional bibliography to read extensively

on the given subject and moreover to recycle and simultaneously comprehend all the components of the lesson delivered by the teacher. It may be tiring at times, as it is extra work, but the benefits are numerous. All elements combined, the learner is a person responsible for their advancement in learning and should be organized, attentive and should be prepared to study, so as to be successful in the work they have undertaken. In order for them to achieve this though, the teacher is responsible for the learning process to a great extent. If the teacher turns the classroom into an enthusiastic and encouraging place for learning (as well as organized), then the learner will enjoy being there as well. source

https://vickyloras.wordpress.com/2010/02/08/teachers-and-learners-roles-that-complement-each-other/

XI. Motivation as a Contributing Factor in Second Language Acquisition

Jacqueline Norris-Holt

Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

The work conducted by Gardner in the area of motivation was largely influenced by Mowrer (1950, cited in Larson-Freeman and Long 1994), whose focus was on first language acquisition. Mowrer proposed that a child's success when learning a first language could be attributed to the desire to gain identity within the family unit and then the wider language community. Using this as the basis for his own research Gardner went on to investigate motivation as an influencing factor in L2 acquisition.

Before examining the effect of motivation on second language learning it is first important to realise that it is one variable, which, combined with other factors, influences a learner's success. Gardner (1982), in his socio-educational model, identified a number of factors which are interrelated when learning a second language. Unlike other research carried out in the area, Gardner's model looks specifically at second language acquisition in a structured classroom setting rather than a natural environment. His work focuses on the foreign language classroom. The model attempts to interrelate four features of second language acquisition. These include the social and cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting or context in which learning takes place and linguistic outcomes (Gardner 1982).

The social or cultural milieu refers to the environment in which an individual is situated, thus determining their beliefs about other cultures and language. It is these beliefs which have a significant impact on second language acquisition. An example of this can be seen in the monocultural setting of Britain, where many believe it is not necessary to learn another language and that minority groups should assimilate and become proficient in the dominant language of the country. The same can be said of many other predominantly monocultural communities throughout the world. However, in other countries such as Canada, bilingualism and biculturalism, are often encouraged within society (Ellis 1997). Gardner (1979, cited in Skehan 1993) suggests that expectations regarding bilingualism, combined with attitudes towards the target language and its culture, form the basis of an individual's attitude towards language learning.

The second phase of Gardner's model introduces the four individual differences which are believed to be the most influential in second language acquisition. These include the variables of intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety (Giles and Coupland 1991). Closely interrelated with these variables is the next phase of the model, referred to as the setting or context in which learning takes place. Two contexts are identified, namely formal instruction within the classroom and unstructured language acquisition in a natural setting. Depending upon the context, the impact of the individual difference variables alters. For example, in a formal setting intelligence and aptitude play a dominant role in learning, while exerting a weaker influence in an informal setting. The variables of situational anxiety and motivation are thought to influence both settings equally.

The final phase of the model identifies linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience. Linguistic outcomes refers to actual language knowledge and language skills. includes test indices such as course grades or general proficiency tests. Non-linguistic outcomes reflect an individual's attitudes concerning cultural values and beliefs, usually towards the target language community. Ellis (1997) reasons that individuals who are motivated to integrate both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience will attain a higher degree of L2 proficiency and more desirable attitudes.

Within the model, motivation is perceived to be composed of three elements. These include effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's emotional reactions with regard to language study (Gardner 1982).

Integrative Motivation

Motivation has been identified as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). It is thought that students who are most successful when learning a target language are those who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used (Falk 1978). This form of motivation is known as integrative motivation. When someone becomes a resident in a new community that uses the target language in its social interactions, integrative motivation is a key component in assisting the learner to develop some level of proficiency in the language. It becomes a necessity, in order to operate socially in the community and become one of its members. It is also theorised that "integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a nativelike pronunciation" (Finegan 1999:568).

In an EFL setting such as Japan it is important to consider the actual meaning of the term "integrative." As Benson (1991) suggests, a more appropriate approach to the concept of integrative motivation in the EFL context would be the idea that it represents the desire of the individual to become bilingual, while at the same time becoming bicultural. This occurs through the addition of another language and culture to the learner's own cultural identity. As Japan is predominantly a monocultural society, opportunities to use the target (L2) language in daily verbal exchanges are relatively restricted. There is also limited potential for integrating into the target language community.

Instrumental Motivation

In contrast to integrative motivation is the form of motivation referred to as instrumental motivation. This is generally characterised by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson 2000). With instrumental motivation the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher pay based on language ability, reading technical material, translation work or achieving higher social status. Instrumental motivation is often characteristic of second language acquisition, where little or no social integration of the learner into a community using the target language takes place, or in some instances is even desired.

Integrative vs Instrumental Motivation

While both integrative and instrumental motivation are essential elements of success, it is integrative motivation which has been found to sustain long-term success when learning a second language (Taylor, Meynard and Rheault 1977; Ellis 1997; Crookes et al 1991). In some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert integrative motivation was viewed as being of more importance in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation (Ellis 1997). In later studies, integrative motivation has continued to be emphasised, although now the importance of instrumental motivation is also stressed. However, it is important to note that instrumental motivation has only been acknowledged as a significant factor in some research, whereas integrative motivation is continually linked to successful second language acquisition. It has been found that generally students select instrumental reasons more frequently than integrative reasons for the study of language. Those who do support an integrative approach to language study are usually more highly motivated and overall more successful in language learning.

One area where instrumental motivation can prove to be successful is in the situation where the learner is provided with no opportunity to use the target language and therefore, no chance to interact with members of the target group. Lukmani (1972) found that an instrumental orientation was more important than an integrative orientation in non-westernized female learners of L2 English in Bombay. The social situation helps to determine both what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning. Braj Kachru (1977, cited in Brown 2000) also points out that in India, where English has become an international language, it is not uncommon for second language learners to be successful with instrumental purposes being the underlying reason for study.

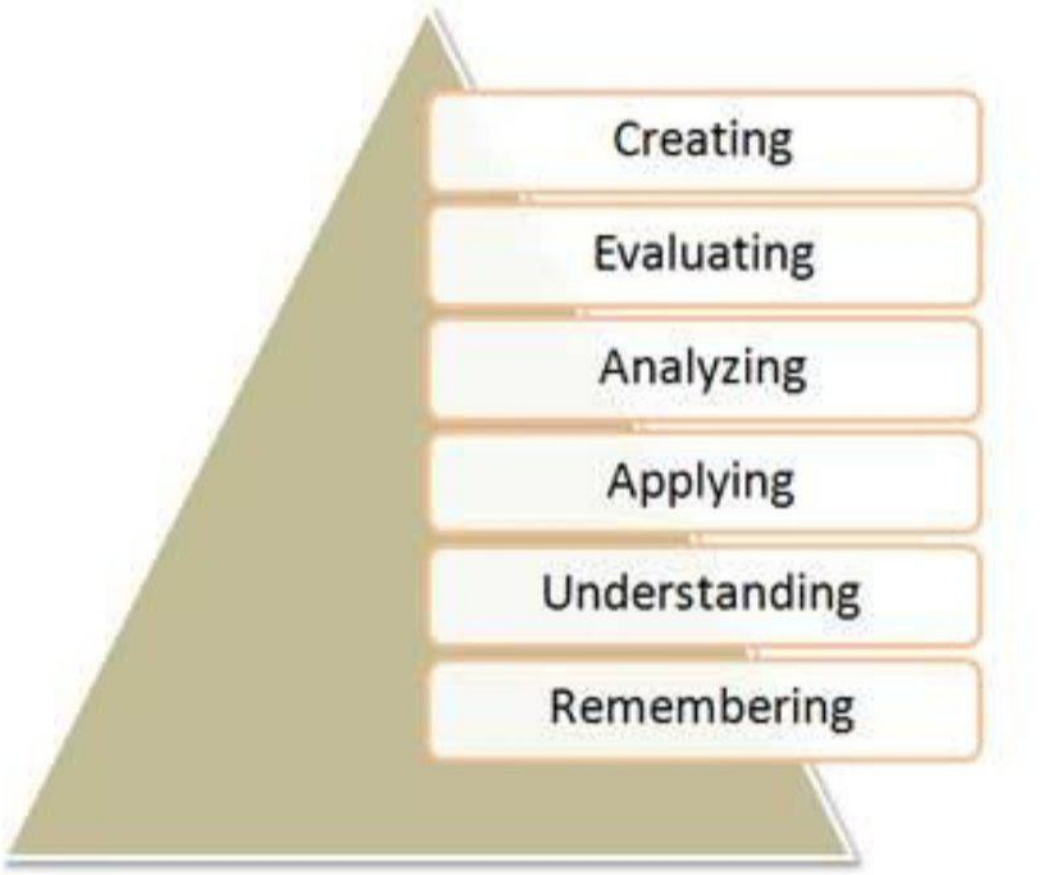
Brown (2000) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientations. He cites the example of international students residing in the United States, learning English for academic purposes while at the same time wishing to become integrated with the people and culture of the country.

Motivation is an important factor in L2 achievement. For this reason it is important to identify both the type and combination of motivation that assists in the successful acquisition of a second language. At the same time it is necessary to view motivation as one of a number

of variables in an intricate model of interrelated individual and situational factors which are unique to each language learner.

Source:http://iteslj.org/Articles/Norris-Motivation

XII. Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Domains



Bloom's Taxonomy was created in 1956 under the leadership of educational psychologist Dr Benjamin Bloom in order to promote higher forms of thinking in education, such as analyzing and evaluating concepts, processes, procedures, and principles, rather than just remembering facts (rote learning). It is most often used when designing educational, training, and learning processes.

The Three Domains of Learning

The committee identified three domains of educational activities or learning (Bloom, et al. 1956):

- **Cognitive:** mental skills (knowledge)
- **Affective:** growth in feelings or emotional areas (attitude or self)
- **Psychomotor:** manual or physical skills (skills)

Since the work was produced by higher education, the words tend to be a little bigger than we normally use. Domains may be thought of as categories. Instructional designers, trainers, and educators often refer to these three categories as KSA

(Knowledge [cognitive], Skills [psychomotor], and Attitudes [affective]). This taxonomy of learning behaviors may be thought of as "the goals of the learning process." That is, after a learning episode, the learner should have acquired a new skill, knowledge, and/or attitude.

While the committee produced an elaborate compilation for the cognitive and affective domains, they omitted the psychomotor domain. Their explanation for this oversight was that they have little experience in teaching manual skills within the college level. However, there have been at least three psychomotor models created by other researchers.

Their compilation divides the three domains into subdivisions, starting from the simplest cognitive process or behavior to the most complex. The divisions outlined are not absolutes and there are other systems or hierarchies that have been devised, such as the Structure of Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO). However, Bloom's taxonomy is easily understood and is probably the most widely applied one in use today.

Cognitive Domain

The cognitive domain involves knowledge and the development of intellectual skills (Bloom, 1956). This includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns, and concepts that serve in the development of intellectual abilities and skills. There are six major categories of cognitive an processes, starting from the simplest to the most complex (see the table below for an in-depth coverage of each category):

- Knowledge
- Comprehension
- Application
- Analysis
- Synthesis
- Evaluation

The categories can be thought of as degrees of difficulties. That is, the first ones must normally be mastered before the next one can take place.

Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

Lorin Anderson, a former student of Bloom, and David Krathwohl revisited the cognitive domain in the mid-nineties and made some changes, with perhaps the three most prominent ones being (Anderson, Krathwohl, Airasian, Cruikshank, Mayer, Pintrich, Raths, Wittrock, 2000):

- changing the names in the six categories from noun to verb forms
- rearranging them as shown in the chart below
- creating a processes and levels of knowledge matrix

The chart shown below compares the original taxonomy with the revised one:

Table of the Revised Cognitive Domain

Cognitive Processes and Levels of Knowledge Matrix

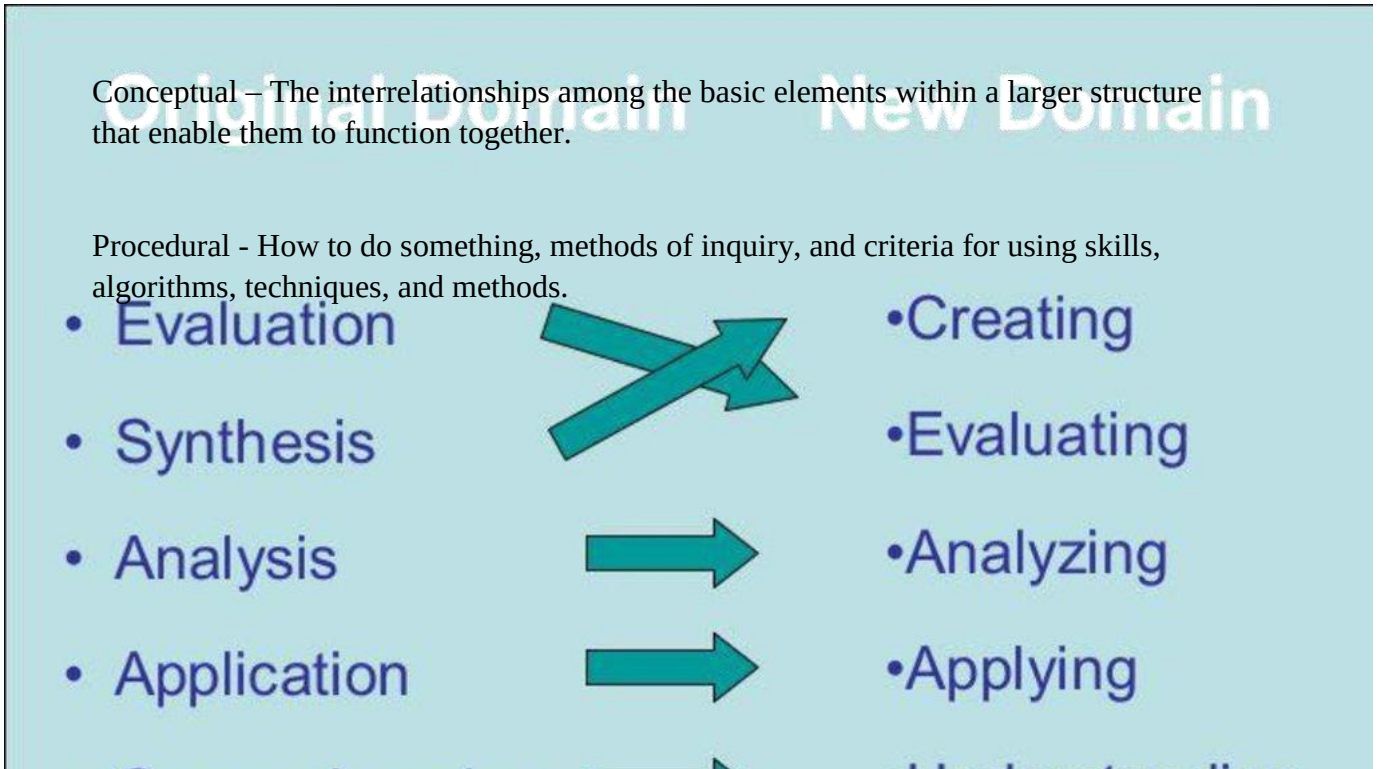
Bloom's Revised Taxonomy not only improved the usability of it by using action words, but added a cognitive and knowledge matrix.

While Bloom's original cognitive taxonomy did mention three levels of knowledge or products that could be processed, they were not discussed very much and remained one-dimensional:

Factual - The basic elements students must know to be acquainted with a discipline or solve problems.

Conceptual – The interrelationships among the basic elements within a larger structure that enable them to function together.

Procedural - How to do something, methods of inquiry, and criteria for using skills, algorithms, techniques, and methods.



In Krathwohl and Anderson's revised version, the authors combine the cognitive processes with the above three levels of knowledge to form a matrix. In addition, they added another level of knowledge - metacognition:

Metacognitive – Knowledge of cognition in general, as well as awareness and knowledge of one's own cognition.

When the cognitive and knowledge dimensions are arranged in a matrix, as shown below, it makes a nice performance aid for creating performance objectives:

The Cognitive Dimension

The Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Under-stand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual						
Conceptual						
Procedural						

Metacognitive

However, others have identified five contents or artifacts (Clark, Chopeta, 2004; Clark, Mayer, 2007):

Facts - Specific and unique data or instance.

Concepts - A class of items, words, or ideas that are known by a common name, includes multiple specific examples, shares common features. There are two types of concepts: concrete and abstract.

Processes - A flow of events or activities that describe how things work rather than how to do things. There are normally two types: business processes that describe work flows and

technical processes that describe how things work in equipment or nature. They may be thought of as the big picture, of how something works.

Procedures - A series of step-by-step actions and decisions that result in the achievement of a task. There are two types of actions: linear and branched.

Principles - Guidelines, rules, and parameters that govern. It includes not only what should be done, but also what should not be done. Principles allow one to make predictions and draw implications. Given an effect, one can infer the cause of a phenomena. Principles are the basic building blocks of causal models or theoretical models (theories).

Thus, the new matrix would look similar to this:

The Cognitive Dimension

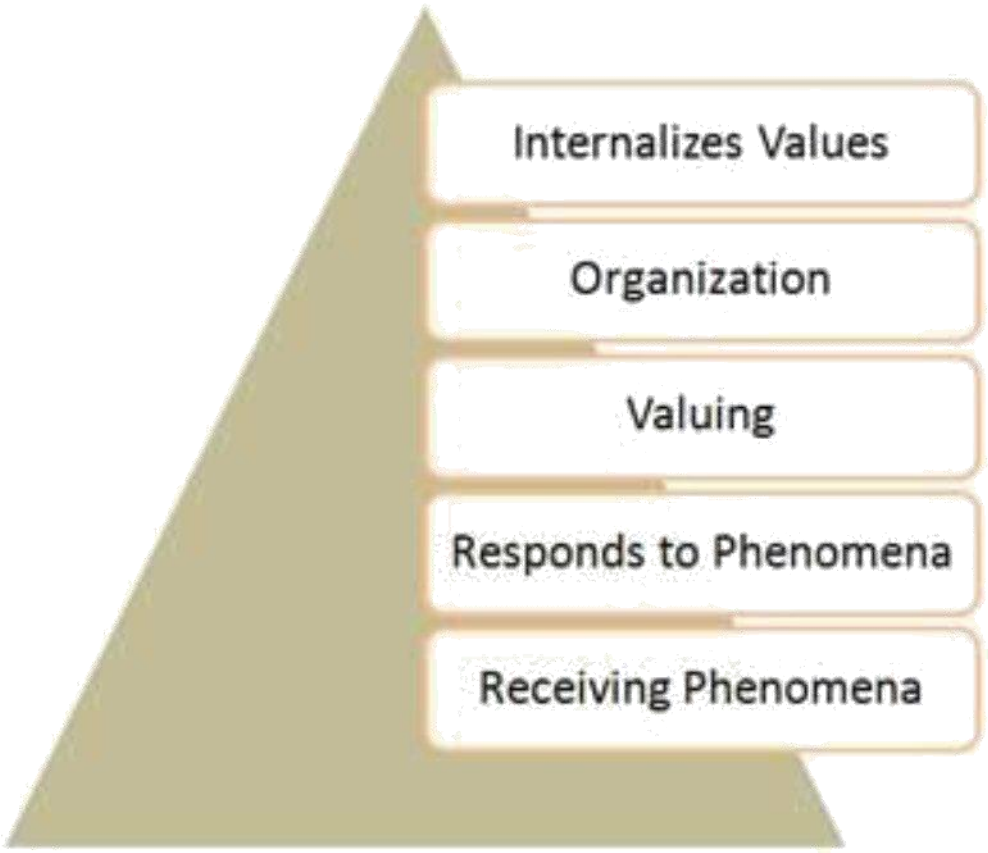
The Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Under-stand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Facts						
Concepts						
Processes						
Procedures						
Principles						
Metacognitive						

An example matrix that has been filled in might look something like this:

The Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Under-stand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Facts	list	para-phrase	classify	outline	rank	categorize
Concepts	recall	explains	show	contrast	criticize	modify
Processes	outline	estimate	produce	diagram	defend	design
Procedures	reproduce	give an example	relate	identify	critique	plan
Principles	state	converts	solve	different-	conclude	revise

				iates		
Meta-cognitive	proper use	interpret	discover	infer	predict	actualize

Bloom's Taxonomy: The Affective Domain



The affective domain is one of three domains in Bloom's Taxonomy, with the other two being the cognitive and psychomotor (Bloom, et al., 1956).

The affective domain (Krathwohl, Bloom, Masia, 1973) includes the manner in which we deal with things emotionally, such as feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes. The five major categories are listed from the simplest behavior to the most complex:

Category	Example and Key Words (verbs)
Receiving Phenomena: Awareness, willingness to hear, selected attention.	Examples: Listen to others with respect. Listen for and remember the name of newly introduced people. Key Words: acknowledge, asks, attentive, courteous, dutiful, follows, gives, listens, understands
Responds to Phenomena: Active participation on the part of the learners. Attend and react to a	Examples: Participates in class discussions. Gives a presentation.

particular phenomenon. Learning outcomes may emphasize compliance in responding, willingness to respond, or satisfaction in responding (motivation).	Questions new ideals, concepts, models, etc. in order to fully understand them. Know the safety rules and practice them. Key Words: answers, assists, aids, complies, conforms, discusses, greets, helps, labels, performs, presents, tells
Valuing: The worth or value a person attaches to a particular object, phenomenon, or behavior. This ranges from simple acceptance to the more complex state of commitment. Valuing is based on the internalization of a set of specified values, while clues to these values are expressed in the learner's overt behavior and are often identifiable.	Examples: Demonstrates belief in the democratic process. Is sensitive towards individual and cultural differences (value diversity). Shows the ability to solve problems. Proposes a plan to social improvement and follows through with commitment. Informs management on matters that one feels strongly about. Key Words: appreciates, cherish, treasure, demonstrates, initiates, invites, joins, justifies, proposes, respect, shares
Organization: Organizes values into priorities by contrasting different values, resolving conflicts between them, and creating an unique value system. The emphasis is on comparing, relating, and synthesizing values.	Examples: Recognizes the need for balance between freedom and responsible behavior. Explains the role of systematic planning in solving problems. Accepts professional ethical standards. Creates a life plan in harmony with abilities, interests, and beliefs. Prioritizes time effectively to meet the needs of the organization, family, and self. Key Words: compares, relates, synthesizes

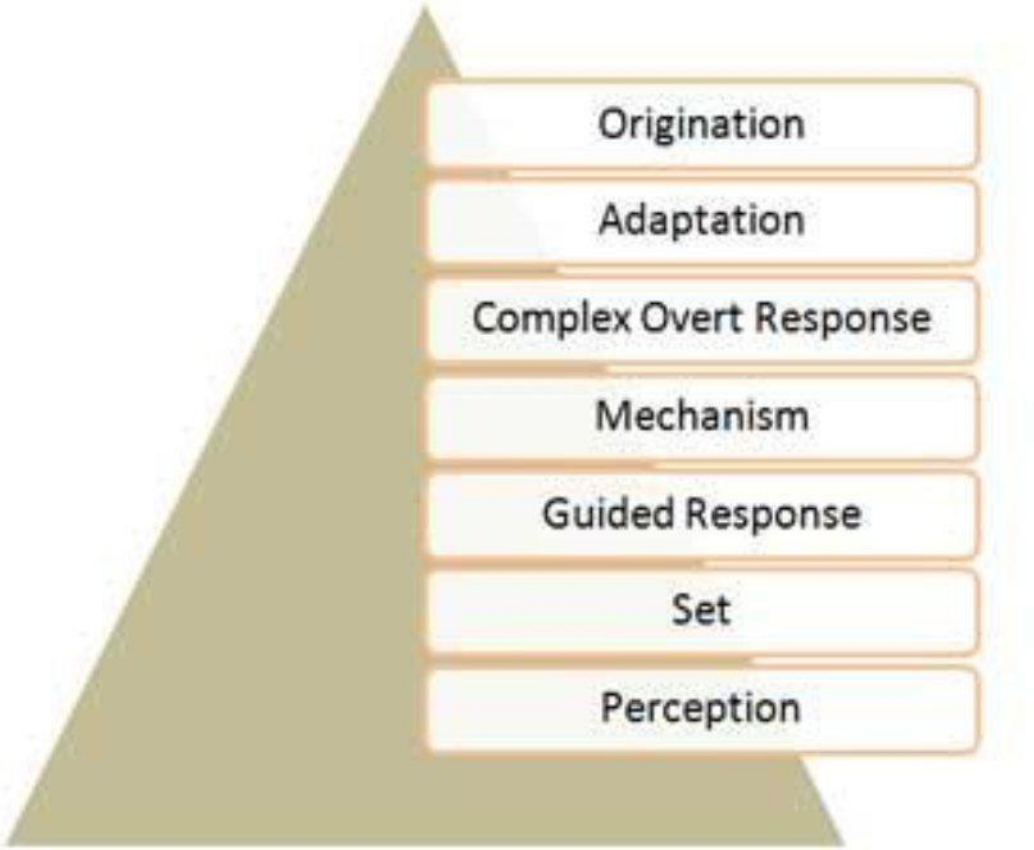
Internalizes Values (characterization): Has a value system that controls their behavior. The behavior is pervasive, consistent, predictable, and most important characteristic of the learner. Instructional objectives are concerned with the student's general patterns of adjustment (personal,

Examples: Shows self-reliance when working independently. Cooperates in group activities (displays teamwork).

Uses an objective approach in problem solving. Displays a professional commitment to ethical practice on a

social, emotional).	daily basis. Revises judgments and changes behavior in light of new evidence. Values people for what they are, not how they look. Key Words: acts, discriminates, displays, influences, modifies, performs, qualifies, questions, revises, serves, solves, verifies

Bloom's Taxonomy: The Psychomotor Domain



The psychomotor domain (Simpson, 1972) includes physical movement, coordination, and use of the motor-skill areas. Development of these skills requires practice and is measured in terms of speed, precision, distance, procedures, or techniques in execution. Thus, psychomotor skills rage from manual tasks, such as digging a ditch or washing a car, to more complex tasks, such as operating a complex piece of machinery or dancing.

The seven major categories are listed from the simplest behavior to the most complex:

Category	Example and Key Words (verbs)
Perception (awareness): The ability to use sensory cues to guide motor activity. This ranges from sensory stimulation, through cue selection, to translation.	Examples: Detects non-verbal communication cues. Estimate where a ball will land after it is thrown and then moving to the correct location to catch the ball. Adjusts heat of stove to correct temperature by smell and taste of food. Adjusts the height of the forks on a forklift by comparing where the forks are in relation to the pallet. Key Words: chooses, describes, detects, differentiates, distinguishes, identifies, isolates, relates, selects.
Set: Readiness to act. It includes mental, physical, and emotional sets. These three sets are dispositions that predetermine a person's response to different situations (sometimes called mindsets).	Examples: Knows and acts upon a sequence of steps in a manufacturing process. Recognize one's abilities and limitations. Shows desire to learn a new process (motivation). NOTE: This subdivision of Psychomotor is closely related with the "Responding to phenomena" subdivision of the Affective domain. Key Words: begins, displays, explains, moves, proceeds, reacts, shows, states, volunteers.
Guided Response: The early stages in learning a complex skill that includes imitation and trial and error. Adequacy of performance is achieved by practicing.	Examples: Performs a mathematical equation as demonstrated. Follows instructions to build a model. Responds hand-signals of instructor while learning to operate a forklift. Key Words: copies, traces, follows, react, reproduce, responds

Mechanism (basic proficiency): This is the intermediate stage in learning a complex skill. Learned responses have become habitual and the movements can be performed with some confidence and

Examples: Use a personal computer. Repair a leaking faucet. Drive a car.

Key Words: assembles, calibrates, constructs, dismantles, displays, fastens, fixes, grinds, heats, manipulates, measures, mends, mixes,

proficiency. Complex Overt Response (Expert): The skillful performance of motor acts that involve complex movement patterns. Proficiency is indicated by a quick, accurate, and highly coordinated performance, requiring a minimum of energy. This category includes performing without hesitation, and automatic performance. For example, players are often utter sounds of satisfaction or expletives as soon as they hit a tennis ball or throw a football, because they can tell by the feel of the act what the result will produce.	organizes, sketches. Examples: Maneuvers a car into a tight parallel parking spot. Operates a computer quickly and accurately. Displays competence while playing the piano. Key Words: assembles, builds, calibrates, constructs, dismantles, displays, fastens, fixes, grinds, heats, manipulates, measures, mends, mixes, organizes, sketches. NOTE: The Key Words are the same as Mechanism, but will have adverbs or adjectives that indicate that the performance is quicker, better, more accurate, etc.
Adaptation: Skills are well developed and the individual can modify movement patterns to fit special requirements.	Examples: Responds effectively to unexpected experiences. Modifies instruction to meet the needs of the learners. Perform a task with a machine that it was not originally intended to do (machine is not damaged and there is no danger in performing the new task). Key Words: adapts, alters, changes, rearranges, reorganizes, revises, varies.
Origination: Creating new movement patterns to fit a particular situation or specific problem. Learning outcomes emphasize creativity based upon highly developed skills.	Examples: Constructs a new theory. Develops a new and comprehensive training programming. Creates a new gymnastic routine. Key Words: arranges, builds, combines, composes, constructs, creates, designs, initiate, makes, originates.

Other Psychomotor Domain Taxonomies

As mentioned earlier, the committee did not produce a compilation for the psychomotor domain model, but others have. The one discussed above is by Simpson (1972). There are two other popular versions by Dave (1970) and Harrow (1972):

Dave (1975):

Category	Example and Key Words (verbs)
Imitation — Observing and patterning behavior after someone else. Performance may be of low quality.	Examples: Copying a work of art. Performing a skill while observing a demonstrator. Key Words: copy, follow, mimic, repeat, replicate, reproduce, trace
Manipulation — Being able to perform certain actions by memory or following instructions.	Examples: Being able to perform a skill on one's own after taking lessons or reading about it. Follows instructions to build a model. Key Words: act, build, execute, perform
Precision — Refining, becoming more exact. Performing a skill within a high degree of precision	Examples: Working and reworking something, so it will be “just right.” Perform a skill or task without assistance. Demonstrate a task to a beginner. Key Words: calibrate, demonstrate, master, perfectionism
Articulation — Coordinating and adapting a series of actions to achieve harmony and internal consistency.	Examples: Combining a series of skills to produce a video that involves music, drama, color, sound, etc. Combining a series of skills or activities to meet a novel requirement. Key Words: adapt, constructs, combine, creates, customize, modifies, formulate
Naturalization — Mastering a high level performance until it become second-nature or natural, without needing to think much about it.	

competence while playing the piano. Michael Jordan playing basketball or Nancy Lopez hitting a golf ball.

Examples: Maneuvers a car into a tight parallel parking spot. Operates a computer quickly and accurately. Displays

Key Words: create, design, develop, invent, manage, naturally

Harrow (1972):

Category	Example and Key Words (verbs)
Reflex Movements — Reactions that are not learned, such as a involuntary reaction	Examples: instinctive response Key Words: react, respond
Fundamental Movements — Basic movements such as walking, or grasping.	Examples: perform a simple task Key Words: grasp an object, throw a ball, walk
Perceptual Abilities — Response to stimuli such as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, or tactile discrimination.	Examples: track a moving object, recognize a pattern Key Words: catch a ball, draw or write
Physical Abilities (fitness) — Stamina that must be developed for further development such as strength and agility.	Examples: gain strength, run a marathon Key Words: agility, endurance, strength
Skilled movements — Advanced learned movements as one would find in sports or acting.	Examples: Using an advanced series of integrated movements, perform a role in a stage play or play in a set of series in a sports game. Key Words: adapt, constructs, creates, modifies
Nondiscursive communication — Use effective body language, such as gestures and facial expressions.	Examples: Express one's self by using movements and gestures Key Words: arrange, compose, interpretation

source

http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/bloom.html

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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – IV – Principles and Practices of ELT –SHSA5101

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Topic Areas:

Unit IV

- Developing Listening skills, Types of listening, Barriers to listening,
- Teaching methods - Casual and Focused listening, Story based method, Task based teaching
- Problems of Teaching Oral Communication, Contexts of Speaking, A natural process of developing Spoken skills through exposure and use specific methods and techniques
- Developing Reading skills, Purpose of Reading, Kinds of Reading- Loud and Silent Reading,
- Classroom approaches to teaching Reading
- Problems in Teaching Writing- The shortest unit of writing - The paragraph
- Types of writing, The functions of writing, The audience or the reader of written texts,
- Three Definitions of Grammar, Methodology of Grammar Teaching,
- Teaching Vocabulary, Types of Vocabulary, Some Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary, Selecting vocabulary & presenting

I. 1. Teaching Listening

Definition: Listening is a process of receiving, interpreting and reacting to a message from the speaker

No communication process is complete without listening.

Listening is an important skill. Listening is quite similar to reading as it involves reception and decoding of the verbal message from the other person. The following ex illustrates importance of listening

In a biology class teacher asked the students to refer to a book titled " Origin of Species"

One of the student sincerely went to library searched to the catalogue of library, looking for book named " Orange and Peaches" but to his utter dismay he could not find it. When he approached the teacher he found that the book was entitled Origin of Species. This is what happens when there is lack of concentration in listening

Listening v s. Hearing

- Hearing and listening are not the same People may often use these words interchangeably. In fact, hearing is solely depends on the ears, is a physical act, everyone can hear without

deliberate effort. Hearing is merely vibration of sounds on the ear drum followed by electroc Types of Listening

- There are various forms of listening. These are as follows:
- !) Casual Listening: Casual listening is to listen to someone or something without mush attention and concentration. This type of listening has no specific purpose.
- 2) Focused listening: Focused listening is intentional and systematic process. The listener gives his full attention and concentration on what the speaker is saying to get information, knowledge and ideas. This type of listening is also considered as " Intensive Listening" • Other types of listening:

1. **Active listening** also called as attentive listening. Active listening involves attention, careful consideration , concentration of the speaker's Ideas. The listener Participates in communication process actively and attentively.
2. The listener nods his head, leans forward or show positive body language, which supports and encourages the speaker to communicate more enthusiastically. This is positive type of listening
3. **Passive Listening:** Passive Listening is very stern, rigid and orthodox type of listening. This type of listening may create confusion in the mind of the speaker about true intention of the listener. The listener wears a ' flat' face serious expressions, surroundings all gestures that are used in active listening. Some times passive listening is used to show status of the listeners.
4. **Critical listening:** Critical listening can also be called as 'evaluating listening' This type of listening involves critical evaluation of the speaker's thoughts and ideas. The listener assesses speaker's depth of knowledge, choice of words and tone and style of the listener. This type of listening is used in seminars, conferences, group discussions, and other formal type of interactions
5. **Appreciative listening**: This type of listening appreciates and supports the speaker. The listener encourages and motivates the speaker to speak more and more
6. **.Pretentive Listening**: Pretentive listening is also called as 'False Listening" .The Listener pretends as if he is listening attentively to the speakers. Whereas. The listeners is not paying attention to the speaker. Even listener may nod his head, smile at the speaker, lean forward, or he will pretend to write down something. The speaker is under false impression that Listener is paying attention
7. **Empathetic listening:** This Type of listening exercises emotional influence on the listener not only understands the literal message but also understand the feeling, emotions, and the world view of the speaker. •
8. **Therapeutic listening:** This type of listening involves a healing process in which person revels their suppressed desires. The listener listens the speaker with the purpose to let the speaker's suppressed feeling come to the surface.
9. Selective Listening: In This type of listening the listener listens to only important and specific information. The listener does not pay need to other topics or issues in the speech

10. **Biased Listening:** In this type of listening:, the listener is biased and prejudiced against the speaker. The listener has preconceived notion about the speaker and the speech. He is already made not to trust the speaker, The listener shows lack of respect for the listener.

11. **Assertive Listening**: In this type of listening, the listener allows the speaker to express his ideas freely and frankly. The listener respects the speaker's right to speak Assertive listening encourages the speak to communicate his ideas in an open environment. Traits of a good listener

Being non evaluative:

If you are an active listener your verbal and nonverbal behavior should suggest the speaker that he is being properly heard and understood. It should not indicate what you think about a person. The purpose is to communicate overlooking the qualities of the speaker. The behavior of the listener should convey the impression that you accept the person without making judgment of right or wrong, good or bad, suitable or unsuitable.

Paraphrasing (summarize)

If you wish to clarify a point, you can simply summarize what the speaker has said and enquire the speaker whether you have heard it accurately or not. Reflecting Implications (suggestions)

In order to peruse the speaker (to motivate the speaker) to extend his ideas, the listener has to reflect eagerness and willingness to learn more by using expressions like nodding or through verbal means, thereby giving positive feedback. This technique is can used by listener to get more information from the speaker in the area of interest of the listener. i.e. to divert the speaker from his main topic.

Reflecting Hidden Feelings : Sometimes the listener have to go beyond the general feeling and contents of what is being said to unravel the underlying feeling, intentions, beliefs that may influence the speaker's words .This would make the speaker evaluated. Acceptance is conveyed more by listeners manner and tone than by the words.

Inviting Further Contribution In a situation where listener haven't heard or understood enough. The listener can respond with empathy and understanding, prompt the speaker to give more information .The idea here is to get a better understanding of the subject by asking questions. But the questions should be for seeking information not to interrogate or challenge the speaker.

Responding Non-Verbally & Verbally

Listener can portray his image as that of a active listener by adopting certain postures, and sending non verbal signal which communicates the listeners interest in what the speaker is saying. This may include eye contact, Leaning forward towards the listener, head nodding.• Listener can also use some receptive utterances like 'yes' 'un-hum' to indicate that message of speaker is being understood. Barriers to effective listening. The factors which are creating barriers in effective listening are as follows:

Environmental Condition: Environmental condition like humidity, temperature, atmospheres limits the listeners span of listening. Cloudy atmosphere may cause the listener

to sleep. Space Distance: Distance between the speaker and the listener from long distance may effect the listening process. If the speaker is speaking from long distance, the listener may struggle to grasp what the speaker is speaking. Some of the words may be mismay be misunderstood by the listener.

Omniscient attitude of the listener: Many people considered themselves as ‘ know all’ men . They think that they have perfect knowledge of everything in the world. According to them listening to others is pure waste of time.. They are not listening to the speakers because they thing that they already know what he is going to say.

Infrastructure: Poor Infrastructure may effect listening process. Lack of proper ventilation, light, acoustics can act as a barrier to listening

Speed of the speaker: Speed of the speaker can act as a barrier to listening. If the speaker is speaking too speedily, the listeners have no other alternative left than watching speaker. The Human brain receives sounds at a specific speed. If this speed is not maintained properly, the listener’s may get distracted.

Speakers' Non-verbal communication: Speaker’s no use of facial expression, gestures, body language, eye contact and other factors can create barriers to listening. If the speaker relies only on verbal expressions, the listener will be tired of constant bombardment of words and verbal expressions.

Voice and tone of the speaker: the listener will feel bored and fade up to listen to monotones speech. If the speaker’s voice is not audible, the listener may not listen to it attentively. On the contrary, many speaker’s maintain a monotonous tone which irritates the listener.

Lack of Factual Information : Many Times listener do nor listen attentively and carefully because he does not find any factual information in the speech .

Language of the speaker: If the speaker is using high technical jargon and difficult words , the listener will be clueless about the meaning of those words. They will try to find meaning of those words instead of listening to the speaker.

Horn Effect in the Listener: The horn effect is tendency to underestimate a person as bad in all the fields because he is bad in one of the field. The listeners reject and nullify the speaker’s chance to speak for more amount of time because listeners dislike the speaker.

Span of the Speech: The process of listening can take place for a limited period of time. If the speaker is speaking for hours to gather, the listener turns into pretentive listener.

II. Techniques to Improve listening skills

Motivate yourself to listen

Listeners should motivate their mind to listen to the speaker carefully. They should prepare themselves to listen to others willingly. Listening can not be forced or imposed on the person. Individual should know the value and importance of listening.

Respect the speaker: Listeners should have respect for the speaker. They should not underestimate the speaker’s ideas and thoughts.

Even if, the listener disagrees with some of the ideas of the speaker, they should show their disagreement positively

Remove Horn effect: Do not underestimate a person because he has couple of flaws in his behavior.

Many people are like rough diamonds. They need to be understood carefully. The speaker ideas can be rejected or doubted by the listeners. However listener should nor insult or dislike the speaker.

Positive body language: Listener should maintain positive body language like nod of head, leaning forward, maintain erect postures, during communication.

Moreover listener should not create any type of distractions by using unnecessary body language. Many listeners revolve pen, notebook, or any other object in their hand.

Do not Interrupt: Listeners should not interrupt the speaker unnecessarily. Many listeners have tendency to make remarks or comments during speech. Moreover many listeners repeat the words and expression of the speaker loudly

Improve your listening span: Listeners should get training for enhancing their span of active listening. Many a times, we have to listen to speeches or lectures for long duration. **Speaker's use of appropriate body language:** Speaker should use positive body language Otherwise Listeners will be observing these body movements and thereby neglect ideas and expressions of the speaker.

Voice modulation: The speaker should modulate his voice and use different tones while speaking. It creates interesting atmosphere in the audience and they pay more attention to the speaker. It creates an environment for effective listening

Use Simple style: Speaker should use simple expressions that can be understood easily by the listeners. The speaker should keep one thing in mind that he should speak to 'express' and not impress. Use of heavy technical words, may distract the speaker and affect the process of listening.

Listening should be taught as a skill:

The art of listening should be given importance in school and college curriculum. The skill should be taught to students just like, speaking, reading and writing skills.

There should be sufficient practice and opportunity to enhance their listening ability. Benefits of Listening

Effective listening at all level is very important for the successful running of an organization.

Good listening skills make workers more productive.

- The ability to listen carefully will allow you to:
- Better understand assignments and what is expected of you.
- Build rapport with co-workers, bosses, and clients.
- Show support.

- Work better in a team-based environment.
- Resolve problems with customers, co-workers, and bosses.
- Answer questions; and find underlying meanings in what others say.
- Effective listening helps in controlling rumors which helps in preventing damage to the reputation of the organization.
- Effective listening will improve the working condition and nurture harmony and unity among the workers and colleagues.

http://www.gtucampus.com/uploads/studymaterials/Degree%20Engineeringgaurav.tandonListening%20skills.pdf

III. Teaching Listening

Listening is the language modality that is used most frequently. It has been estimated that adults spend almost half their communication time listening, and students may receive as much as 90% of their in-school information through listening to instructors and to one another. Often, however, language learners do not recognize the level of effort that goes into developing listening ability.

Far from passively receiving and recording aural input, listeners actively involve themselves in the interpretation of what they hear, bringing their own background knowledge and linguistic knowledge to bear on the information contained in the aural text. Not all listening is the same; casual greetings, for example, require a different sort of listening capability than do academic lectures. Language learning requires intentional listening that employs strategies for identifying sounds and making meaning from them.

Listening involves a sender (a person, radio, television), a message, and a receiver (the listener). Listeners often must process messages as they come, even if they are still processing what they have just heard, without backtracking or looking ahead. In addition, listeners must cope with the sender's choice of vocabulary, structure, and rate of delivery. The complexity of the listening process is magnified in second language contexts, where the receiver also has incomplete control of the language.

Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching, it is essential for language teachers to help their students become effective listeners. In the communicative approach to language teaching, this means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations: those that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom.

Material for this section was drawn from “Listening in a foreign language” by Ana Maria Schwartz, in *Modules for the professional preparation of teaching assistants in foreign languages* (Grace Stovall Burkart, ed.; Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1998)

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Listening

Instructors want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of listening, this means producing students who can use listening strategies to maximize their comprehension of aural input, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

Focus: The Listening Process

To accomplish this goal, instructors focus on the process of listening rather than on its product.

- They develop students' awareness of the listening process and listening strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they listen in their native language.
- They allow students to practice the full repertoire of listening strategies by using authentic listening tasks.
- They behave as authentic listeners by responding to student communication as a listener rather than as a teacher.
- When working with listening tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the listening purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.
- They have students practice listening strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their listening assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete listening tape assignments.
- They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and their strategy use immediately after completing an assignment. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class listening assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.
- They encourage the development of listening skills and the use of listening strategies by using the target language to conduct classroom business: making announcements, assigning homework, describing the content and format of tests.
- They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of listening task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of listening as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching listening strategies, instructors help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the new language.

Integrating Metacognitive Strategies

Before listening: Plan for the listening task

- Set a purpose or decide in advance what to listen for
- Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
- Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)
- Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses
- Decide what is and is not important to understand
- Listen/view again to check comprehension
- Ask for help
- Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area
- Evaluate overall progress in listening and in particular types of listening tasks
- Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task
- Modify strategies if necessary

Using Authentic Materials and Situations

Authentic materials and situations prepare students for the types of listening they will need to do when using the language outside the classroom.

One-Way Communication

Materials:

- Radio and television programs
- Public address announcements (airports, train/bus stations, stores)
- Speeches and lectures
- Telephone customer service recordings

Procedure

- Help students identify the listening goal: to obtain specific information; to decide whether to continue listening; to understand most or all of the message
- Help students outline predictable sequences in which information may be presented: who-what-when-where (news stories); who-flight number-arriving/departing-gate number (airport announcements); "for [function], press [number]" (telephone recordings)
- Help students identify key words/phrases to listen for

Two-Way Communication

In authentic two-way communication, the listener focuses on the speaker's meaning rather than the speaker's language. The focus shifts to language only when meaning is not clear. Note the difference between the teacher as teacher and the teacher as authentic listener in the dialogues in the popup screens.

Strategies for Developing Listening Skills

Language learning depends on listening. Listening provides the aural input that serves as the basis for language acquisition and enables learners to interact in spoken communication.

Listening is active. It can be depicted as follows:

input ---------≥ processing ----------≥ output

input is spoken language, output is listener's response.

Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their listening behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and listening purposes. They help students develop a set of listening strategies and match appropriate strategies to each listening situation.

Listening Strategies

Listening strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input. Listening strategies can be classified by how the listener processes the input.

Top-down strategies are listener based; the listener taps into background knowledge of the topic, the situation or context, the type of text, and the language. This background knowledge activates a set of expectations that help the listener to interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next. Top-down strategies include

- listening for the main idea
- predicting
- drawing inferences
- summarizing

Bottom-up strategies are text based; the listener relies on the language in the message, that is, the combination of sounds, words, and grammar that creates meaning. Bottom-up strategies include

- listening for specific details
- recognizing cognates
- recognizing word-order patterns

Strategic listeners also **use *metacognitive strategies*** to plan, monitor, and evaluate their listening.

- They plan by deciding which listening strategies will serve best in a particular situation.
- They monitor their comprehension and the effectiveness of the selected strategies.
- They evaluate by determining whether they have achieved their listening comprehension goals and whether the combination of listening strategies selected was an effective one.

Listening for Meaning

To extract meaning from a listening text, students need to follow four basic steps:

- Figure out the purpose for listening. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate listening strategies.
- Attend to the parts of the listening input that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory in order to recognize it.
- Select top-down and bottom-up strategies that are appropriate to the listening task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up strategies simultaneously to construct meaning.
- Check comprehension while listening and when the listening task is over. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, directing them to use alternate strategies.

source: http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/listening/stratlisten.htm

A chef is describing a recipe on the radio. An expert cook and a trainee cook are listening to the radio chef. What processing strategies might they employ in their listening?

Discussion: the experts purpose of listening is different from that of a trainee. The expert wants to compare and contrast his recipe, but the trainee cook does not know about cooking, has to pay greater attention and learn different strategies involved in the recipe. SO the expert uses top down processing where as the trainee uses bottom up processing.

Developing Listening Activities

As you design listening tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in an aural text is an unrealistic expectation to which even native speakers are not usually held. Listening exercises that are meant to train should be success-oriented and build up students' confidence in their listening ability.

Construct the listening activity around a contextualized task.

Contextualized listening activities approximate real-life tasks and give the listener an idea of the type of information to expect and what to do with it in advance of the actual listening. A

beginning level task would be locating places on a map (one way) or exchanging name and address information (two way). At an intermediate level students could follow directions for assembling something (one way) or work in pairs to create a story to tell to the rest of the class (two way).

Define the activity's instructional goal and type of response.

Each activity should have as its goal the improvement of one or more specific listening skills. A listening activity may have more than one goal or outcome, but be careful not to overburden the attention of beginning or intermediate listeners.

Recognizing the goal(s) of listening comprehension in each listening situation will help students select appropriate listening strategies.

- Identification: Recognizing or discriminating specific aspects of the message, such as sounds, categories of words, morphological distinctions
- Orientation: Determining the major facts about a message, such as topic, text type, setting
- Main idea comprehension: Identifying the higher-order ideas
- Detail comprehension: Identifying supporting details
- Replication: Reproducing the message orally or in writing

Check the level of difficulty of the listening text.

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a listening text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow.

How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.

Does the text contain redundancy? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of the language.

Does the text involve multiple individuals and objects? Are they clearly differentiated? It is easier to understand a text with a doctor and a patient than one with two doctors, and it is even easier if they are of the opposite sex. In other words, the more marked the differences, the easier the comprehension.

Does the text offer visual support to aid in the interpretation of what the listeners hear? Visual aids such as maps, diagrams, pictures, or the images in a video help contextualize the listening input and provide clues to meaning.

Use pre-listening activities to prepare students for what they are going to hear or view. The activities chosen during pre-listening may serve as preparation for listening in several ways. During pre-listening the teacher may

- assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text
- provide students with the background knowledge necessary for their comprehension of the listening passage or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess
- clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage
- make students aware of the type of text they will be listening to, the role they will play, and the purpose(s) for which they will be listening
- provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for background reading or class discussion activities
- looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs
- reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures
- reading something relevant
- constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related)
- predicting the content of the listening text
- going over the directions or instructions for the activity
- doing guided practice

Match while-listening activities to the instructional goal, the listening purpose, and students' proficiency level.

While-listening activities relate directly to the text, and students do them do during or immediately after the time they are listening. Keep these points in mind when planning while-listening activities:

If students are to complete a written task during or immediately after listening, allow them to read through it before listening. Students need to devote all their attention to the listening task. Be sure they understand the instructions for the written task before listening begins so that they are not distracted by the need to figure out what to do.

Keep writing to a minimum during listening. Remember that the primary goal is comprehension, not production. Having to write while listening may distract students from

this primary goal. If a written response is to be given after listening, the task can be more demanding.

Organize activities so that they guide listeners through the text. Combine global activities such as getting the main idea, topic, and setting with selective listening activities that focus on details of content and form.

*Use questions to focus students' attention on the elements of the text crucial to comprehension of the whole.*Before the listening activity begins, have students review questions they will answer orally or in writing after listening. Listening for the answers will help students recognize the crucial parts of the message.

Use predicting to encourage students to monitor their comprehension as they listen. Do a predicting activity before listening, and remind students to review what they are hearing to see if it makes sense in the context of their prior knowledge and what they already know of the topic or events of the passage.

Give immediate feedback whenever possible. Encourage students to examine how or why their responses were incorrect.

Task based Teaching:

In task based teaching, learners have to listen to the speaker and carry out the tasks given by the speaker. For example, they listen to the text and fill in a table / label a diagram / list the main points. Successful performance of these tasks shows that learners have comprehended the message. Learners feel motivated to do these tasks as they resemble natural language use.

Sample while-listening activities

- listening with visuals
- filling in graphs and charts
- following a route on a map
- checking off items in a list
- listening for the gist
- searching for specific clues to meaning
- completing cloze (fill-in) exercises
- distinguishing between formal and informal registers

Story based method: A teacher can tell as tory to the students , real orimaginary and pause frequently while narrating the story and ask them to guess what is going to happen next

IV. Speaking

Problems of Teaching Oral Communication, Contexts of Speaking, A natural process of developing Spoken skills through exposure and use specific methods and techniques Teaching Speaking

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
- Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
- Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

Section Contents

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Speaking

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation.

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output.

Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves.

Language input may be content oriented or form oriented.

- Content-oriented input focuses on information, whether it is a simple weather report or an extended lecture on an academic topic. Content-oriented input may also include descriptions of learning strategies and examples of their use.

- Form-oriented input focuses on ways of using the language: guidance from the teacher or another source on vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar (linguistic competence); appropriate things to say in specific contexts (discourse competence); expectations for rate of speech, pause length, turn-taking, and other social aspects of language use (sociolinguistic competence); and explicit instruction in phrases to use to ask for clarification and repair miscommunication (strategic competence).

  In the presentation part of a lesson, an instructor combines content-oriented and form-oriented input. The amount of input that is actually provided in the target language depends on students' listening proficiency and also on the situation. For students at lower levels, or in situations where a quick explanation on a grammar topic is needed, an explanation in English may be more appropriate than one in the target language. .

  Structured output focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced.

  Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. Instructors often use structured output exercises as a transition between the presentation stage and the practice stage of a lesson plan. textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities.

  In ***communicative output,*** the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.

  In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself.

  In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning.

Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies -- using minimal responses, recognizing scripts, and using language to talk about language -- that they can use to help themselves expand their knowledge of the language and their confidence in using it. These instructors help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

1. Using minimal responses

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners.

Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.

2. Recognizing scripts

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges -- a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts. So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated.

Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

V. Using language to talk about language

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.

By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs, and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

Developing Speaking Activities

Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one person asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question.

In contrast, the purpose of real communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must manage uncertainty about what the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an information gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding.

To create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, instructors need to incorporate a purpose and an information gap and allow for multiple forms of expression. However, quantity alone will not necessarily produce competent speakers. Instructors need to combine structured output activities, which allow for error correction and increased accuracy, with communicative output activities that give students opportunities to practice language use more freely.

Structured Output Activities

Two common kinds of structured output activities are *information gap* and *jigsaw* activities. In both these types of activities, students complete a task by obtaining missing information, a feature the activities have in common with real communication. However, information gap and jigsaw activities also set up practice on specific items of language. In this respect they are more like drills than like communication.

Information Gap Activities

- Filling the gaps in a schedule or timetable: Partner A holds an airline timetable with some of the arrival and departure times missing. Partner B has the same timetable but with different blank spaces. The two partners are not permitted to see each other's timetables and must fill in the blanks by asking each other appropriate questions. The features of language that are practiced would include questions beginning with "when" or "at what time." Answers would be limited mostly to time expressions like "at 8:15" or "at ten in the evening."

- Completing the picture: The two partners have similar pictures, each with different missing details, and they cooperate to find all the missing details. In another variation, no items are missing, but similar items differ in appearance. For example, in one picture, a man walking along the street may be wearing an overcoat, while in the other the man is wearing a jacket. The features of grammar and vocabulary that are practiced are determined by the content of the pictures and the items that are missing or different. Differences in the activities depicted lead to practice of different verbs.

  Differences in number, size, and shape lead to adjective practice. Differing locations would probably be described with prepositional phrases.

  These activities may be set up so that the partners must practice more than just grammatical and lexical features. For example, the timetable activity gains a social dimension when one partner assumes the role of a student trying to make an appointment with a partner who takes the role of a professor. Each partner has pages from an appointment book in which certain

dates and times are already filled in and other times are still available for an appointment. Of course, the open times don't match exactly, so there must be some polite negotiation to arrive at a mutually convenient time for a meeting or a conference.

Jigsaw Activities

Jigsaw activities are more elaborate information gap activities that can be done with several partners. In a jigsaw activity, each partner has one or a few pieces of the "puzzle," and the partners must cooperate to fit all the pieces into a whole picture. The puzzle piece may take one of several forms. It may be one panel from a comic strip or one photo from a set that tells a story. It may be one sentence from a written narrative. It may be a tape recording of a conversation, in which case no two partners hear exactly the same conversation.

- In one fairly simple jigsaw activity, students work in groups of four. Each student in the group receives one panel from a comic strip. Partners may not show each other their panels. Together the four panels present this narrative: a man takes a container of ice cream from the freezer; he serves himself several scoops of ice cream; he sits in front of the TV eating his ice cream; he returns with the empty bowl to the kitchen and finds that he left the container of ice cream, now melting, on the kitchen counter. These pictures have a clear narrative line and the partners are not likely to disagree about the appropriate sequencing. You can make the task more demanding, however, by using pictures that lend themselves to alternative sequences, so that the partners have to negotiate among themselves to agree on a satisfactory sequence.
- More elaborate jigsaws may proceed in two stages. Students first work in input groups (groups A, B, C, and D) to receive information. Each group receives a different part of the total information for the task. Students then reorganize into groups of four with one student each from A, B, C, and D, and use the information they received to complete the task. Such an organization could be used, for example, when the input is given in the form of a tape recording. Groups A, B, C, and D each hear a different recording of a short news bulletin. The four recordings all contain the same general information, but each has one or more details that the others do not. In the second stage, students reconstruct the complete story by comparing the four versions.

With information gap and jigsaw activities, instructors need to be conscious of the language demands they place on their students. If an activity calls for language your students have not already practiced, you can brainstorm with them when setting up the activity to preview the language they will need, eliciting what they already know and supplementing what they are able to produce themselves.

Structured output activities can form an effective bridge between instructor modeling and communicative output because they are partly authentic and partly artificial. Like authentic communication, they feature information gaps that must be bridged for successful completion of the task. However, where authentic communication allows speakers to use all of the language they know, structured output activities lead students to practice specific features of language and to practice only in brief sentences, not in extended discourse. Also, structured output situations are contrived and more like games than real communication, and the participants' social roles are irrelevant to the performance of the activity. This structure controls the number of variables that students must deal with when they are first exposed to

new material. As they become comfortable, they can move on to true communicative output activities.

Communicative Output Activities

Communicative output activities allow students to practice using all of the language they know in situations that resemble real settings. In these activities, students must work together to develop a plan, resolve a problem, or complete a task. The most common types of communicative output activity are *role plays* and*discussions* .

In role plays, students are assigned roles and put into situations that they may eventually encounter outside the classroom. Because role plays imitate life, the range of language functions that may be used expands considerably. Also, the role relationships among the students as they play their parts call for them to practice and develop their sociolinguistic competence. They have to use language that is appropriate to the situation and to the characters.

Students usually find role playing enjoyable, but students who lack self-confidence or have lower proficiency levels may find them intimidating at first. To succeed with role plays:

- Prepare carefully: Introduce the activity by describing the situation and making sure that all of the students understand it
- Set a goal or outcome: Be sure the students understand what the product of the role play should be, whether a plan, a schedule, a group opinion, or some other product
- Use role cards: Give each student a card that describes the person or role to be played. For lower-level students, the cards can include words or expressions that that person might use.
- Brainstorm: Before you start the role play, have students brainstorm as a class to predict what vocabulary, grammar, and idiomatic expressions they might use.
- Keep groups small: Less-confident students will feel more able to participate if they do not have to compete with many voices.
- Give students time to prepare: Let them work individually to outline their ideas and the language they will need to express them.
- Be present as a resource, not a monitor: Stay in communicative mode to answer students' questions. Do not correct their pronunciation or grammar unless they specifically ask you about it.
- Allow students to work at their own levels: Each student has individual language skills, an individual approach to working in groups, and a specific role to play in the activity. Do not expect all students to contribute equally to the discussion, or to use every grammar point you have taught.
- Do topical follow-up: Have students report to the class on the outcome of their role plays.
- Do linguistic follow-up: After the role play is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Discussions, like role plays, succeed when the instructor prepares students first, and then gets out of the way. To succeed with discussions:

- Prepare the students: Give them input (both topical information and language forms) so that they will have something to say and the language with which to say it.
- Offer choices: Let students suggest the topic for discussion or choose from several options. Discussion does not always have to be about serious issues. Students are likely to be more motivated to participate if the topic is television programs, plans for a vacation, or news about mutual friends. Weighty topics like how to combat pollution are not as engaging and place heavy demands on students' linguistic competence.
- Set a goal or outcome: This can be a group product, such as a letter to the editor, or individual reports on the views of others in the group.
- Use small groups instead of whole-class discussion: Large groups can make participation difficult.
- Keep it short: Give students a defined period of time, not more than 8-10 minutes, for discussion. Allow them to stop sooner if they run out of things to say.
- Allow students to participate in their own way: Not every student will feel comfortable talking about every topic. Do not expect all of them to contribute equally to the conversation.
- Do topical follow-up: Have students report to the class on the results of their discussion.
- Do linguistic follow-up: After the discussion is over, give feedback on grammar or
- pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Through well-prepared communicative output activities such as role plays and discussions, you can encourage students to experiment and innovate with the language, and create a supportive atmosphere that allows them to make mistakes without fear of embarrassment. This will contribute to their self-confidence as speakers and to their motivation to learn more. http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/speaking/spindex.htm

VI. Reading

Teaching Reading

Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language has been to have access to the literature written in that language. In language instruction, reading materials have traditionally been chosen from literary texts that represent "higher" forms of culture.

This approach assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them.

The communicative approach to language teaching has given instructors a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and travel and tourism Web sites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them is one way communicative competence is developed. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level.

Reading Purpose and Reading Comprehension

Reading is an activity with a purpose. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. A person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens.

Reading research shows that good readers

- Read extensively
- Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge
- Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading
- Are motivated
- Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall
- Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

Reading as a Process

Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is. Reader knowledge, skills, and strategies include

- Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences

- Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they connect parts of the text to one another
- Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content
- Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies (see Strategies for Developing Reading Skills for descriptions), as well as knowledge of the language (a bottom-up strategy)

The purpose(s) for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. Reading comprehension results when the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Reading

Instructors want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of reading, this means producing students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

Focus: The Reading Process

To accomplish this goal, instructors focus on the process of reading rather than on its product.

- They develop students' awareness of the reading process and reading strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they read in their native language.
- They allow students to practice the full repertoire of reading strategies by using authentic reading tasks. They encourage students to read to learn (and have an authentic purpose for reading) by giving students some choice of reading material.
- When working with reading tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the reading purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.
- They have students practice reading strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their reading assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete reading assignments.
- They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and self-report their use of strategies. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class reading assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.

- They encourage the development of reading skills and the use of reading strategies by using the target language to convey instructions and course-related information in written form: office hours, homework assignments, test content.
- They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of reading task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of reading as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching reading strategies, instructors help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the new language.

Integrating Reading Strategies

Instruction in reading strategies is not an add-on, but rather an integral part of the use of reading activities in the language classroom. Instructors can help their students become effective readers by teaching them how to use strategies before, during, and after reading. Before reading: Plan for the reading task

- Set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for
- Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
- Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)
- Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses
- Decide what is and is not important to understand
- Reread to check comprehension
- Ask for help
- Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area
- Evaluate overall progress in reading and in particular types of reading tasks
- Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task
- Modify strategies if necessary

Using Authentic Materials and Approaches

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble (or be) real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. They must therefore be authentic in three ways.

1. The reading material must be authentic: It must be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other

contexts outside the classroom.When selecting texts for student assignments, remember that the difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are expected to complete. Simplifying a text by changing the language often removes natural redundancy and makes the organization somewhat difficult for students to predict. This actually makes a text more difficult to read than if the original were used. Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading.

2. The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them. "Because the teacher assigned it" is not an authentic reason for reading a text. To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. Give them opportunities to choose their reading assignments, and encourage them to use the library, the Internet, and foreign language newsstands and bookstores to find other things they would like to read.
3. The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom, such as reading for pleasure. The majority of students' reading should be done silently.

Reading Aloud in the Classroom

Students do not learn to read by reading aloud. A person who reads aloud and comprehends the meaning of the text is coordinating word recognition with comprehension and speaking and pronunciation ability in highly complex ways. Students whose language skills are limited are not able to process at this level, and end up having to drop one or more of the elements. Usually the dropped element is comprehension, and reading aloud becomes word calling: simply pronouncing a series of words without regard for the meaning they carry individually and together. Word calling is not productive for the student who is doing it, and it is boring for other students to listen to.

- There are two ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. Read aloud to your students as they follow along silently. You have the ability to use inflection and tone to help them hear what the text is saying. Following along as you read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language.
- Use the "read and look up" technique. With this technique, a student reads a phrase or sentence silently as many times as necessary, then looks up (away from the text) and tells you what the phrase or sentence says. This encourages students to read for ideas, rather than for word recognition.

Strategies for Developing Reading Skills

Using Reading Strategies

Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language instructor, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language.

Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation. Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include

- Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection
- Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content
- Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions
- Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up
- Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text

Instructors can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.

- By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
- By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.
- By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students learn to guess meaning from context.
- By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

Reading to Learn

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

- Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.
- Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.
- Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have
- access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

- Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.
- Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
- Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
- Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

Developing Reading Activities

Developing reading activities involves more than identifying a text that is "at the right level," writing a set of comprehension questions for students to answer after reading, handing out the assignment and sending students away to do it. A fully-developed reading activity supports students as readers through pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

As you design reading tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in a text is an unrealistic expectation even for native speakers. Reading activities that are meant to increase communicative competence should be success oriented and build up students' confidence in their reading ability.

Construct the reading activity around a purpose that has significance for the students
Make sure students understand what the purpose for reading is: to get the main idea, obtain specific information, understand most or all of the message, enjoy a story, or decide whether or not to read more. Recognizing the purpose for reading will help students select appropriate reading strategies.

Define the activity's instructional goal and the appropriate type of response

In addition to the main purpose for reading, an activity can also have one or more instructional purposes, such as practicing or reviewing specific grammatical constructions, introducing new vocabulary, or familiarizing students with the typical structure of a certain type of text.

Check the level of difficulty of the text

- The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a reading text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.
- How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow.
- How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.
- Does the text contain redundancy? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of authentic language.
- Does the text offer visual support to aid in reading comprehension? Visual aids such as photographs, maps, and diagrams help students preview the content of the text, guess the meanings of unknown words, and check comprehension while reading.
- Remember that the level of difficulty of a text is not the same as the level of difficulty of a reading task. Students who lack the vocabulary to identify all of the items on a menu can still determine whether the restaurant serves steak and whether they can afford to order one.

Use pre-reading activities to prepare students for reading

The activities you use during pre-reading may serve as preparation in several ways. During pre-reading you may:

- Assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text
- Give students the background knowledge necessary for comprehension of the text, or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess
- Clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage
- Make students aware of the type of text they will be reading and the purpose(s) for reading
- Provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for class discussion activities

Sample pre-reading activities:

- Using the title, subtitles, and divisions within the text to predict content and organization or sequence of information
- Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and their captions
- Talking about the author's background, writing style, and usual topics
- Skimming to find the theme or main idea and eliciting related prior knowledge
- Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures
- Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading
- Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related)
- Doing guided practice with guessing meaning from context or checking comprehension while reading

Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

Match while-reading activities to the purpose for reading

In while-reading activities, students check their comprehension as they read. The purpose for reading determines the appropriate type and level of comprehension.

- When reading for specific information, students need to ask themselves, have I obtained the information I was looking for?
- When reading for pleasure, students need to ask themselves, Do I understand the story line/sequence of ideas well enough to enjoy reading this?

- When reading for thorough understanding (intensive reading), students need to ask themselves, Do I understand each main idea and how the author supports it? Does what I'm reading agree with my predictions, and, if not, how does it differ? To check comprehension in this situation, students may

- Stop at the end of each section to review and check their predictions, restate the main idea and summarize the section
- Use the comprehension questions as guides to the text, stopping to answer them as they read

Using Textbook Reading Activities

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Newer textbooks may provide pre-reading activities and reading strategy guidance, but their one-size-fits-all approach may or may not be appropriate for your students.

You can use the guidelines for developing reading activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students. Don't make students do exercises simply because they are in the book; this destroys motivation.

Another problem with textbook reading selections is that they have been adapted to a predetermined reading level through adjustment of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence length. This makes them more immediately approachable, but it also means that they are less authentic and do not encourage students to apply the reading strategies they will need to use outside of class. When this is the case, use the textbook reading selection as a starting point to introduce a writer or topic, and then give students choices of more challenging authentic texts to read as a follow up.

VII. Teaching Writing

Teaching how to write effectively is one of the most important life-long skills educators impart to their students. When teaching writing, educators must be sure to select resources and support materials that not only aid them in teaching how to write, but that will also be the most effective in helping their students learn to write.

Writing conventions such as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and grammar help make a student’s essay clear and understandable. When the audience can finish reading, without having to stop to try to figure out what was actually intended, the value of learning these writing conventions becomes clear.

Four Different Types of Writing Styles: Expository, Descriptive, Persuasive, and Narrative Expository Writing

Expository writing's main purpose is to explain. It is a subject-oriented writing style, in which authors focus on telling you about a given topic or subject without voicing their personal opinions. These types of essays or articles furnish you with relevant facts and figures but do

not include their opinions. This is one of the most common types of writing. You always see it in textbooks and how-to articles. The author just tells you about a given subject, such as how to do something.

Key Points:

- Usually explains something in a process.
- Is often equipped with facts and figures.
- Is usually in a logical order and sequence.

When You Would Use Expository Writing:

- Textbook writing.
- How-to articles.
- Recipes.
- News stories (not including opinion or editorial pieces).
- Business, technical, or scientific writing.

Example:

Many people associate the taste of pumpkins with fall. In October, companies from Starbucks to McDonalds roll out their pumpkin-flavored lattes and desserts. Here is how to make an easy pumpkin pie using only five ingredients. First, make sure you have all of the ingredients. This writing is expository because it is *explaining*. In this case, you can already tell that the piece will be about how to make a pumpkin pie.

Non-example:

Everyone knows that the best part about fall is all of the pumpkin-flavored desserts. Pumpkin pie is the best fall treat because it is not only delicious but also nutritious. Pumpkin is filled with vitamin A, which is essential for a healthy immune system and good vision.

This is not expository because several opinions are stated, such as “Pumpkin pie is the best fall treat…” Although this excerpt contains a fact about pumpkin containing vitamin A, that fact is used as evidence to support the opinion. These opinions make this an example of persuasive writing.

2. Descriptive

Descriptive writing focuses on communicating the details of a character, event, or place. Descriptive writing's main purpose is to describe. It is a style of writing that focuses on describing a character, an event, or a place in great detail. It can be poetic when the author takes the time to be very specific in his or her descriptions.

Example:

In good descriptive writing, the author will not just say: “The vampire killed his lover.”

He or she will change the sentence, focusing on more details and descriptions, like: “The bloody, red-eyed vampire, sunk his rust-colored teeth into the soft skin of his lover and ended her life."

Key Points:

- It is often poetic in nature
- It describes places, people, events, situations, or locations in a highly-detailed manner.
- The author visualizes what he or she sees, hears, tastes, smells, and feels.

When You Would Use Descriptive Writing:

- Poetry
- Journal or diary writing
- Nature writing
- Descriptive passages in fiction

Example:

The iPhone 6 is unexpectedly light. While size of its screen is bigger than those of the iPhones that came before, it is thinner, and its smooth, rounded body is made of aluminum, stainless steel, and glass. The casing comes in a whitish silver, gold, or a color the company calls “space gray,” the color of the lead of a pencil, with darker gray accents.

This is an example because it describes aspects of the phone. It includes details such as the size, weight, and material.

Non-example:

So you just brought home a shiny new smartphone with a smooth glass screen the size of your palm. The first thing you will want to do when purchasing a new cell is buy a case. Cracking your screen is an awful feeling, and protection is inexpensive when you compare it to the costs of a new phone.

Even though this example uses adjectives, you can tell that this is not an example of descriptive writing because the purpose is not to describe the phone—it’s to persuade you to buy a case.

2. Persuasive

Persuasive writing's main purpose is to convince. Unlike expository writing, persuasive writing contains the opinions and biases of the author. To convince others to agree with the author's point of view, persuasive writing contains justifications and reasons. It is often used in letters of complaint, advertisements or commercials, affiliate marketing pitches, cover letters, and newspaper opinion and editorial pieces.

Key Points:

- Persuasive writing is equipped with reasons, arguments, and justifications.
- In persuasive writing, the author takes a stand and asks you to agree with his or her point of view.
- It often asks for readers to do something about the situation (this is called a call-to-action).

When You Would Use Persuasive Writing:

- Opinion and editorial newspaper pieces.
- Advertisements.
- Reviews (of books, music, movie, restaurants, etc.).
- Letter of recommendation.
- Letter of complaint.
- Cover letters

Example:

Following the 2012 Olympic Games hosted in London, the UK Trade and Investment department reported a £9.9 billion boost to the economy. Although it is expensive to host the

Olympics, if done right, they can provide real jobs and economic growth. This city should consider placing a bid to host the Olympics.

This is persuasive writing because the author has a belief—that "this city should consider placing a bid to host the Olympics"—and is trying to convince others to agree.

Non-example:

According to legend, the Olympics were founded by Hercules. Now almost 100 countries participate in the Games, with over two million people attending. So cities from Boston to Hamburg begin considering their bid to be a host city more than 10 years in advance.

All of these statements are facts. Therefore it's expository. To be persuasive writing, you must have an opinion that you're trying to persuade people of—then, of course, you will support that opinion with evidence.

4. Narrative

Narrative writing's main purpose is to tell a story. The author will create different characters and tell you what happens to them (sometimes the author writes from the point of view of one of the characters—this is known as first person narration). Novels, short stories, novellas, poetry, and biographies can all fall in the narrative writing style. Simply, narrative writing answers the question: "What happened then?"

Key Points:

- A person tells a story or event.
- Has characters and dialogue.
- Has definite and logical beginnings, intervals, and endings.
- Often has situations like actions, motivational events, and disputes or conflicts with their eventual solutions.

Examples of When You Would Use Persuasive Writing:

- Novels
- Short stories
- Novellas
- Poetry
- Autobiographies or biographies
- Anecdotes
- Oral histories

Example:

"I don't think that's a good idea," said Jaelyn.

"You never used to be such a girl!" retorted Orin, pushing open the door.

Reluctantly, Jaelyn followed.

This is a narrative because it's telling a story. There are different characters conversing, and a plot is unravelling.

Non-example:

Cutting Edge Haunted House holds the Guinness World Record for the largest haunted house on earth. It's located in a district in Fort Worth, Texas known as "Hell's Half Acre" in a century-old abandoned meat-packing plant. The haunted house takes an hour to complete, winding through horrific scenes incorporating the factory's original meat-packing equipment. While this would serve as a worthy setting for a story, it would need a plot before it could be called a narrative.

Conclusion

These are the four different types of writing that are generally used. There are many sub-types of writing that may fall in any of those categories. A writer must know all these styles in order to identify the purpose of his or her own writing and make sure it's something the audience wants to read.

Source: https://letterpile.com/writing/Four-Types-of-Writing

Types of writing

The functions of writing: Writing is an essential, productive language skill which is very indispensable for success and recognition in academic circles. A person may have mastery over subject, but unless and otherwise the scientific findings are shared in the circle of experts, the knowledge remains unnoticed. Sheils (1975) is of the opinion that there has been a long-standing concern that many people do not develop the required competence to write well according to the demands for writing at work and for scholarly purposes. Scientific writing involves presenting theory with evidence, describing, narrating, analysing, drawings and conclusions based on logical presentation of ideas. It is very essential to write without grammatical errors, presenting and organizing ideas with coherence, the ability to convince the audience. A writer needs to have a mastery over different genres of writing, mechanics of writing, drafting and redrafting, with right usage of words. Speaking of writing in academic contexts, Pylkkänen and McElree (2006) suggest that while constructing sentences, grammatical coordination, appropriate lexis and correct spelling needs to be focused upon.

Speech and writing are communication practices which are subject to the physical conditions of, respectively, the visual and auditory senses. As to the interpretation of the resulting differences, there are two schools of thought: those who emphasize the qualitative disparity of spoken and written language and the communicative functions that writing alone allows; and those who conceive of writing as a gradual expansion of speech and highlight the diversity of written language uses in different sociocultural settings. Among those who represent the former, Jack Goody in his earlier works may be mentioned as well as David Olson and Walter Ong. Two prominent advocates of the latter are Brian Street and Harvey Graff. Writing evolved as a visual medium of communication which circumvents or transcends certain limitations of speech. Five functions in particular stand out as distinguishing writing from speech: the mnemonic function, the distancing function, the reification function, the social control function, and the aesthetic function. Although members of oral societies are often said to command a memory that far surpasses that of literate people, the amount of information that can be stored by means of writing and retrieved from written records clearly transcends the capacity of individual remembrance.

The audience or the reader of written texts

Identifying an Audience

The concept of audience can be very confusing for novice researchers. Should the student's audience be her instructor only, or should her paper attempt to reach a larger academic crowd? These are two extremes on the pendulum-course that is audience; the former is too narrow of an audience, while the latter is too broad. Therefore, it is important for the student to articulate an audience that falls somewhere in between.

It is perhaps helpful to approach the audience of a research paper in the same way one would when preparing for an oral presentation. Often, one changes her style, tone, diction, etc., when presenting to different audiences. So it is with writing a research paper (In fact, you

may need to transform your written work into an oral work if you find yourself presenting at a conference someday).

The instructor should be considered only one member of the paper's audience; he is part of the academic audience that desires students to investigate, research, and evaluate a topic. Try to imagine an audience that would be interested in and benefit from your research.

For example: if the student is writing a twelve page research paper about ethanol and its importance as an energy source of the future, would she write with an audience of elementary students in mind? This would be unlikely. Instead, she would tailor her writing to be accessible to an audience of fellow engineers and perhaps to the scientific community in general. What is more, she would assume the audience to be at a certain educational level; therefore, she would not spend time in such a short research paper defining terms and concepts already familiar to those in the field. However, she should also avoid the type of esoteric discussion that condescends to her audience. Again, the student must articulate a middle-ground.

- The following are questions that may help the student discern further her audience:
- Who is the general audience I want to reach?
- Who is most likely to be interested in the research I am doing?
- What is it about my topic that interests the general audience I have discerned?
- If the audience I am writing for is not particularly interested in my topic, what should I do to pique its interest?
- Will each member of the broadly conceived audience agree with what I have to say?
- If not (which will likely be the case!) what counter-arguments should I be prepared to answer?

Remember, one of the purposes of a research paper is to add something new to the academic community, and the first-time researcher should understand her role as an initiate into a particular community of scholars. As the student increases her involvement in the field, her understanding of her audience will grow as well. Once again, practice lies at the heart of the thing.

source: https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/658/04/

6. Teaching Grammar

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. It is also one of the more difficult aspects of language to teach well.

Definitions of Grammar: Etymologically, Grammar is the “Art of Letters”. The word comes via Anglo-Norman “Gramere”. According to The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English, Grammar is referred to as “study or science of, rules for, the words into sentences (syntax), and the forms of words (morphology)”. Dr. Johnson in his book English Grammar states that “Grammar is the science of speaking correctly: The art which teaches the relations of words to each other”. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines grammar as “the study of use of the rules by which words change their forms and are

combined into sentences." In fact, grammar is "multi-dimensional" and has multi-meanings. It is generally thought to be a set of rules for choosing words and putting words together to make sense. Every language has a grammar. It has been held that if a language is a building, the words are the bricks and the grammar is the architect's plan. One may have a million bricks, but do not make a building without a plan. Similarly, if a person knows a million English words, but he doesn't know how to put them together, then he cannot speak English. Let us now try to understand what people in general follow by the word "Grammar". This word means differently to various people. To an ordinary citizen "Grammar is correct and incorrect English". To a student it is "analytical and terminological study of sentences". While to a linguist it means "the total set of signals by which a given language expresses meaning".

It is said that there are three kinds of Grammar namely; G1, G2 and G3. G1 is the total mechanism which a language possesses and through which its users are able to communicate with each other. Every native speaker, whether literate or illiterate, knows and controls his or her G1. Each language possesses a distinctive G1, peculiar to itself. G2 refers to all formal analysis and description of the rules of the language. The illiterate native speaker of a language may know its G1 but not G2. However, when he or she begins to think of language consciously, to wonder what should be said in a situation to get the message across, he or she is involved in the G2 of the language. G3; grammar refers to the rules of correct use of a - language which may be prescribed for its users.

source http://www.worldwidejournals.com/international-journal-of-scientific-research-(IJSR)/file.php?val=August_2015_1441172426__38.pdf

Many people, including language teachers, hear the word "grammar" and think of a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate "good" grammar with the prestige forms of the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and "bad" or "no" grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers of non-prestige forms.

Language teachers who adopt this definition focus on grammar as a set of forms and rules. They teach grammar by explaining the forms and rules and then drilling students on them. This results in bored, disaffected students who can produce correct forms on exercises and tests, but consistently make errors when they try to use the language in context.

Other language teachers, influenced by recent theoretical work on the difference between language learning and language acquisition, tend not to teach grammar at all. Believing that children acquire their first language without overt grammar instruction, they expect students to learn their second language the same way. They assume that students will absorb grammar rules as they hear, read, and use the language in communication activities. This approach does not allow students to use one of the major tools they have as learners: their active understanding of what grammar is and how it works in the language they already know.

The communicative competence model balances these extremes. The model recognizes that overt grammar instruction helps students acquire the language more efficiently, but it incorporates grammar teaching and learning into the larger context of teaching students to use

the language. Instructors using this model teach students the grammar they need to know to accomplish defined communication tasks.

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Grammar

The goal of grammar instruction is to enable students to carry out their communication purposes. This goal has three implications:

- Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.
- Students do not need to master every aspect of each grammar point, only those that are relevant to the immediate communication task.
- Error correction is not always the instructor's first responsibility.

Overt Grammar Instruction

Adult students appreciate and benefit from direct instruction that allows them to apply critical thinking skills to language learning. Instructors can take advantage of this by providing explanations that give students a descriptive understanding (declarative knowledge) of each point of grammar.

- Teach the grammar point in the target language or the students' first language or both. The goal is to facilitate understanding.
- Limit the time you devote to grammar explanations to 10 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.
- Present grammar points in written and oral ways to address the needs of students with different learning styles.

An important part of grammar instruction is providing examples. Teachers need to plan their examples carefully around two basic principles:

- Be sure the examples are accurate and appropriate. They must present the language appropriately, be culturally appropriate for the setting in which they are used, and be to the point of the lesson.
- Use the examples as teaching tools. Focus examples on a particular theme or topic so that students have more contact with specific information and vocabulary.

Relevance of Grammar Instruction

In the communicative competence model, the purpose of learning grammar is to learn the language of which the grammar is a part. Instructors therefore teach grammar forms and structures in relation to meaning and use for the specific communication tasks that students need to complete.

Compare the traditional model and the communicative competence model for teaching the

English past tense:

Traditional: grammar for grammar's sake

- Teach the regular *-ed* form with its two pronunciation variants
- Teach the doubling rule for verbs that end in *d* (for example, *wed-wedded*)
- Hand out a list of irregular verbs that students must memorize
- Do pattern practice drills for *-ed*
- Do substitution drills for irregular verbs
- Distribute two short narratives about recent experiences or events, each one to half of the class
- Teach the regular *-ed* form, using verbs that occur in the texts as examples. Teach the pronunciation and doubling rules if those forms occur in the texts.
- Teach the irregular verbs that occur in the texts.
- Students read the narratives, ask questions about points they don't understand.
- Students work in pairs in which one member has read Story A and the other Story B.
- Students interview one another; using the information from the interview, they then write up or orally repeat the story they have not read.

Error Correction

At all proficiency levels, learners produce language that is not exactly the language used by native speakers. Some of the differences are grammatical, while others involve vocabulary selection and mistakes in the selection of language appropriate for different contexts.

In responding to student communication, teachers need to be careful not to focus on error correction to the detriment of communication and confidence building. Teachers need to let students know when they are making errors so that they can work on improving. Teachers also need to build students' confidence in their ability to use the language by focusing on the content of their communication rather than the grammatical form.

Teachers can use error correction to support language acquisition, and avoid using it in ways that undermine students' desire to communicate in the language, by taking cues from context.

- When students are doing structured output activities that focus on development of new language skills, use error correction to guide them.

Example:

Student *(in class)*: I buy a new car yesterday.

Teacher: You *bought* a new car yesterday. Remember, the past tense of buy is bought.

When students are engaged in communicative activities, correct errors only if they interfere with comprehensibility. Respond using correct forms, but without stressing them.

Example:

Student *(greeting teacher)* : I buy a new car yesterday!

Teacher: You bought a new car? That's exciting! What kind?

Strategies for Learning Grammar

Language teachers and language learners are often frustrated by the disconnect between knowing the rules of grammar and being able to apply those rules automatically in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This disconnect reflects a separation between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge.

- Declarative knowledge is knowledge *about* something. Declarative knowledge enables a student to describe a rule of grammar and apply it in pattern practice drills.

- Procedural knowledge is knowledge of how to do something. Procedural knowledge enables a student to apply a rule of grammar in communication.

For example, declarative knowledge is what you have when you read and understand the instructions for programming the DVD player. Procedural knowledge is what you demonstrate when you program the DVD player.

Procedural knowledge does not translate automatically into declarative knowledge; many native speakers can use their language clearly and correctly without being able to state the rules of its grammar. Likewise, declarative knowledge does not translate automatically into procedural knowledge; students may be able to state a grammar rule, but consistently fail to apply the rule when speaking or writing.

To address the declarative knowledge/procedural knowledge dichotomy, teachers and students can apply several strategies.

1. Relate knowledge needs to learning goals.

Identify the relationship of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge to student goals for learning the language. Students who plan to use the language exclusively for reading journal articles need to focus more on the declarative knowledge of grammar and discourse structures that will help them understand those texts. Students who plan to live in-country

need to focus more on the procedural knowledge that will help them manage day to day oral and written interactions.

2. Apply higher order thinking skills.

Recognize that development of declarative knowledge can accelerate development of procedural knowledge. Teaching students how the language works and giving them opportunities to compare it with other languages they know allows them to draw on critical thinking and analytical skills. These processes can support the development of the innate understanding that characterizes procedural knowledge.

3. Provide plentiful, appropriate language input.

Understand that students develop both procedural and declarative knowledge on the basis of the input they receive. This input includes both finely tuned input that requires students to pay attention to the relationships among form, meaning, and use for a specific grammar rule, and roughly tuned input that allows students to encounter the grammar rule in a variety of contexts. (For more on input, see Teaching Goals and Methods.)

4. Use predicting skills.

Discourse analyst Douglas Biber has demonstrated that different communication types can be characterized by the clusters of linguistic features that are common to those types. Verb tense and aspect, sentence length and structure, and larger discourse patterns all may contribute to the distinctive profile of a given communication type. For example, a history textbook and a newspaper article in English both use past tense verbs almost exclusively. However, the newspaper article will use short sentences and a discourse pattern that alternates between subjects or perspectives. The history textbook will use complex sentences and will follow a timeline in its discourse structure. Awareness of these features allows students to anticipate the forms and structures they will encounter in a given communication task.

5. Limit expectations for drills.

- Mechanical drills in which students substitute pronouns for nouns or alternate the person, number, or tense of verbs can help students memorize irregular forms and challenging structures. However, students do not develop the ability to use grammar correctly in oral and written interactions by doing mechanical drills, because these drills separate form from meaning and use. The content of the prompt and the response is set in advance; the student only has to supply the correct grammatical form, and can do that without really needing to understand or communicate anything. The main lesson that students learn from doing these drills is: Grammar is boring.

- Communicative drills encourage students to connect form, meaning, and use because multiple correct responses are possible. In communicative drills, students respond to a prompt using the grammar point under consideration, but providing their own content. For example, to practice questions and answers in the past tense in English, teacher and students can ask and answer questions about activities the previous evening. The drill is communicative because none of the content is set in advance:

- Teacher: Did you go to the library last night?

  Student 1: No, I didn't. I went to the movies. (to Student 2): Did you read chapter 3?

Student 2: Yes, I read chapter 3, but I didn't understand it. (to Student 3): Did you Did you read chapter 3?

Student 2: Yes, I read chapter 3, but I didn't understand it. (to Student 3): Did you understand chapter 3?

Student 3: I didn't read chapter 3. I went to the movies with Student 1.

Developing Grammar Activities

Many courses and textbooks, especially those designed for lower proficiency levels, use a specified sequence of grammatical topics as their organizing principle. When this is the case, classroom activities need to reflect the grammar point that is being introduced or reviewed.

By contrast, when a course curriculum follows a topic sequence, grammar points can be addressed as they come up.

In both cases, instructors can use the Larsen-Freeman pie chart as a guide for developing activities.

For curricula that introduce grammatical forms in a specified sequence, instructors need to develop activities that relate form to meaning and use.

- Describe the grammar point, including form, meaning, and use, and give examples (structured input)
- Ask students to practice the grammar point in communicative drills (structured output)
- Have students do a communicative task that provides opportunities to use the grammar point (communicative output)

For curricula that follow a sequence of topics, instructors need to develop activities that relate the topical discourse (use) to meaning and form.

- Provide oral or written input (audiotape, reading selection) that addresses the topic (structured input)
- Review the point of grammar, using examples from the material (structured input)
- Ask students to practice the grammar point in communicative drills that focus on the topic (structured output)
- Have students do a communicative task on the topic (communicative output)

When instructors have the opportunity to develop part or all of the course curriculum, they can develop a series of contexts based on the real world tasks that students will need to perform using the language, and then teach grammar and vocabulary in relation to those contexts.

For example, students who plan to travel will need to understand public address announcements in airports and train stations. Instructors can use audiotaped simulations to provide input; teach the grammatical forms that typically occur in such announcements; and then have students practice by asking and answering questions about what was announced. Communicative Competence

Language teaching in the United States is based on the idea that the goal of language acquisition is communicative competence: the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish communication goals. The desired outcome of the language learning process is the ability to communicate competently, *not* the ability to use the language exactly as a native speaker does.

Communicative competence is made up of four competence areas: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic.

- *Linguistic competence* is knowing how to use the grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language. Linguistic competence asks: What words do I use? How do I put them into phrases and sentences?
- *Sociolinguistic competence* is knowing how to use and respond to language appropriately, given the setting, the topic, and the relationships among the people communicating. Sociolinguistic competence asks: Which words and phrases fit this setting and this topic? How can I express a specific attitude (courtesy, authority, friendliness, respect) when I need to? How do I know what attitude another person is expressing?
- *Discourse competence* is knowing how to interpret the larger context and how to construct longer stretches of language so that the parts make up a coherent whole. Discourse competence asks: How are words, phrases and sentences put together to create conversations, speeches, email messages, newspaper articles?
- *Strategic competence* is knowing how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns, how to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language, and how to learn more about the language and in the context. Strategic competence asks: How do I know when I've misunderstood or when someone has misunderstood me? What do I say then? How can I express my ideas if I don't know the name of something or the right verb form to use?

In the early stages of language learning, instructors and students may want to keep in mind the goal of communicative efficiency: That learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message (due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary); to avoid offending communication partners (due to socially inappropriate style); and to use strategies for recognizing and managing communication breakdowns.

Teaching Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings. As Steven Stahl (2005) puts it, "Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world."

Types of vocabulary:

Ad hoc vocabulary – important for a given piece of text but are unlikely to have any utility outside the text

Passive vocabulary:

Words that may be encountered frequently in speech of writing and which there fore , the student should be able to recognise , though s/he may never use them in his/ her own speech or writing

Active Vocabulary:

words which a student will require for his / her own use, in speech or writing Vocabulary knowledge is not something that can ever be fully mastered; it is something that expands and deepens over the course of a lifetime. Instruction in vocabulary involves far more than looking up words in a dictionary and using the words in a sentence. Vocabulary is acquired incidentally through indirect exposure to words and intentionally through explicit instruction in specific words and word-learning strategies. According to Michael Graves (2000), there are four components of an effective vocabulary program:

1. Wide or extensive independent reading to expand word knowledge

2. Instruction in specific words to enhance comprehension of texts containing those words

3. Instruction in independent word-learning strategies, and

4. Word consciousness and word-play activities to motivate and enhance learning

Some Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary, Selecting vocabulary & presenting The National Reading Panel (2000) concluded that there is no single research-based method for teaching vocabulary. From its analysis, the panel recommended using a variety of direct and indirect methods of vocabulary instruction.

- Intentional vocabulary teaching
- Specific Word Instruction
- Selecting Words to Teach
- Rich and Robust Instruction

Word-Learning Strategies

- Dictionary Use
- Morphemic Analysis
- Cognate Awareness (ELL)
- Contextual Analysis

According to the National Reading Panel (2000), explicit instruction of vocabulary is highly effective. To develop vocabulary intentionally, students should be explicitly taught both specific words and word-learning strategies. To deepen students' knowledge of word meanings, specific word instruction should be robust (Beck et al., 2002). Seeing vocabulary in rich contexts provided by authentic texts, rather than in isolated vocabulary drills, produces robust vocabulary learning (National Reading Panel, 2000). Such instruction often does not begin with a definition, for the ability to give a definition is often the result of knowing what the word means. Rich and robust vocabulary instruction goes beyond definitional knowledge;

it gets students actively engaged in using and thinking about word meanings and in creating relationships among words.

Research shows that there are more words to be learned than can be directly taught in even the most ambitious program of vocabulary instruction. Explicit instruction in word-learning strategies gives students tools for independently determining the meanings of unfamiliar words that have not been explicitly introduced in class. Since students encounter so many unfamiliar words in their reading, any help provided by such strategies can be useful.

Word-learning strategies include dictionary use, morphemic analysis, and contextual analysis. For ELLs whose language shares cognates with English, cognate awareness is also an important strategy. Dictionary use teaches students about multiple word meanings, as well as the importance of choosing the appropriate definition to fit the particular context. Morphemic analysis is the process of deriving a word's meaning by analyzing its meaningful parts, or morphemes. Such word parts include root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Contextual analysis involves inferring the meaning of an unfamiliar word by scrutinizing the text surrounding it. Instruction in contextual analysis generally involves teaching students to employ both generic and specific types of context clues.

Fostering word consciousness

A more general way to help students develop vocabulary is by fostering word consciousness, an awareness of and interest in words. Word consciousness is not an isolated component of vocabulary instruction; it needs to be taken into account each and every day (Scott and Nagy, 2004). It can be developed at all times and in several ways: through encouraging adept diction, through word play, and through research on word origins or histories. According to Graves (2000), "If we can get students interested in playing with words and language, then we are at least halfway to the goal of creating the sort of word-conscious students who will make words a lifetime interest."

Multiple exposures in multiple contexts

One principle of effective vocabulary learning is to provide multiple exposures to a word's meaning. There is great improvement in vocabulary when students encounter vocabulary words often (National Reading Panel, 2000). According to Stahl (2005), students probably have to see a word more than once to place it firmly in their long-term memories. "This does not mean mere repetition or drill of the word," but seeing the word in different and multiple contexts. In other words, it is important that vocabulary instruction provide students with opportunities to encounter words repeatedly and in more than one context.

Restructuring of vocabulary tasks

- Findings of the National Reading Panel
- Intentional instruction of vocabulary items is required for specific texts.
- Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important.

- Learning in rich contexts is valuable for vocabulary learning. Vocabulary tasks should be restructured as necessary.
- Vocabulary learning should entail active engagement in learning tasks.
- Computer technology can be used effectively to help teach vocabulary.
- Vocabulary can be acquired through incidental learning. How vocabulary is assessed and evaluated can have differential effects on instruction.
- Dependence on a single vocabulary instructional method will not result in optimal learning.

It is often assumed that when students do not learn new vocabulary words, they simply need to practice the words some more. Research has shown, however, that it is often the case that students simply do not understand the instructional task involved (National Reading Panel, 2000). Rather than focus only on the words themselves, teachers should be certain that students fully understand the instructional tasks (Schwartz and Raphael, 1985). The restructuring of learning materials or strategies in various ways often can lead to increased vocabulary acquisition, especially for low-achieving or at-risk students (National Reading Panel, 2000). According to Kamil (2004), "once students know what is expected of them in a vocabulary task, they often learn rapidly."

Incidental vocabulary learning

The scientific research on vocabulary instruction reveals that most vocabulary is acquired incidentally through indirect exposure to words. Students can acquire vocabulary incidentally by engaging in rich oral-language experiences at home and at school, listening to books read aloud to them, and reading widely on their own. Reading volume is very important in terms of long-term vocabulary development (Cunningham and Stanovich, 1998). Kamil and Hiebert (2005) reason that extensive reading gives students repeated or multiple exposures to words and is also one of the means by which students see vocabulary in rich contexts. Cunningham (2005) recommends providing structured read-aloud and discussion sessions and extending independent reading experiences outside school hours to encourage vocabulary growth in students.

Instruction for English language learners (ELLs)

An increasing number of students come from homes in which English is not the primary language. From 1979 to 2003, the number of students who spoke English with difficulty increased by 124 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005). In 2003, students who spoke English with difficulty represented approximately 5 percent of the school population—up from 3 percent in 1979.

Not surprisingly, vocabulary development is especially important for English-language learners (ELLs). Poor vocabulary is a serious issue for these students (Calderon et al., 2005). ELLs who have deficits in their vocabulary are less able to comprehend text at grade level than their English-only (EO) peers (August et al., 2005). Findings indicate that research-based strategies used with EO students are also effective with ELLs, although the strategies must be adapted to strengths and needs of ELLs (Calderon et al., 2005).

Diane August and her colleagues (2005) suggest several strategies that appear to be especially valuable for building the vocabularies of ELLs. These strategies include taking advantage of students' first language if the language shares cognates with English, teaching the meaning of basic words, and providing sufficient review and reinforcement. Because English and Spanish share a large number of cognate pairs, the first instructional strategy is especially useful for Spanish-speaking ELLs. These students can draw on their cognate knowledge as a means of figuring out unfamiliar words in English. A second instructional strategy for ELLs is learning the meanings of basic words—words that most EO students already know. Basic words can be found on lists, such as the Dale-Chall List (Chall and Dale, 1995). A third instructional strategy that ELLs particularly benefit from is review and reinforcement. These methods include read-alouds, teacher-directed activities, listening to audiotapes, activities to extend word use outside of the classroom, and parent involvement.

Strategies for ELLs:

Take advantage of students' first language

Teach the meaning of basic words

Review and reinforcement

Lesson model for: Word consciousness

Benchmarks

- ability to interpret literal and figurative meanings of idioms
- ability to research origins of idioms
- Grade level
- Kindergarten and above
- Grouping
- whole class
- small group or pairs
- Materials
- small plastic toy horses
- drawing paper
- crayons or markers
- dictionaries

Animal idioms

An idiom is a phrase or expression in which the entire meaning is different from the usual meanings of the individual words within it. Idioms are fun to work with because they are part of everyday vocabulary. Students enjoy working with figurative meanings, as well as imagining possible literal meanings for the expressions. They also enjoy finding out about the

origins of idiomatic expressions, some of which are very old. Introducing idioms by topic can make them easier for students to remember. This sample lesson model focuses on introducing idioms that make use of animals or animal comparisons.

Explanation

Tell students that an idiom is an expression that cannot be fully understood by the meanings of the individual words that are contained within it. The meaning of the whole idiom has little, often nothing, to do with the meanings of the words taken one by one. Point out to students that idioms are often used in writing or speech to make expression more colorful and that some of the most colorful English idioms make use of animals or animal comparisons. Explain that many idioms have interesting origins that may not make literal sense to us today, but made perfectly good sense during the times in which they were coined.

Tell students that the expression "to hold your horses" is an idiom. Demonstrate its literal meaning by holding a bunch of small plastic toy horses in your hand. Tell students that when someone tells you "to hold your horses" it would be silly to think that they wanted you to hold a bunch of horses in your hand. The whole expression "to hold your horses" actually means "to slow down, wait a minute, or be more patient." For example, if you were impatiently waiting for your sister to get off the phone, your sister might say to you, "Hold your horses. I'll be off the phone in a minute!"

Tell students that "to be raining cats and dogs" is another idiom. Ask students whether, if someone said it's "raining cats and dogs," they would expect to look up and see animals falling from the sky. Then explain to them that "raining cats and dogs" is used to describe when it's raining really heavily or really hard. Ask volunteers to describe a time they remember when it was "raining cats and dogs.

Ask students to draw pictures of the literal meaning of either "to hold your horses" or "to be raining cats and dogs." Then have them take turns showing their illustration and using the idiom correctly in a context sentence.

Collaborative practice

Tell students that they are going to work together in groups to make a drawing of an animal idiom's literal meaning and then act out its real, or figurative, meaning. They will see if the drawings and skits they make provide enough information for their classmates to figure out what the idiom really means. To begin, select a group of three students to demonstrate the activity. Tell this group that their idiom is "to let the cat out of the bag" and that this idiom means "to give away a secret."

Divide the group tasks as follows: One student will draw the idiom the way it would look if it meant literally what it said: by drawing a sketch of a cat leaping out of a paper bag. This student labels the drawing with the idiom, "to let the cat out of the bag." The other two students develop a brief skit about the figurative meaning of the idiom: "to give away a secret." For example, they could develop a simple scene where someone finds out about a surprise birthday party, because a brother or sister gives it away beforehand. The last line could be: "You let the cat out of the bag."

When the group is finished, have them show the idiom's literal meaning in the drawing, and then act out its figurative meaning in the skit. Have the group challenge their classmates to

guess the idiom's figurative, or intended, meaning and then correctly use the idiom in a sentence: Nancy let the cat out of the bag when she told Nick about the surprise birthday party. When the whole class has understood how this activity works, assign a different animal idiom, with its figurative meaning, to other groups of students. Each group then works out its plan for making the drawing and acting out the skit. Have the groups take turns demonstrating their idioms to the class, so the class can guess the idiom's figurative meaning and use it in a sentence.

Animalidioms

to have ants in your pants

to take the bull by the horns

to let the cat out of the bag

to have the cat get your tongue

to be raining cats and dogs

the straw that broke the camel's back

to have a cow

to wait until the cows come home

to be in the doghouse to let sleeping dogs lie

to be in a fine kettle of fish

to seem a little fishy

to live high on the hog

to look a gift horse in the mouth to eat like a horseto hear it straight from the horse's mouth

to hold your horses

to put the cart before the horse

to change horses in midstream

English-language learner: Learning about idioms can be particularly helpful for ELLs because the gap between the literal meaning of individual words and the intended meaning of the expression often causes trouble in translation.

Lesson model for: Word-meaning recall

- Benchmark
- ability to remember word meanings
- Grade level
- Grade 3 and above
- Grouping
- whole class
- small group or pairs
- individual
- Sample texts
- "Alaska Adventure" (Resources)
- "Studying the Sky" (Resources)

Keyword method

Mnemonic strategies are systematic procedures for enhancing memory. The word mnemonic comes from Mnemosyne, the name of Greek goddess of memory. The keyword method, a mnemonic strategy, has been shown to be effective with students who have learning difficulties and those who are at risk for educational failure. According to the National Reading Panel, the keyword method may lead to significant improvement in students' recall of new vocabulary words. This sample lesson model targets two contextualized vocabulary words. The same model can be adapted and used to enhance recall of vocabulary words in any commercial reading program.

Direct Explanation

Explain to students that you are going to show them how to use the keyword method, a useful strategy for remembering the meanings of vocabulary words. Tell them you are going to model the strategy twice, using the words archipelago and lunar.

Teach/Model

- **Define the target word**

Read aloud the following sentence from "Alaska Adventure."

The Aleutian *archipelago* stretches for more than a thousand miles.

Then tell students that an archipelago is "a group of islands."

- **Think of a keyword for the target word**

Say: To help me remember the meaning of the word *archipelago*, a group of islands, I am going to think of another word, called a "keyword." The keyword is a word that sounds like *archipelago*and also is a word that can be easily pictured. My keyword for*archipelago* is *pelican*. *Pelican* sounds like *archipelago* and is the name of a water bird with a very large bill.

- **Link the keyword with the meaning of the target word**

Explain to students that the next step is to create an image of the keyword *pelican* and the meaning of the target word *archipelago* interacting in some way. Tell them it is important that the keyword and the meaning actually interact and are not simply presented in the same picture. On the board, sketch a picture of a pelican flying over a group of small islands.

Say: *Look at the picture of the pelican flying over the group of islands.*

Ask: *Pelican is the keyword for what word?* (archipelago)

Say: *Yes, archipelago. To recall the meaning of the word archipelago, imagine a pelican flying over a group of small islands.*

Recall the meaning of the target word

Tell students that when they see or hear the word *archipelago*, they should first think of its keyword and then try to remember the picture of the keyword and the meaning interacting.

Ask: *What is the keyword for archipelago?* (pelican) *In the sketch, where was the pelican*

flying? (over a group of islands)

Say: *Right, over a group of islands.*

Ask: *So what does archipelago mean?* (a group of islands)

English Language-Learners: Point out to Spanish-speaking ELLs that archipelago and archipélago are cognates.

Lesson model for: Contextual analysis

Benchmarks

- ability to recognize types of semantic context clues
- ability to use context clues to infer word meanings

Grade level

- Grade 4 and above

Prerequisite

- Context Clues

Grouping

- whole class
- small group or pairs
- individual

Teaching chart

- Types of Helpful Context Clues (Resources)

Materials

- copies of Types of Helpful

Context clues chart

- transparencies
- blue, red, and green overhead transparency markers

Introducing types of context clues

Instruction in specific types of context clues is an effective approach for teaching students to use context to infer word meanings. Baumann and his colleagues recommend teaching five types of context clues: definition, synonym, antonym, example, and general. This sample lesson model can be adapted and used to enhance contextual analysis instruction in any commercial reading program.

Direct explanation

Tell students that they can sometimes use context clues to figure out the meaning of an unfamiliar word they come across in their reading. Remind them that context clues are the words, phrases, and sentences surrounding an unfamiliar word that can give hints or clues to its meaning. Caution students that although these clues can prove to be helpful, they can sometimes be misleading.

Teach/Model

Definition context clues

Explain to students that in a definition clue the author provides the reader with the specific definition, or meaning, of a word right in the sentence. Point out that words such as are, is, means, and refers to can signal that a definition clue may follow. Then print the following sentences on a transparency:

A conga is a barrel-shaped drum.

At night your can see constellations, or groups of stars, in the sky.

Read aloud the first sentence.

Say: *I'm going to look for a context clue to help me understand the meaning of the word*conga.

Underline *conga* in blue.

Say: *In the sentence, I see the word* is. *The word* is *can signal a definition context clue*.

Underline *is* in red.

Say: *The phrase* a barrel-shaped drum *follows the word* is.

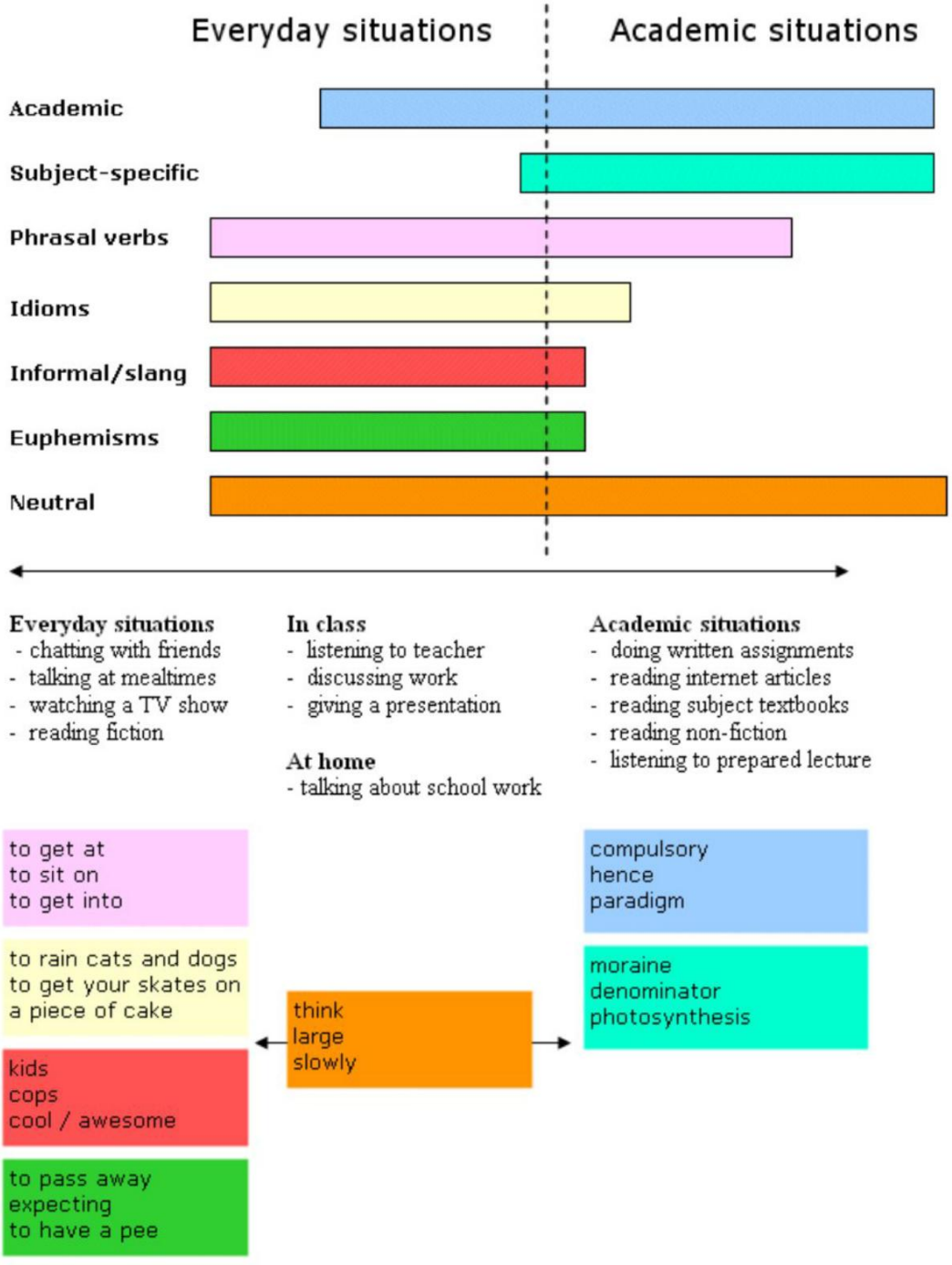
Underline the context clue in green.

Say: *A conga is a barrel-shaped drum. The author has given a definition context clue.*

source: http://www.readingrockets.org/article/teaching-vocabulary

Types of vocabulary

7. The graphic below shows the different types of English vocabulary and the situations in which they are likely to be found. The vocabulary types are shown vertically down the left and the situations in which they are used are shown horizontally along the bottom:



9. *Note*: The words in the coloured boxes above are examples of those that would normally be found only in the situation under which they are placed.

10. *For example*: it would be unusual to meet in everyday situations the academic word *hence* (meaning *therefore* or *so*) or the subject-specific word *denominator* (meaning *the number below the line in a fraction*). Conversely, it would be surprising to read the informal word *cops* (meaning *police*) or the idiom *a piece of cake* (meaning *easy*) in an academic text. Neutral words (orange box) are of course found in all types of situation.

11. **Important:** Phrasal verbs, idioms, informal (colloquial) language and euphemisms are useful for learners who want to understand everyday spoken English. However, I do not recommend that **ESL students** spend a lot of time trying to learn these vocabulary types. Much better is to learn neutral and general academic vocabulary, together with the key subject-specific words.

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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT –V – Principles and Practices of ELT –SHSA5101

UNIT V:

- Basic Concepts of language testing
- Action Research, case study, survey,
- Preparation of Proposal, writing reports
- Presenting papers- Writing an Abstract
- Setting Goals, Continuing Professional Development – Stages

I. Basic Concepts of language testing

The assessment of teaching and learning can be viewed as two complementary and overlapping activities that aim to benefit both the quality of student learning and the professional development of the instructor. Assessing learning alone is not sufficient because the ultimate success of students is also dependent upon their motivation and commitment to learning. Similarly, assessing only teaching behaviours and course activities is not sufficient because qualities of the instructor may be appreciated by students but not optimally helpful to their learning and growth. Done in tandem, assessing teaching and learning can help instructors improve and refine their teaching practices and help improve students' learning and performance.

Formative Assessment	Summative Assessment
The goal of formative assessment is to gather feedback that can be used by the instructor and the students to guide improvements in the Ongoing teaching and learning context. These are low stakes assessments for students and instructors. **Examples:** Asking students to submit one or two sentences identifying the main point of a lecture Have students submit an outline for a paper. Early course evaluations	The goal of summative assessment is to measure the level of success or proficiency that has been obtained at the end of an instructional unit, by comparing it against some standard or benchmark. **Examples:** Assigning a grade to a final exam Critique of a Senior recital University Faculty Course Evaluations The outcome of a summative assessment can be used formatively, however, when students or faculty take the results and use them to guide their efforts and activities in subsequent courses.

What is the difference between formative and summative assessment?

Formative assessment

The goal of formative assessment is to *monitor student learning* to provide ongoing feedback that can be used by instructors to improve their teaching and by students to improve their learning. More specifically, formative assessments:

- help students identify their strengths and weaknesses and target areas that need work
- help faculty recognize where students are struggling and address problems immediately Formative assessments are generally *low stakes*, which means that they have low or no point value. Examples of formative assessments include asking students to:
- draw a concept map in class to represent their understanding of a topic
- submit one or two sentences identifying the main point of a lecture
- turn in a research proposal for early feedback

Summative assessment

The goal of summative assessment is to *evaluate student learning* at the end of an instructional unit by comparing it against some standard or benchmark.

Summative assessments are often *high stakes*, which means that they have a high point value.

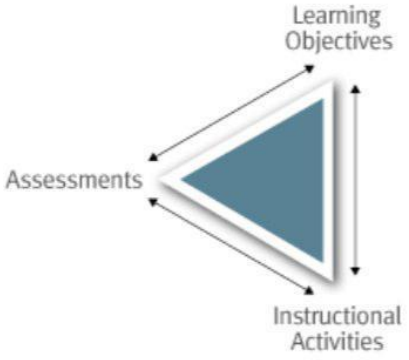
Examples of summative assessments include:

- a midterm exam
- a final project
- a paper

Information from summative assessments can be used formatively when students or faculty use it to guide their efforts and activities in subsequent courses.

Why should assessments, learning objectives, and instructional strategies be aligned?

Assessments should reveal how well students have learned what we want them to learn while instruction ensures that they learn it. For this to occur, assessments, learning obje
aligned so that they reinforce one another.
To ensure that these three components of your course are aligned, ask yourself the following questions:



- **Learning objectives:** What do I want students to know how to do when they leave this course?
- **Assessments:** What kinds of tasks will reveal whether students have achieved the learning objectives I have identified?

- **Instructional strategies:** What kinds of activities in and out of class will reinforce my learning objectives and prepare students for assessments?

What if the components of a course are misaligned?

If assessments are misaligned with learning objectives or instructional strategies, it can undermine both student motivation and learning. Consider these two scenarios:

Your objective is for students to learn to *apply language skills*, but your assessment measures only *recall*. Consequently, students hone their analytical skills and are frustrated that the exam does not measure what they learned.

Your assessment measures students' ability to *compare and critique* the arguments of different authors, but your instructional strategies focus entirely on *summarizing* the arguments of different authors. Consequently, students do not learn or practice the skills of comparison and evaluation that will be assessed.

What do well-aligned assessments look like?

This table presents examples of the kinds of activities that can be used to assess different types of learning objectives (adapted from the revised Bloom's Taxonomy).

Type of learning objective	Examples of appropriate assessments
Recall **Recognize** **Identify**	Objective test items such as fill-in-the-blank, matching, labelling, or multiple-choice questions that require students to: • recall or recognize terms, facts, and concepts
Interpret **Exemplify** **Classify** **Summarize** **Infer** **Compare** **Explain**	Activities such as papers, exams, problem sets, class discussions, or concept maps that require students to: • summarize readings, films, or speeches • compare and contrast two or more theories, events, or processes • classify or categorize cases, elements, or events using established criteria • paraphrase documents or speeches • find or identify examples or illustrations of a concept or principle
Apply **Execute** **Implement**	Activities such as problem sets, performances, labs, prototyping, or simulations that require students to: • use procedures to solve or complete familiar or unfamiliar tasks • determine which procedure(s) are most appropriate for a given task
Analyze **Differentiate** **Organize** **Attribute**	Activities such as case studies, critiques, labs, papers, projects, debates, or concept maps that require students to: • discriminate or select relevant and irrelevant parts • determine how elements function together • determine bias, values, or underlying intent in presented material

Evaluate **Check** **Critique** **Assess**	Activities such as journals, diaries, critiques, problem sets, product reviews, or studies that require students to: • test, monitor, judge, or critique readings, performances, or products against established criteria or standards
Create **Generate** **Plan** **Produce** **Design**	Activities such as research projects, musical compositions, performances, essays, business plans, website designs, or set designs that require students to: • make, build, design or generate something new

This table does not list all possible examples of appropriate assessments. One can develop and use other assessments to ensure that they align with the learning objectives and instructional strategies.

II. What is the difference between assessment and grading?

Assessment and grading are not the same:

Generally, the goal of *grading* is to evaluate individual students' learning and performance. Although grades are sometimes treated as a proxy for student learning, they are not always a reliable measure. Moreover, they may incorporate criteria – such as attendance, participation, and effort – that are not direct measures of learning.

The goal of *assessment* is to improve student learning. Although grading can play a role in assessment, assessment also involves many ungraded measures of student learning (such as concept maps and CATS). Moreover, assessment goes beyond grading by systematically examining patterns of student learning across courses and programs and using this information to improve educational practices.

Using Concept Maps

Concept maps are a graphic representation of students' knowledge. Having students create concept maps can provide you with insights into how they organize and represent knowledge. This can be a useful strategy for assessing both the knowledge students have coming into a program or course and their developing knowledge of course material.

Concept maps include *concepts*, usually enclosed in circles or boxes, and *relationships* between concepts, indicated by a connecting line. Words on the line are *linking words* and specify the relationship between concepts.

See an example @
https://www.cmu.edu/teaching/resources/Teaching/CourseDesign/Assessment-Grading/OngoingAssessments/conceptmap.pdf

Designing a concept map exercise

To structure a concept map exercise for students, follow these three steps:

1. Create a focus question that clearly specifies the issue that the concept map should address, such as “What are the potential effects of cap-and-trade policies?” or “What is materials science?”
2. Tell students (individually or in groups) to begin by generating a list of relevant concepts and organizing them before constructing a preliminary map.
3. Give students the opportunity to revise. Concept maps evolve as they become more detailed and may require rethinking and reconfiguring.

Encourage students to create maps that:

- Employ a hierarchical structure that distinguishes concepts and facts at different levels of specificity
- Draw multiple connections, or cross-links, that illustrate how ideas in different domains are related
- Include specific examples of events and objects that clarify the meaning of a given concept Using concept maps throughout the semester
- Concept maps can be used at different points throughout the semester to gauge students’ knowledge. Here are some ideas:
- Ask students to create a concept map at the beginning of the semester to assess the knowledge they have coming into a course. This can give you a quick window into the knowledge, assumptions, and misconceptions they bring with them and can help you pitch the course appropriately.
- Assign the same concept map activity several times over the course of the semester. Seeing how the concept maps grow and develop greater nuance and complexity over time helps students (and the instructor) see what they are learning.
- Create a fill-in-the-blank concept map in which some circles are blank or some lines are unlabeled. Give the map to students to complete. You can see an example of this type of concept map exercise at: http://flag.wceruw.org/tools/conmap/solar.php. https://www.cmu.edu/teaching/assessment/basics/alignment.html

Using Classroom Assessment Techniques

Classroom Assessment Techniques (CATs) are a set of specific activities that instructors can use to quickly gauge students’ comprehension. They are generally used to assess students’ understanding of material in the current course, but with minor modifications they can also be used to gauge students’ knowledge coming into a course or program.

CATs are meant to provide immediate feedback about the entire class’s level of understanding, not individual students’. The instructor can use this feedback to inform instruction, such as speeding up or slowing the pace of a lecture or explicitly addressing areas of confusion.

Asking Appropriate Questions in CATs

Examples of appropriate questions you can ask in the CAT format:

- How familiar are students with important names, events, and places in history that they will need to know as background in order to understand the lectures and readings (e.g. in anthropology, literature, political science
- How are students applying knowledge and skills learned in this class to their own lives (e.g. psychology, sociology)?
- To what extent are students aware of the steps they go through in solving problems and how well can they explain their problem-solving steps (e.g. mathematics, physics, chemistry, engineering)?
- How and how well are students using a learning approach that is new to them (e.g., cooperative groups) to master the concepts and principles in this course?

Using Specific Types of CATs

Minute Paper

Pose one to two questions in which students identify the most significant things they have learned from a given lecture, discussion, or assignment. Give students one to two minutes to write a response on an index card or paper. Collect their responses and look them over quickly. Their answers can help you to determine if they are successfully identifying what you view as most important.

Muddiest Point

This is similar to the Minute Paper but focuses on areas of confusion. Ask your students, "What was the muddiest point in… (today's lecture, the reading, the homework)?" Give them one to two minutes to write and collect their responses.

Problem Recognition Tasks

Identify a set of problems that can be solved most effectively by only one of a few methods that you are teaching in the class. Ask students to identify by name which methods best fit which problems without actually solving the problems. This task works best when only one method can be used for each problem.

Documented Problem Solutions

Choose one to three problems and ask students to write down all of the steps they would take in solving them with an explanation of each step. Consider using this method as an assessment of problem-solving skills at the beginning of the course or as a regular part of the assigned homework.

Directed Paraphrasing

Select an important theory, concept, or argument that students have studied in some depth and identify a real audience to whom your students should be able to explain this material in their own words (e.g., a grants review board, a city council member, a vice president making a related decision). Provide guidelines about the length and purpose of the paraphrased explanation.

Applications Cards

Identify a concept or principle your students are studying and ask students to come up with one to three applications of the principle from everyday experience, current news events, or their knowledge of particular organizations or systems discussed in the course.

Student-Generated Test Questions

A week or two prior to an exam, begin to write general guidelines about the kinds of questions you plan to ask on the exam. Share those guidelines with your students and ask them to write and answer one to two questions like those they expect to see on the exam.

Classroom Opinion Polls

When you believe that your students may have pre-existing opinions about course-related issues, construct a very short two- to four-item questionnaire to help uncover students' opinions.

Creating and Implementing CATs

- You can create your own CATs to meet the specific needs of your course and students. Below are some strategies that you can use to do this.
- Identify a specific "assessable" question where the students' responses will influence your teaching and provide feedback to aid their learning.
- Complete the assessment task yourself (or ask a colleague to do it) to be sure that it is doable in the time you will allot for it.
- Plan how you will analyze students' responses, such as grouping them into the categories "good understanding," "some misunderstanding," or "significant misunderstanding."
- After using a CAT, communicate the results to the students so that they know you learned from the assessment and so that they can identify specific difficulties of their own.

Tools for Formative Assessment -

- Techniques to Check for Understanding -
- Processing Activities

One Minute Essay

A one-minute essay question (or one-minute question) is a focused question with a specific goal that can, in fact, be answered within a minute or two.

Observation

Walk around the classroom and observe students as they work to check for learning. Strategies include:

Self-Assessment

A process in which students collect information about their own learning, analyze what it reveals about their progress toward the intended learning goals and plan the next steps in their learning.

Think-Pair- Share/ Turn to Your Partner

Teacher gives direction to students. Students formulate individual response, and then turn to a partner to share their answers. Teacher calls on several random pairs to share their answers with the class.

source: http://www.cmu.edu/teaching/assessment/howto/basics/formative-summative.html

Paper-and-pencil instruments

An efficient method of assessment

Paper-and-pencil instruments refer to a general group of assessment tools in which candidates read questions and respond in writing.

Developing paper-and-pencil tests: 4 basic steps.

All assessment methods must provide information that is relevant to the qualification(s) being assessed. The following 4 steps ensure that paper-and-pencil tests provide this information.

Step #1

Listing topic areas/tasks

Step #2

Specifying the response format, number of questions, the time limit and difficulty level

Step #3

Writing the questions and developing the scoring guide

Step #4

Reviewing the questions and scoring guide

Step #1

Listing topic areas/tasks

For each knowledge/ability qualification that will be assessed by the test, list the skills/ areas/tasks to be covered.

Step #2

Specifying the response format, number of questions, the time limit and difficulty level

Prior to writing the questions for your test, you should decide on such things as the response format, the number of questions, the time limit and the difficulty level.

What type of response format should I choose?

The three most common response formats are:

a) multiple-choice

b) short answer and

c) essay.

(a) Multiple-choice

With a multiple-choice response format, a large number of different topic areas/tasks can be covered within the same test and the questions are easy to score. However, because all potential answers must be chosen by some candidates, it is time-consuming to write good questions.

With a short-answer response format, as in multiple choice, a large number of different topic areas/tasks can be covered within the same test and these questions are easy to score. In addition, less time is required to write these questions compared to multiple-choice ones.

(b) Short-answer

With a short-answer response format, a large number of different topic areas/tasks can be covered within the same test and these questions are easy to score. In addition, less time ie required to write these questions compared to multiple-choice ones.

(c) Essay

With an essay response format, only a few topic areas/tasks can be covered due to the amount of time it takes to answer questions; however, the content can be covered in greater detail. Essay questions require little time to write but they are very time-consuming to score.

Although at first glance a multiple-choice format may seem a relatively easy and logical choice if breadth of coverage is emphasized, don't be fooled. It is hard to write good multiple-choice questions and you should only choose this type of response format if you are willing to devote a lot of time to editing, reviewing, and revising the questions. If depth of coverage is emphasized, use an essay response format.

How many questions do I need?

The number of questions you need depends on the breadth and depth of coverage required and the importance of each topic area/task. Generally, the more important a topic area/task, the more questions you should have. You should initially write several questions from each topic area or task so that you can choose the best ones for the final version of the test.

How much time should I allow?

Unless speed of work is being assessed, the time limit should be set to allow the majority of candidates to finish within the allotted time. A general guide for multiple-choice questions is to allow about a minute per question. The time needed for short-answer and essay questions depends on the complexity of the questions. If you are in doubt, try your test and time limit out in advance.

How difficult should the questions be?

You should consider both the number of possible candidates and the level of job performance required for the position. The questions should have a range of difficulty levels. You should try to make all questions differentiate between poorly-qualified and well-qualified candidates.

Step #3

Writing the questions and developing the scoring guide.

All questions should tap meaningful information. Also, the level of language used for the questions should be appropriate for the requirements of the position. The questions do not have to always be expressed verbally. Diagrams, graphs, or tables may be incorporated into a question where useful.

When you are writing each question, you should prepare the answers, designate the marks to be allotted to each item, and decide on the rules for scoring. This ensures that there is a clear-cut answer for each question. It also allows you to indicate the value of each question so that candidates can decide for themselves the amount of time they should spend on each question. The marks assigned to each question should reflect the relative importance of the question.

(a) Multiple-choice

The scoring guide for multiple-choice questions must include a scoring key indicating the correct answer and it may also include a rationale for or explanation of the correct answer. If marks are to be deducted for guessing, this must be determined and stated in the instructions to candidates.

(b) Short-answer

The scoring guide for short-answer questions should include predetermined scoring procedures and mark allocations. Each required point in the answer should be listed with its relative mark allocation.

(c) Essay

The scoring guide for essay questions should include predetermined scoring procedures and mark allocations. The major points of the answer should be listed with their relative mark allocation. If marks are to be deducted for incorrect grammar, spelling and punctuation, this must be stated in the instructions to candidates.

The scoring guides for short-answer and essay questions should be clear enough so that scorers can judge whether or not marks should be given to a variation of the answer.

Step #4

Reviewing questions and scoring guide.

Have the questions and scoring guide reviewed by individuals familiar with the position in question. Typically, this would involve other managers and/or job incumbents. Have them ensure that each question is answerable, relevant to the job, technically and grammatically correct and clear and understandable. Any symbols, words, phrases or content found to be offensive, ambiguous, inappropriate, or misleading should be revised or replaced. The reviewers should also assess the appropriateness of the time limit and difficulty level of the questions. It may be helpful to have the reviewers actually take the test under testing conditions. You should only include in the final version of the paper-and-pencil test those questions that your reviewers endorsed.

The development of your own paper-and-pencil tests can be difficult and time consuming. However, if these 4 steps are followed, the end result should be a quality assessment instrument.

III. Action Research

What Is Action Research?

A succinct definition of action research appears in the workshop materials we use at the Institute for the Study of Inquiry in Education. That definition states that action research is a disciplined process of inquiry conducted by and for those taking the action. The primary reason for engaging in action research is to assist the "actor" in improving and/or refining his or her actions.

Practitioners who engage in action research inevitably find it to be an empowering experience. Action research has this positive effect for many reasons. Obviously, the most important is that action research is always relevant to the participants. Relevance is guaranteed because the focus of each research project is determined by the researchers, who are also the primary consumers of the findings.

Perhaps even more important is the fact that action research helps educators be more effective at what they care most about—their teaching and the development of their students. Seeing students grow is probably the greatest joy educators can experience. When teachers have convincing evidence that their work has made a real difference in their students' lives, the countless hours and endless efforts of teaching seem worthwhile.

The Action Research Process

Educational action research can be engaged in by a single teacher, by a group of colleagues who share an interest in a common problem, or by the entire faculty of a school. Whatever the scenario, action research always involves the same seven-step process. These seven steps, which become an endless cycle for the inquiring teacher, are the following:

Selecting a focus

Clarifying theories

Identifying research questions

Collecting data

Analyzing data

Reporting results

Taking informed action

Step 1—Selecting a Focus

The action research process begins with serious reflection directed toward identifying a topic or topics worthy of a busy teacher's time. Considering the incredible demands on today's classroom teachers, no activity is worth doing unless it promises to make the central part of a teacher's work more successful and satisfying. Thus, selecting a focus, the first step in the process, is vitally important. Selecting a focus begins with the teacher researcher or the team of action researchers asking:

What element(s) of our practice or what aspect of student learning do we wish to investigate?

Step 2—Clarifying Theories

The second step involves identifying the values, beliefs, and theoretical perspectives the researchers hold relating to their focus. For example, if teachers are concerned about

increasing responsible classroom behavior, it will be helpful for them to begin by clarifying which approach—using punishments and rewards, allowing students to experience the natural consequences of their behaviors, or some other strategy—they feel will work best in helping students acquire responsible classroom behavior habits.

Step 3—Identifying Research Questions

Once a focus area has been selected and the researcher's perspectives and beliefs about that focus have been clarified, the next step is to generate a set of personally meaningful research questions to guide the inquiry.

Step 4—Collecting Data

Professional educators always want their instructional decisions to be based on the best possible data. Action researchers can accomplish this by making sure that the data used to justify their actions arevalid (meaning the information represents what the researchers say it does) and reliable (meaning the researchers are confident about the accuracy of their data). Lastly, before data are used to make teaching decisions, teachers must be confident that the lessons drawn from the data align with any unique characteristics of their classroom or school.

To ensure reasonable validity and reliability, action researchers should avoid relying on any single source of data. Most teacher researchers use a process called triangulation to enhance the validity and reliability of their findings. Basically, triangulation means using multiple independent sources of data to answer one's questions. Triangulation is like studying an object located inside a box by viewing it through various windows cut into the sides of the box. Observing a phenomenon through multiple "windows" can help a single researcher compare and contrast what is being seen through a variety of lenses.

When planning instruction, teachers want the techniques they choose to be appropriate for the unique qualities of their students. All teachers have had the experience of implementing a "research-proven" strategy only to have it fail with their students. The desire of teachers to use approaches that "fit" their particular students is not dissimilar to a doctor's concern that the specific medicine being prescribed be the correct one for the individual patient. The ability of the action research process to satisfy an educator's need for "fit" may be its most powerful attribute. Because the data being collected come from the very students and teachers who are engaged with the treatment, the relevance of the findings is assured.

For the harried and overworked teacher, "data collection" can appear to be the most intimidating aspect of the entire seven-step action research process. The question I am repeatedly asked, "Where will I find the time and expertise to develop valid and reliable instruments for data collection?", gives voice to a realistic fear regarding time management. Fortunately, classrooms and schools are, by their nature, data-rich environments. Each day a child is in class, he or she is producing or not producing work, is interacting productively with classmates or experiencing difficulties in social situations, and is completing assignments proficiently or poorly. Teachers not only see these events transpiring before their eyes, they generally record these events in their grade books. The key to managing triangulated data collection is, first, to be effective and efficient in collecting the material that is already swirling around the classroom, and, second, to identify other sources of data that might be effectively surfaced with tests, classroom discussions, or questionnaires.

Step 5—Analyzing Data

Although data analysis often brings to mind the use of complex statistical calculations, this is rarely the case for the action researcher. A number of relatively user-friendly procedures can help a practitioner identify the trends and patterns in action research data. During this portion of the seven-step process, teacher researchers will methodically sort, sift, rank, and examine their data to answer two generic questions:

What is the story told by these data?

Why did the story play itself out this way?

By answering these two questions, the teacher researcher can acquire a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation and as a result can end up producing grounded theory regarding

what might be done to improve the situation.

Step 6—Reporting Results

It is often said that teaching is a lonely endeavor. It is doubly sad that so many teachers are left alone in their classrooms to reinvent the wheel on a daily basis. The loneliness of teaching is unfortunate not only because of its inefficiency, but also because when dealing with complex problems the wisdom of several minds is inevitably better than one.

The sad history of teacher isolation may explain why the very act of reporting on their action research has proven so powerful for both the researchers and their colleagues. The reporting of action research most often occurs in informal settings that are far less intimidating than the venues where scholarly research has traditionally been shared. Faculty meetings, brown bag lunch seminars, and teacher conferences are among the most common venues for sharing action research with peers. However, each year more and more teacher researchers are writing up their work for publication or to help fulfill requirements in graduate programs. Regardless of which venue or technique educators select for reporting on research, the simple knowledge that they are making a contribution to a collective knowledge base regarding teaching and learning frequently proves to be among the most rewarding aspects of this work.

Step 7—Taking Informed Action

Taking informed action, or "action planning," the last step in the action research process, is very familiar to most teachers. When teachers write lesson plans or develop academic programs, they are engaged in the action planning process. What makes action planning particularly satisfying for the teacher researcher is that with each piece of data uncovered (about teaching or student learning) the educator will feel greater confidence in the wisdom of the next steps. Although all teaching can be classified as trial and error, action researchers find that the research process liberates them from continuously repeating their past mistakes. More important, with each refinement of practice, action researchers gain valid and reliable data on their developing virtuosity.

Three Purposes for Action Research

As stated earlier, action research can be engaged in by an individual teacher, a collaborative group of colleagues sharing a common concern, or an entire school faculty. These three different approaches to organizing for research serve three compatible, yet distinct, purposes: Building the reflective practitioner

Making progress on schoolwide priorities

Building professional cultures

Building the Reflective Practitioner

When individual teachers make a personal commitment to systematically collect data on their work, they are embarking on a process that will foster continuous growth and development. When each lesson is looked on as an empirical investigation into factors affecting teaching and learning and when reflections on the findings from each day's work inform the next day's instruction, teachers can't help but develop greater mastery of the art and science of teaching. In this way, the individual teachers conducting action research are making continuous progress in developing their strengths as reflective practitioners.

Making Progress on Schoolwide Priorities

Increasingly, schools are focusing on strengthening themselves and their programs through the development of common focuses and a strong sense of esprit de corps. Peters and Waterman (1982) in their landmark book, In Search of Excellence, called the achievement of focus "sticking to the knitting." When a faculty shares a commitment to achieving excellence with a specific focus—for example, the development of higher-order thinking, positive social behavior, or higher standardized test scores—then collaboratively studying their practice will not only contribute to the achievement of the shared goal but would have a powerful impact on team building and program development. Focusing the combined time, energy, and creativity of a group of committed professionals on a single pedagogical issue will inevitably lead to program improvements, as well as to the school becoming a "center of excellence." As a result, when a faculty chooses to focus on one issue and all the teachers elect to enthusiastically participate in action research on that issue, significant progress on the schoolwide priorities cannot help but occur.

Building Professional Cultures

Often an entire faculty will share a commitment to student development, yet the group finds itself unable to adopt a single common focus for action research. This should not be viewed as indicative of a problem. Just as the medical practitioners working at a "quality" medical center will hold a shared vision of a healthy adult, it is common for all the faculty members at a school to share a similar perspective on what constitutes a well-educated student. However, like the doctors at the medical center, the teachers in a "quality" school may well differ on which specific aspects of the shared vision they are most motivated to pursue at any point in time.

Schools whose faculties cannot agree on a single research focus can still use action research as a tool to help transform themselves into a learning organization. They accomplish this in the same manner as do the physicians at the medical center. It is common practice in a quality medical center for physicians to engage in independent, even idiosyncratic, research agendas.

However, it is also common for medical researchers to share the findings obtained from their research with colleagues (even those engaged in other specialties).

School faculties who wish to transform themselves into "communities of learners" often empower teams of colleagues who share a passion about one aspect of teaching and learning to conduct investigations into that area of interest and then share what they've learned with the rest of the school community. This strategy allows an entire faculty to develop and practice the discipline that Peter Senge (1990) labeled "team learning." In these schools, multiple action research inquiries occur simultaneously, and no one is held captive to another's priority, yet everyone knows that all the work ultimately will be shared and will consequently contribute to organizational learning.

Why Action Research Now?

If ever there were a time and a strategy that were right for each other, the time is now and the strategy is action research! This is true for a host of reasons, with none more important than the need to accomplish the following:

Professionalize teaching.

Enhance the motivation and efficacy of a weary faculty.

Meet the needs of an increasingly diverse student body.

Achieve success with "standards-based" reforms.

Professionalizing Teaching

Teaching in North America has evolved in a manner that makes it more like blue-collar work than a professional undertaking. Although blue-collar workers are expected to do their jobs with vigilance and vigor, it is also assumed that their tasks will be routine, straightforward, and, therefore, easily handled by an isolated worker with only the occasional support of a supervisor.

Professional work, on the other hand, is expected to be complex and nonroutine, and will generally require collaboration among practitioners to produce satisfactory results. With the exploding knowledge base on teaching and learning and the heightened demands on teachers to help all children achieve mastery of meaningful objectives, the inadequacy of the blue-collar model for teaching is becoming much clearer.

When the teachers in a school begin conducting action research, their workplace begins to take on more of the flavor of the workplaces of other professionals. The wisdom that informs practice starts coming from those doing the work, not from supervisors who oftentimes are less in touch with and less sensitive to the issues of teaching and learning than the teachers doing the work.

Furthermore, when teachers begin engaging their colleagues in discussions of classroom issues, the multiple perspectives that emerge and thus frame the dialogue tend to produce wiser professional decisions.

http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/100047/chapters/What-Is-Action-

Research%C2%A2.aspx

IV. Case Study

A case study is about a person, group, or situation that has been studied over time. If the case study, for instance, is about a group, it describes the behavior of the group as a whole, not the behavior of each individual in the group.

Case studies can be produced by following a formal research method. The resulting body of 'case study research' has long had a prominent place in many disciplines and professions, ranging from psychology, anthropology, sociology, and political science to education, clinical science, social work, and administrative science.

In doing case study research, the "case" being studied may be an individual, organization, event, or action, existing in a specific time and place. For instance, clinical science has produced both well-known case studies of individuals and also case studies of clinical practices. However, when "case" is used in an abstract sense, as in a claim, a proposition, or an argument, such a case can be the subject of many research methods, not just case study research. Thomas offers the following definition of case study:

Case studies are analyses of persons, events, decisions, periods, projects, policies, institutions, or other systems that are studied holistically by one or more method. The case that is the subject of the inquiry will be an instance of a class of phenomena that provides an analytical frame — an object — within which the study is conducted and which the case illuminates and explicates."

According to J. Creswell, data collection in a case study occurs over a "sustained period of time". One approach sees the case study defined as a research strategy, an empirical inquiry that investigates a phenomenon within its real-life context. Case-study research can mean single and multiple case studies, can include quantitative evidence, relies on multiple sources of evidence, and benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions. As such, case study research should not be confused with qualitative research, as case studies can be based on any mix of quantitative and qualitative data. Similarly, single-subject research might be taken as case studies of a sort, except that the repeated trials in single-subject research permit the use of experimental designs that would not be possible in typical case studies. At the same time, the repeated trials can provide a statistical framework for making inferences from quantitative data.

The case study is sometimes mistaken for the case method used in teaching, but the two are not the same.

useful article: http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Daly-CaseStudies
http://www.emstac.org/registered/topics/esl/case.htm
http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/images/180304-cambridge-english-case-studies.pdf

Benefits of Case Studies

- Case studies can focus on an issue with a specific student or an entire classroom. These studies can:

- Help you prepare for and consider issues you have yet to come across in your own teaching.
- Help you see beyond the surface of an issue and consider all sides to the problem.
- Develop your analysis skills and improve your ability to deal with problems as they occur in the classroom.
- Be an ideal complement to textbook instruction. If your professor isn't already supplementing the theoretical discussions in your readings with practical applications, take some time to seek them out and broaden your understanding.

Read more at http://esl.yourdictionary.com/lesson-plans/Case-Studies-for-ESL-Teachers.html#tki8TiyozrZpfwIG.99

V. Guidelines for Writing an Action Research Project

The basic steps

- Review your current practice.
- Identify an aspect that you want to investigate.
- Collect and organize data.
- Interpret data and imagine a solution or a way forward.
- Try it out and take stock of what happens.
- Monitor what you do.
- Review and evaluate the modified action.

The contents

The manuscript will include the following items:

Cover page (title information, name, date).

Table of contents (list the items with appropriate page numbers).

Introduction:

Objectives - Clearly describe the purpose of the study and its significance.

Literature review

Identify problem

Discuss factors that initially prompted you to ask this question. How did the idea originate? -

Describe how answering the question might improve your practice.

Act on evidence

Collect & organize data

Evaluate results

Interpret data & imagine a solution

Identify the main aspects of your research questions.

Introduce the main theories that allow you to discuss your project.

Define the basic terminology and concepts related to the issues you will discuss.

Summary of the state of the art; present the literature for each part of the question.

Methodology and work plan

Detail and justify the method and the work plan you put forward.

VI. The study

The Context (provide a brief description).

Clearly describe the chosen setting (classroom, school, etc.). Include all pertinent information available. - Situate the question in the context. How does the question relate to the context? What is it about the context that relates to the question? - Describe all pertinent actors: Who were they? Why were they important? Data collection - What sort of data did you collect? - How did you collect the data? Describe the methods used (include questionnaires, interviews, etc. in appendix).

Address why they are appropriate. - Describe resources needed. - Present a timeline. Data analysis - Describe analysis procedures. - Discuss why these procedures are appropriate. The findings - What happened? What did you find? Describe in detail. You can use narrative, quotes from the data sources, samples of student work, tables, and/or charts to display your data and provide evidence for your findings. You should relate these findings back to your research questions. - **Modifications/Re-Analysis**. Discuss possible alternatives, if appropriate. The plan of action - **Recommended action** you will take based on your findings. - Who is responsible? -

Timeline.

Resources and materials. Conclusions Outcomes

What were the outcomes of your study?

Discuss your own interpretation of what happened and why.

What successes or difficulties did you have in carrying out this action research? Address what you have learned from this study.

Implications - Summarize the question studied and the major issues involved. - Address the twists and turns experienced between original identified question and results that were produced. - Identify the limitations of the study. - Discuss implications for other teachers' practice and educational policy. - Describe recommendations for your future study.

References / Works cited list (any source of information and ideas other than the author's must be referenced in the Action Research Report. References must conform to current APA

publication standards. (for information on APA Style click here or visit www.apastyle.org) Appendices (any ancillary materials should be included in the Action Research Project in appendices). Presentation The length of the final project report should be in the range of 8,000-12,000 words. Please make all your writing relevant. The Action Research Project is intended to be a professional manuscript that reflects scholarly work and effort. It should be typed, double-spaced on standard-sized paper (DIN A4 – 21x29.7 cm). Ample margin should be left for comment. Remember! You are required to submit your own original work. Where other material is used, you must state the sources from which the information is derived. Any act of plagiarism or intellectual dishonesty will result in a "Suspenso". If you are unclear about plagiarism or some other breach of academic integrity, please ask your instructor to clarify.

VII. Survey

Survey research is a method of collecting information by asking questions. Sometimes interviews are done face-to-face with people at home, in school, or at work. Other times questions are sent in the mail for people to answer and mail back.

Survey Definition & Types

There are a lot of ways to conduct research and collect information, but one way that makes it really easy is by doing a survey. A survey is defined as a brief interview or discussion with individuals about a specific topic. Survey also means to collect information. We have our first definition of a brief interview, and we have a second definition of collecting data. There is a third definition for survey. This third definition of survey is a specific type of survey research. Here are the three specific techniques of survey research:

Questionnaires - a series of written questions a participant answers. This method gathers responses to questions that are essay or agree/neutral/disagree style.

Interviews - questions posed to an individual to obtain information about him or her. This type of survey is like a job interview, with one person asking another a load of questions.

Surveys - brief interviews and discussions with individuals about a specific topic. Yes, survey is also a specific type of survey, to make things even more confusing. A survey is a quick interview, with the surveyor asking only a few questions.

Using Surveys

A study is designed to collect information about a topic (for instance, 'How do you feel about the course?') and then analyze the collected information to draw a conclusion. Each survey technique offers strengths and weaknesses, which will be explored in a moment. It is the job of the researcher to weigh those strengths and weaknesses against the needs of their study.

How a researcher might employ surveys in their methodology:

Questionnaires

If you use questionnaires, you will sit down and write up some questions that you need answers to. This can go in several ways:

Open ended questions where the participant fills in the answer with their thoughts. For example, 'What do you think of ….. ?' This is useful for a descriptive study, but there is very little here that you can analyze statistically.

Multiple-choice questions allow for statistical analysis such as, 'Do you think ….. is a good thing for people - agree, neutral, or disagree.' However, you may miss some personal feelings or thoughts on the situation.

Using questionnaires allows a researcher to utilize several strengths.

For example:

It allows for minimal contact between researcher and participant.

Multiple avenues, such as handing them out in person, using snail mail, email, and online survey engines, can be used.

Participants' answers are readily recorded on the forms.Questionnaires have some weak points that need to be addressed.

For instance:

The questions and instructions must be written extremely clearly or participants will answer in incorrect ways.

There is little ensuring participants finish a survey, meaning they may return it half finished and therefore useless.

Creating Questionnaire

Decide what you want to learn from administering your questionnaire. ...

Plan questions that will help you get the information you need. ...

Use closed-ended questions to gather specific answers. ...

Use open-ended questions to solicit feedback. ...

Ask questions in such a way as to avoid confusion and bias.

useful link: http://www.wikihow.com/Make-a-Questionnaire

Interviews also are also conducted for survey http://study.com/academy/lesson/what-is-survey-research-definition-methods-types.html

8.Close-ended questions are those which can be answered by a simple "yes" or "no," while open-ended questions are those which require more thought and more than a simple one-word answer. Close-Ended Questions

If you can answer a question with only a "yes" or "no" response, then you are answering a close-ended type of question.

Examples of close-ended questions are:

Are you feeling better today?

Would you like to go to the movies tonight?

Is math your favorite subject?

Does four plus four equal eight?

Are you happy?

Is he dead?

Close-ended questions should not always be thought of as simple questions that anyone can quickly answer merely because they require a yes or no answer. Close-ended questions can also be very complicated. For example, "Is 1 in binary equal to 1 in counting numbers?" is a close-ended question that not everyone would be able to quickly answer.

Open-Ended Questions

Open-ended questions are ones that require more than one word answers. The answers could come in the form of a list, a few sentences or something longer such as a speech, paragraph or essay. Here are some examples of open-ended questions:

What were the most important wars fought in the history of the United States?

What were the major effects of World War II for the United States?

Where are you going to find the time to write all those letters?

How exactly does one replace the screen to a cellular phone?

Although open-ended questions require lengthier responses than do close-ended questions, open-ended questions are not always more complicated. For example, asking "What are you planning to buy today at the supermarket?" may simply require the respondent to read off of a list. http://examples.yourdictionary.com/examples-of-open-ended-and-closed-ended-questions.html

9.A Likert scale (/ˈlɪk.ərt/ lik-ərt) but more commonly pronounced /ˈlaɪ.kərt/ ly-kərt) is a psychometric scale commonly involved in research that employs questionnaires. It is the most widely used approach to scaling responses in survey research, such that the term (or more accurately the Likert-type scale) is often used interchangeably with rating scale, even though the two are not synonymous.

The scale is named after its inventor, psychologist Rensis Likert. Likert distinguished between a scale proper, which emerges from collective responses to a set of items (usually eight or more), and the format in which responses are scored along a range. Technically speaking, a Likert scale refers only to the latter. The difference between these two concepts has to do with the distinction Likert made between the underlying phenomenon being investigated and the means of capturing variation that points to the underlying phenomenon.

When responding to a Likert questionnaire item, respondents specify their level of agreement or disagreement on a symmetric agree-disagree scale for a series of statements. Thus, the range captures the intensity of their feelings for a given item.

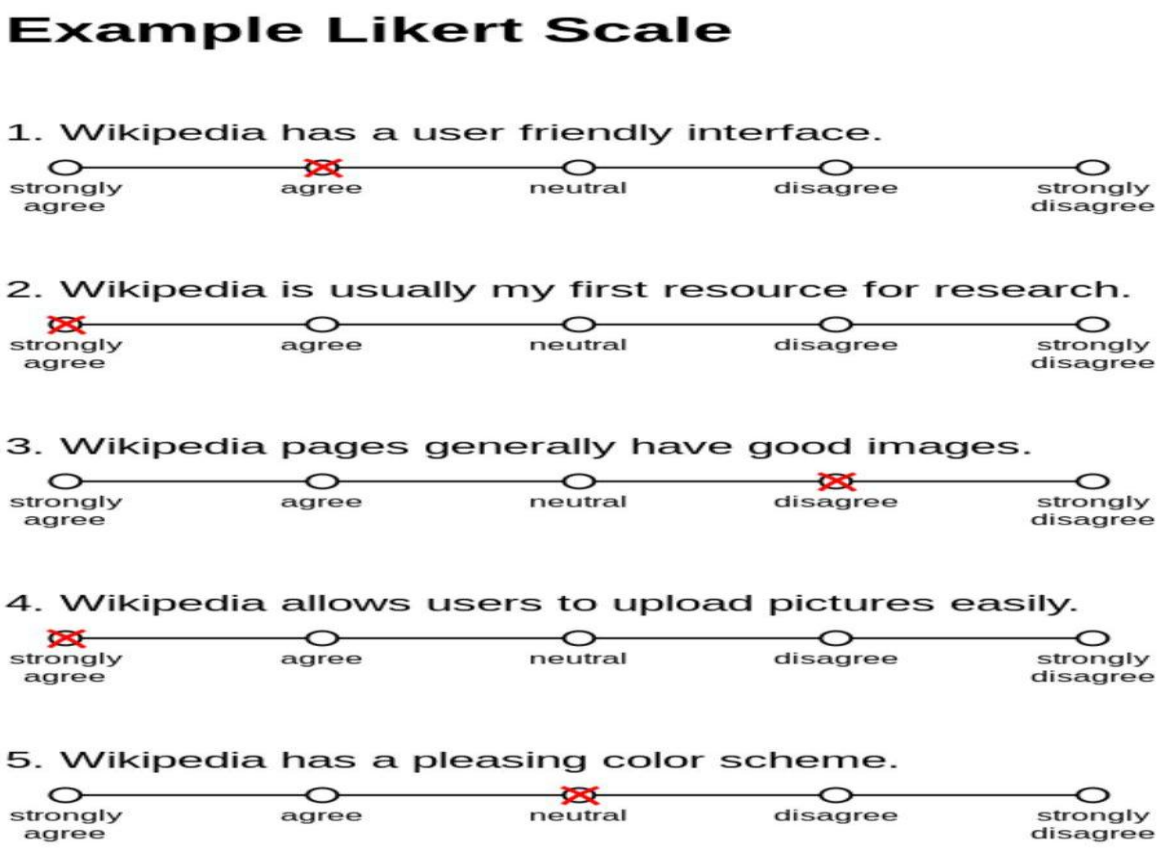
A scale can be created as the simple sum of questionnaire responses over the full range of the scale. In so doing, Likert scaling assumes distances between each item are equal. Importantly, "All items are assumed to be replications of each other or in other words items are considered to be parallel instruments". (p. 197). By contrast modern test theory treats the difficulty of each item (the ICCs) as information to be incorporated in scaling items source:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Likert_scale

What is a Likert Scale vs. a Likert Item

A “Likert scale” is the sum of responses to several Likert items. These items are usually displayed with a visual aid, such as a series of radio buttons or a horizontal bar representing a simple scale. A “Likert item” is a statement that the respondent is asked to evaluate in a survey. In the example below, the statement, “The checkout process was easy” is a Likert item. The table as a whole is

The Likert scale.



How to Write an Abstract

Abstract

Because on-line search databases typically contain only abstracts, it is vital to write a complete but concise description of your work to entice potential readers into obtaining a copy of the full paper. This article describes how to write a good computer architecture abstract for both conference and journal papers. Writers should follow a checklist consisting of: motivation, problem statement, approach, results, and conclusions. Following this checklist should increase the chance of people taking the time to obtain and read your complete paper.

Introduction

Now that the use of on-line publication databases is prevalent, writing a really good abstract has become even more important than it was a decade ago. Abstracts have always served the function of "selling" your work. But now, instead of merely convincing the reader to keep reading the rest of the attached paper, an abstract must convince the reader to leave the comfort of an office and go hunt down a copy of the article from a library.

Checklist: Parts of an Abstract

Despite the fact that an abstract is quite brief, it must do almost as much work as the multi-page paper that follows it. In a computer architecture paper, this means that it should in most cases include the following sections. Each section is typically a single sentence, although there is room for creativity. In particular, the parts may be merged or spread among a set of sentences. Use the following as a checklist for your next abstract:

Motivation:

Why do we care about the problem and the results? If the problem isn't obviously "interesting" it might be better to put motivation first; but if your work is incremental progress on a problem that is widely recognized as important, then it is probably better to put the problem statement first to indicate which piece of the larger problem you are breaking off to work on. This section should include the importance of your work, the difficulty of the area, and the impact it might have if successful.

Problem statement:

What problem are you trying to solve? What is the scope of your work (a generalized approach, or for a specific situation)? Be careful not to use too much jargon. In some cases it is appropriate to put the problem statement before the motivation, but usually this only works if most readers already understand why the problem is important.

Approach:

How did you go about solving or making progress on the problem? Did you use simulation, analytic models, prototype construction, or analysis of field data for an actual product? What was the extent of your work (did you look at one application program or a hundred programs in twenty different programming languages?) What important variables did you control, ignore, or measure?

Results:

What's the answer? Specifically, most good computer architecture papers conclude that something is so many percent faster, cheaper, smaller, or otherwise better than something else. Put the result there, in numbers. Avoid vague, hand-waving results such as "very", "small", or "significant." If you must be vague, you are only given license to do so when you can talk about orders-of-magnitude improvement. There is a tension here in that you should not provide numbers that can be easily misinterpreted, but on the other hand you don't have room for all the caveats.

Conclusions:

What are the implications of your answer? Is it going to change the world (unlikely), be a significant "win", be a nice hack, or simply serve as a road sign indicating that this path is a waste of time (all of the previous results are useful). Are your results general, potentially generalizable, or specific to a particular case?

Other Considerations

An abstract must be a fully self-contained, capsule description of the paper. It can't assume (or attempt to provoke) the reader into flipping through looking for an explanation of what is meant by some vague statement. It must make sense all by itself.

Some points to consider include:

Meet the word count limitation. If your abstract runs too long, either it will be rejected or someone will take a chainsaw to it to get it down to size. Your purposes will be better served by doing the difficult task of cutting yourself, rather than leaving it to someone else who might be more interested in meeting size restrictions than in representing your efforts in the best possible manner. An abstract word limit of 150 to 200 words is common.

Any major restrictions or limitations on the results should be stated, if only by using "weasel-words" such as "might", "could", "may", and "seem".

Think of a half-dozen search phrases and keywords that people looking for your work might use. Be sure that those exact phrases appear in your abstract, so that they will turn up at the top of a search result listing.

Usually the context of a paper is set by the publication it appears in (for example, IEEE Computer magazine's articles are generally about computer technology). But, if your paper appears in a somewhat un-traditional venue, be sure to include in the problem statement the domain or topic area that it is really applicable to.

Some publications request "keywords". These have two purposes. They are used to facilitate keyword index searches, which are greatly reduced in importance now that on-line abstract text searching is commonly used. However, they are also used to assign papers to review committees or editors, which can be extremely important to your fate. So make sure that the keywords you pick make assigning your paper to a review category obvious (for example, if there is a list of conference topics, use your chosen topic area as one of the keyword tuples).

Conclusion

Writing an efficient abstract is hard work, but will repay you with increased impact on the world by enticing people to read your publications. Make sure that all the components of a good abstract are included in the next one you write.

https://users.ece.cmu.edu/~koopman/essays/abstract.html

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3136027/

A proposal is a request for financial assistance to implement a project. The proposal outlines the plan of the implementing organisation about the project, giving extensive information about the intention, for implementing it, the ways to manage it and the results to be delivered from it (FUNDS FOR NGOS 2010).The following guidelines are designed to help you prepare your full proposal. How well you plan the action is critical to the success of the project.

A project proposal is a detailed description of a series of activities aimed at solving a certain problem (NEBIU 2002). In order to be successful, the document should (REPOA 2007):

- provide a logical presentation of a research idea
- illustrate the significance of the idea
- show the idea's relationship to past actions
- articulate the activities for the proposed project

Designing a project is a process consisting of two elements, which are equally important and thus essential to forming a solid project proposal:

- poject planning (formulation of project elements)
- proposal writing (converting the plan into a project document)

The project proposal should be a detailed and directed manifestation of the project design. It is a means of presenting the project to the outside world in a format that is immediately recognised and accepted.

Getting Ready to Start a Project Proposal

From vision to proposal: The first step is to decide what the problem is and develop a rough idea (vision) of how this could be solved. This vision is then to be transformed into an idea for a specific project proposal. A logical framework may help you to structure this idea in a systematic way, and clearly define the aim, purpose, outputs, activities, means, costs and the methodologies for monitoring and evaluation, and will thus from the basis for the preparation of the narrative of the proposal. Remember that your idea may have to fit certain requirements if you are answering to a call for proposals, and that it must also fit local policies and frameworks.

Identify potential funding options: **It** is necessary to find out in advance what sources of funding are available, through governments, international cooperation agencies, some international NGOs or private foundations.

The proposal format might sometimes be of importance for the donor.

"The requirements of content and format of proposals differ noticeably from one sponsoring agency to another. While some may provide their own application forms to be filled, and others may request on-line submission of proposals, others will accept a proposal in any format as long as it features the necessary information, and does not contradict their conditions"

Proposed Format for a Full Project Proposal

A full proposal should have the following parts:

Title page: A title page should appear on proposals longer than three to four pages. The title page should indicate the project title, the name of the lead organisation (and potential partners, if any), the place and date of project preparation and the name of the donor agency to whom the proposal is addressed.

Project title: The project title should be short, concise, and preferably refer to a certain key project result or the leading project activity. Project titles that are too long or too general fail to give the reader an effective snapshot of what is inside.

Abstract/Executive Summary: Many readers lack the time needed to read the whole project proposal. It is therefore useful to insert a short project summary, an abstract or executive summary. The abstract should include: the problem statement, the project's objectives, implementing organisations; key project activities; and potentially the total project budget. Theoretically, the abstract should be compiled after the relevant items already exist in their long form. For a small project the abstract may not be longer than 10 lines. Bigger projects often provide abstracts as long as two pages.

Context: This part of the project describes the social, economic, political and cultural background from which the project is initiated. It should contain relevant data from research carried out in the project planning phase or collected from other sources.

Project justification: A rationale should be provided for the project. Due to its importance, this section is sometimes divided into four or more sub-sections:

Problem statement: The problem statement provides a description of the specific problem(s) the project is trying to solve, in order to "make a case" for the project. Furthermore, the project proposal should point out why a certain issue is a problem for the community or society as a whole, i.e. what negative implications affect the target group. There should also be an explanation of the needs of the target group that appear as a direct consequence of the described problem.

Priority needs: The needs of the target group that have arisen as a direct negative impact of the problem should be prioritised. An explanation as to how this decision was reached must also be included.

The proposed approach (type of intervention): The project proposal should describe the strategy chosen for solving the problem and precisely how it will lead to improvement.

The implementing organisation: This section should describe the capabilities of your organisation by referring to its capacity and previous project record. Describe why exactly your organisation is the most appropriate to run the project, its connexion to the local community, the constituency behind the organisation and what kind of expertise the

organisation can provide. If other partners are involved in implementation provide some information on their capacity as well.

Project aims: This information should be obtained from the Logframe Matrix, including the project goal (a general aim that should explain what the core problem is and why the project is important, i.e. what the long-term benefits to the target group are), project purpose (that should address the core problem in terms of the benefits to be received by the project beneficiaries or target group as a direct result of the project) and the outputs (i.e. results describe the services or products to be delivered to the intended beneficiaries).

Target group: define the target group and show how it will benefit from the project. The project should provide a detailed description of the size and characteristics of the target groups, and especially of direct project beneficiaries.

Project implementation: **The** implementation plan should describe activities and resource allocation in as much detail as possible. It is exceptionally important to provide a good overview of who is going to implement the project's activities, as well as when and where. The implementation plan may be divided into two key elements: the activity plan and the resource plan. The activity plan should include specific information and explanations of each of the planned project activities. The duration of the project should be clearly stated, with considerable detail on the beginning and the end of the project. In general, two main formats are used to express the activity plan: a simple table (a simple table with columns for activities, sub-activities, tasks, timing and responsibility in a clear and readily understandable format) and the Gantt chart (a universal format for presenting activities in certain times frames, shows the dependence and sequence for each activity, see project management for more info. The resource plan should provide information on the means necessary to undertake the project. Cost categories are established at this stage in order to aggregate and summarise the cost information for budgeting.

Budget: An itemised summary of an organisation's expected income and expenses over a specified period of time.

Monitoring and evaluation: The basis for monitoring is set when the indicators for results are set. The project proposal should indicate: how and when the project management team will conduct activities to monitor the project's progress; which methods will be used to monitor and evaluate; and who will do the evaluation.

Reporting: The schedule of project progress and financial report could be set in the project proposal. Often these obligations are determined by the standard requirements of the donor agency. The project report may be compiled in different versions, with regard to the audience they are targeting.

Source: http://www.sswm.info/content/project-proposal-writing

Case Study

Examine the differences between qualitative and quantitative data.

Qualitative Data	Quantitative Data
Overview: Deals with descriptions. Data can be observed but not measured. Colors, textures, smells, tastes, appearance, beauty, etc.	Overview: Deals with numbers. Data which can be measured. Length, height, area, volume, weight, speed, time, temperature, humidity, sound levels,

Qualitative → Quality	cost, members, ages, etc. Quantitative → Quantity
Example 1: Oil Painting Qualitative data: blue/green color, gold frame smells old and musty texture shows brush strokes of oil paint peaceful scene of the country masterful brush strokes	Example 1: Oil Painting Quantitative data: picture is 10" by 14" with frame 14" by 18" weighs 8.5 pounds surface area of painting is 140 sq. in. cost $300
Example 2: Latte Qualitative data: robust aroma frothy appearance strong taste burgundy cup	Example 2: Latte Quantitative data: 12 ounces of latte serving temperature 150º F. serving cup 7 inches in height cost $4.95
Example 3: Freshman Class Qualitative data: friendly demeanors civic minded environmentalists positive school spirit	Example 3: Freshman Class Quantitative data: 672 students 394 girls, 278 boys 68% on honor roll 150 students accelerated in mathematics

http://regentsprep.org/regents/math/algebra/ad1/qualquant.htm

What is the Difference between Qualitative Research and Quantitative Research?

Qualitative Research is primarily exploratory research. It is used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations. It provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research. Qualitative Research is also used to uncover trends in thought and opinions, and dive deeper into the problem. Qualitative data collection methods vary using unstructured or semi-structured techniques. Some common methods include focus groups (group discussions), individual interviews, and participation/observations. The sample size is typically small, and respondents are selected to fulfill a given quota.

Quantitative Research is used to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. It is used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviors, and other defined variables – and generalize results from a larger sample population. Quantitative Research uses measurable data to formulate facts and uncover patterns in research. Quantitative data collection methods are much more structured than Qualitative data collection methods. Quantitative data collection methods include various forms of surveys – online surveys, paper surveys, mobile surveys and kiosk surveys, face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, longitudinal studies, website interceptors, online polls, and systematic observations.

Frameworks of Continuing Professional Development

CPD is a planned, continuous and lifelong process whereby teachers try to develop their personal and professional qualities, and to improve their knowledge, skills and practice, leading to their empowerment, the improvement of their agency and the development of their organisation and their pupils.

CPD Framework for teachers has the following features:

Three elements of teacher competence: professional practices, language proficiency and formal qualifications.

Twelve professional practices represent the knowledge and skills a teacher needs – each professional practice is described in detail by a list of elements.

Teachers knowledge and skills in each professional practice is shown through four stages of development:

Awareness – the teacher has heard of the professional practice

Understanding – the teacher knows what the professional practice means and why it is important Engagement – the teacher demonstrates competency in this professional practice at work. Integration – the teacher demonstrates a high level of competency in this professional practice and it consistently informs what she or he does at work.

The teacher educator framework comprises three indicators of professional competence and four stages of development.

The indicators of professional competence are:

ten professional practices

seven enabling skills

five self-awareness features

The framework outlines four stages of development for Teacher Educators as listed below: Foundation – the individual has the foundation of teaching skills and knowledge on which to build his or her role as a teacher educator.

Engagement – the individual has developed his/her skills and knowledge as a teacher educator through practical experience and professional learning.

Integration – the individual has achieved a high level of competence as a teacher educator. Specialisation – the individuals act as a point of reference for other teacher educators and as a source of expert opinion.

Teachers and teacher educators can progress by actively engaging in their own development in five important ways:

Identifying their strengths and areas of development in relation to the areas of competence outlined on the frameworks.

Setting goals for their professional development and planning activities to meet those goals.
Identifying suitable resources and colleagues that can assist them with their development.

Learning to access and use suitable resources and ideas both within their classroom teaching and personal development.

Engaging with other teachers through communities of practice.

Activities for CPD

- Keeping a reflective CPD diary or journal and an action plan for development.
- Carrying out small-scale classroom-based research.
- Participating in a face-to-face, online or blended workshop or course.
- Participating in seminars and conferences.
- Reading professional magazines, journals and books.
- Experimenting with new resources and ideas in the classroom.
- Observing and working with their peers

Elements of Reasoning

Helping Students Assess Their Thinking

by Richard Paul and Linda Elder

There are two essential dimensions of thinking that students need to master in order to learn how to upgrade their thinking. They need to be able to identify the "parts" of their thinking, and they need to be able to assess their use of these partsof thinking , as follows:

All reasoning has a purpose

All reasoning is an attempt to figure something out, to settle some question, to solve some problem

All reasoning is based on assumptions

All reasoning is done from some point of view

All reasoning is based on data, information, and evidence

All reasoning is expressed through, and shaped by, concepts and ideas

All reasoning contains inferences by which we draw conclusions and give meaning to data

All reasoning leads somewhere, has implications and consequences

The question can then be raised, "What appropriate intellectual standards do students need to assess the 'parts' of their thinking?" There are many standards appropriate to the assessment of thinking as it might occur in this or that context, but some standards are virtually universal (that is, applicable to all thinking): clarity, precision, accuracy, relevance, depth, breadth, and logic.

How well a student is reasoning depends on how well he/she applies these universal standards to the elements (or parts) of thinking.

What follows are some guidelines helpful to students as they work toward developing their reasoning abilities:

All reasoning has a PURPOSE:

Take time to state your purpose clearly

Distinguish your purpose from related purposes

Check periodically to be sure you are still on target

Choose significant and realistic purposes

All reasoning is an attempt to FIGURE SOMETHING OUT, TO SETTLE SOME QUESTION, TO SOLVE SOME PROBLEM: Take time to clearly and precisely state the question at issue

Express the question in several ways to clarify its meaning and scope

Break the question into sub questions

Identify if the question has one right answer, is a matter of opinion, or requires reasoning from more than one point of view

All reasoning is based on ASSUMPTIONS:

Clearly identify your assumptions and determine whether they are justifiable Consider how your assumptions are shaping your point of view

All reasoning is done from some POINT OF VIEW:

Identify your point of view

Seek other points of view and identify their strengths as well as weaknesses Strive to be fair-minded in evaluating all points of view

All reasoning is based on DATA, INFORMATION and EVIDENCE:

Restrict your claims to those supported by the data you have

Search for information that opposes your position as well as information that supports it

Make sure that all information used is clear, accurate, and relevant to the question at issue

Make sure you have gathered sufficient information

All reasoning is expressed through, and shaped by, CONCEPTS and IDEAS:

Identify key concepts and explain them clearly

Consider alternative concepts or alternative definitions to concepts

Make sure you are using concepts with care and precision

All reasoning contains INFERENCES or INTERPRETATIONS by which we draw CONCLUSIONS and give meaning to data: Infer only what the evidence implies

Check inferences for their consistency with each other

Identify assumptions which lead you to your inferences

All reasoning leads somewhere or has IMPLICATIONS and CONSEQUENCES: Trace the implications and consequences that follow from your reasoning Search for negative as well as positive implications Consider all possible consequences

(Paul, R. and Elder, L. (April 1997). Foundation For Critical Thinking, Online at website: www.criticalthinking.org)

Extra Materials

Humanistic education (also called person-centered education) is an approach to education based on the work of humanistic psychologists, most notably Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Carl Rogers has been called the "Father of Humanistic Psychology" and devoted much of his efforts toward applying the results of his psychological research to person-centered teaching where empathy, caring about students, and genuineness on the part of the learning facilitator were found to be the key traits of the most effective teachers citation needed. He edited a series of books dealing with humanistic education in his "Studies of the Person Series," which included his book, Freedom to Learn and Learning to Feel - Feeling to Learn - Humanistic Education for the Whole Man, by Harold C. Lyon, Jr. In the 1970s the term "humanistic education" became less popular after conservative groups equated it with "Secular Humanism" and attacked the writings of Harold Lyon as being anti-Christian. That began a successful effort by Aspy, Lyon, Rogers, and others to re-label it "person-centered teaching", replacing the term "humanistic education." In a more general sense the term includes the work of other humanistic pedagogues, such as Rudolf Steiner, and Maria Montessori. All of these approaches seek to engage the "whole person" the intellect, feeling life, social capacities, and artistic and practical skills are all important focuses for growth and development. Important objectives include developing children's self-esteem, their ability to set and achieve appropriate goals, and their development toward full autonomy.