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جامعة باجي مختار - عنابة

كلية الآداب و اللغات

قسم الآداب و اللغة الإنجليزية



TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

-TEFL-

Master I-Language Sciences

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TEFL Syllabus

Master I: Language Sciences

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1. Description of the Module

The module of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) is designed to master 1 students of English option Language sciences. It is concerned with Applied linguistics, Second language acquisition, learning difficulties, the different methods of teaching and basic concepts included in teaching English as a foreign language as the eclectic approach, deductive and inductive approaches, scientific grammar versus pedagogic grammar and assessment. The focus throughout the module is on developing learners' knowledge, awareness and even practice of the necessary standards and conditions for an effective teaching/ learning situation as future teachers of English. This module is once a week for 1h.30.

2. Objectives

On a successful completion of the module master 1 students through debates, discussions, individual/pair/ group works, think/pair/share technique will be able to:

1. Define teaching and learning and differentiate between deep and surface learning approaches in addition to discussing the main aspects of effective teaching.
2. Discuss and synthesize the different definitions of applied linguistics.
3. Distinguish between learning and acquisition, English as a second language and English as a foreign language.
4. Discuss and compare the different theories of second language learning.
5. Identify contrastive analysis and compare its objectives with Error analysis and recognize the procedures of each in addition to the limitations.
6. Identify, practice, compare and contrast strengths and weaknesses of a number of teaching methods and approaches: Grammar translation Method (GTM), The Direct Method (DM), The ASTP (The Army Specialised Training Programme), The Audio-lingual method (ALM), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Community

Language Learning (CLL), Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, and the Total Physical Response (TPR).

7. Summarize the key elements of the eclectic approach and contrast egrule and ruleg.
8. Compare/Contrast scientific grammar and pedagogic grammar and explain the link between them.
9. Differentiate between certain key words related to assessment and recognize the components of an effective test.

3. Procedure

1. Learners should prepare the lessons for every session depending on the syllabus provided at the beginning of the year.
2. Students will first discuss their lesson preparation through classroom discussion or pair/group work in order to answer guiding questions.
3. The lessons' will be sent via email by the teacher after every session and sometimes before the lesson in the case of different definitions to be discussed and synthesized in the classroom.
4. The lessons end with homework that learners submit/discuss next session.

4. Assessment

TEFL is a module with two marks: the TD 50% and the exam (50%).

✓ TD mark is based on the following criteria:

1. Students' presence.
2. Students' participation.
3. Students' regular work.
4. The written test/quiz.

✓ The exam mark is totally based on the written exam.

5. Proposed Reading list

1. Brown, D. 2000/ 2007. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Pearson Education, Inc
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10. Scrivener, J. 2011. *Learning Teaching: The Essential Guide to English Language Teaching*. MACMILLAN Publisher Limited.
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12. Williams, M. & Burden, R.L. (1997). *Psychology for Language Teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
13. Schunk, D. H. 2012. *Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective*. Pearson Education, Inc
14. Biggs, J. & Tang, C. 2011. *Teaching for Quality Learning at University: What the Student Does*. McGraw-Hill, Open University Press.

Introduction: Effective Learning and Teaching

Objectives of the lessons:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Explain learning and teaching
2. Distinguish between deep and surface learning approach
3. Clarify the main elements of effective teaching through discussions and charting homework.

The increased learning and teaching of English throughout the world during recent years in both state and commercial educational institutions has produced a new cadre of professionals: teachers of EFL. The meaning of learning and teaching in addition to the characteristics of effective teaching have been focused on.

1. Learning

Schunk (2012, p.4-5). Learning involves acquiring and modifying knowledge, skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. People learn cognitive, linguistic, motor, and social skills, and these can take many forms. Learning is characterized by three criteria:

- a) *Learning involves change* in behavior or in the capacity for behavior as people learn when they become capable of doing something differently.
- b) *Learning endures over time*.
- c) *Learning occurs through experience* (e.g., practice, observation of others).

For Brown (2007), learning implies "acquiring or getting of knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience, or instruction" (p. 7-8). In addition,

1. Learning is acquisition or "getting."
2. Learning is retention of information or skill.

3. Retention implies storage systems, memory, and cognitive organization.
4. Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
5. Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
6. Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice.
7. Learning is a change in behavior.

2. Teaching

Teaching is guiding and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, setting the conditions for learning. Teaching cannot be defined apart from learning as teachers' understanding of how the learner learns will determine their philosophy of education, their teaching style, approach, methods, and classroom techniques. Moran & Dallat (1995) view that teaching involves considerable interchange between thought and action. Bartlett (1997, p. 204) defines teaching as an interactive process that needs to develop shared understandings in a community of knowledge users and developers. He advocates that teaching becomes pedagogy when teachers involve learners in learning inside and outside the classroom. For Stern (2001, p. 21), a theory of language teaching always implies concepts of language learning. For Arnold (1999), "Learning is a goal; teaching is but a tool", then, she adds, "after all as teachers we should make their (learners') progress our main concern" (p. 25). Furthermore, Lange (1997, p. 248) distinguishes between teaching as a craft and teaching as an art. The first relates to teacher's knowledge of the subject matter, knowledge on teaching the subject matter and knowledge on teaching in general. The second involves the combination of knowledge and experience in the decisions that teachers make as they interact with learners.

3. Deep Approach Vs Surface Approach

Hinett (2002) distinguishes between two approaches to learning: surface approach and deep approach. Within the first approach, learners are extrinsically motivated to learn, whereas within the deep approach learners are committed to understand and reflect on their experiences to assure future improvements. Hence, effective teaching requires that we eliminate those aspects of our teaching that encourage surface approaches to learning; so that students will more readily use deep approaches to learning. The deep approach arises from a felt need to engage the task appropriately and meaningfully, so the student tries to use the most appropriate cognitive activities for handling it (Biggs & Tang, 2011, pp. 26-27).

From the student's side:

- An intention to engage the task meaningfully and appropriately. Such an intention may arise from an intrinsic curiosity or from a determination to do well;
- appropriate background knowledge and a well-structured knowledge base;
- the ability to focus at a high conceptual level,
- a genuine preference for working conceptually rather than with unrelated detail.

From the teacher's side:

- Teaching in such a way as to explicitly bring out the structure of the topic or subject;
- teaching to elicit an active response from students, e.g. by questioning, presenting problems for them to solve, rather than teaching to expound information;
- Teaching by building on what students already know;
- confronting and eradicating students' misconceptions;
- assessing for structure rather than for independent facts;
- teaching and assessing in a way that encourages a positive learning atmosphere, so students can make mistakes and learn from them;
- emphasizing depth of learning, rather than breadth of coverage;

- in general, and most importantly, using teaching and assessment methods that support the explicit aims and intended outcomes of the course.

Scales (2008) further explains that deep learning is the result of active learning while surface learning is the result of passive learning. In addition, a learner in the surface approach is concerned with memorizing the material for what it is and not trying to understand it in relation to previous ideas. Therefore, surface learners give up easily and quickly because this learning is boring and tedious, whereas deep learning is satisfying which leads learners to persist (Brockbank & McGill, 2007, p. 44).

4. Effective teaching

An important aspect to effective teaching is reflective practice, using transformative reflection, which involves teachers reflecting on their current teaching through the lens of a sound theory of teaching and learning in order to create an improved teaching environment that adapts to changing conditions (Biggs & Tang, 2011).

1. Getting students involved in learning: motivation

What makes a task worth doing?

- What the outcome produces (*extrinsic* motivation);
- What other people value (*social* motivation);
- The opportunity for ego enhancement (*achievement* motivation);
- The process of doing it (*intrinsic* motivation).

2. The teaching/learning climate

Teachers create a certain learning climate through formal and informal interactions with students, which establishes how we and our students feel about learning. This naturally has strong effects on students' learning.

3. Transformative reflection

‘Reflection’ is, however, a misleading word. *Transformative reflection* is better. When you stand in front of a mirror what you see is your reflection, what you *are*. Transformative reflection is rather like the mirror in Snow White: it tells you what you *might be*. This mirror uses theory to enable the transformation from the unsatisfactory what-is to the more effective what might-be.

- a. What do I want my students to learn?
- b. What is the best way in my circumstances and within available resources of getting them to learn it?
- c. How can I know when or how well they have learned it?

Homework:

In a chart format, the students will distinguish between:

- a) Teaching and learning
- b) The deep learning approach and the surface one
- c) Effective teaching and non effective teaching with personal examples

References

1. Bartlett, L. (1997). Teacher development through reflective teaching. In J. C. Richards, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second language teacher education* (pp.202-214). Cambridge University Press.
2. Biggs, J. & Tang, C. 2011. *Teaching for Quality Learning at University: What the Student Does*. McGraw-Hill, Open University Press.
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5. Hinett, K. (2002). *Developing reflective practice in legal education*. UK Center for Legal
6. Lange, L. D. (1997). A Blue print for a teacher development program. In J. C. Richards, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second language teacher education* (pp. 245-268). Cambridge University Press.
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Applied Linguistics

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Gain awareness of the different definitions attributed to applied linguistics
2. Discuss and synthesizing the different definitions of Applied Linguistics.

Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching

Is Language teaching an art or a science? It is an art because it is a highly skilled activity which is learned by careful observation and patience practice. But there is a considerable body of language , about how it is learned and what part it plays in the life of the individual and the community. These are matters of scientific investigation, by those who study human language, the linguist. Linguists provide a growing body of scientific knowledge about language which can guide the activity of the language teacher.

1. **Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards and Richard, 2002.p. 28):**

Applied linguistics n

- a) the study of second and foreign language learning and teaching.
- b) the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems, such as LEXICOGRAPHY, TRANSLATION, SPEECH PATHOLOGY, etc. Applied linguistics uses information from sociology, psychology, anthropology, and INFORMATION THEORY as well as from linguistics in order to develop its own theoretical models of language and language use, and then uses this information and theory in practical areas such as syllabus design, SPEECH THERAPY, LANGUAGE PLANNING, STYLISTICS, etc.

2. *Davies and Elder (2004, p.1)*

Applied linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. The problems applied linguistics concerns itself with are likely to be: How can we teach languages better? How can we diagnose speech pathologies better? How can we improve the training of translators and interpreters? How can we write a valid language examination? How can we evaluate a school bilingual program? How can we determine the literacy levels of a whole population? How can we helpfully discuss the language of a text? What advice can we offer a Ministry of Education on a proposal to introduce a new medium of instruction? How can we compare the acquisition of a European and an Asian language? What advice should we give a defense lawyer on the authenticity of a police transcript of an interview with a suspect?

They add (p. 2)

For the most part, those who write about applied linguistics accept that the label “applied linguistics” refers to language teaching (in its widest interpretation, therefore including speech therapy, translation and interpreting studies, language planning, etc.).

3. *Corder (1993, pp. 10-11)*

The application of linguistic knowledge to some object- or applied linguistics, as its name implies- is an activity. It is not a theoretical study. It makes use of the findings of theoretical studies. The applied linguist is a consumer, or user, not a producer, of theories.....Language teaching is also an activity, but teaching languages is not the same activity as applied linguistics. However, if we interpret language teaching in the very broadest sense, to include all the planning and decision-making which takes place

outside the classroom, then there may be an element of applied linguistics in all language teaching.

4. Yule (1997,p. 197):

...makes appeal to ideas not only from linguistic analysis, but from other fields such as communication studies, education, psychology and sociology. It represents an attempt to deal with a large range of practical issues involving language (not only L2 learning), applied linguistics has emerged in recent years as one of the most active areas of investigation in the study of language.

5. Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill &Pincas (1980, p. 38):

Linguistics, the study of language itself, has drawn on ideas from *sociology* to establish the place and role of language in the sociology of human behaviour, and from *psychology* to investigate among other things how language is learned. The result is two new disciplines, *sociolinguistics* and *psycholinguistics*, which, together with linguistics proper, form the central area of *applied linguistics*. This last field is concerned with many activities involving language—for example, speech pathology, machine translation, mother tongue acquisition, literary analysis. But for the present purpose its chief relevance is to language teaching.

6. Davies (2007, p. 11)

Applied linguistics can then be seen to be the driver, with linguistics following behind to respond to the practical questions applied linguistic raises, attempting to answer them and by doing so widening its range of coverage. Take second language acquisition, now firmly within theoretical linguistics but itself in origin a very practical study of error analysis in TEFL; or critical discourse analysis and other areas of stylistics or LSPs, now

drawn into the wider study within sociolinguistics of language variation; or translation a seriously practical pursuit and now slowly becoming absorbed into comparative linguistics.

7. Michael (2000, pp. 32- 33)

The role of applied linguistics as a source discipline for language teaching is not one which is easy to define. This is partly due to the fact that the term ‘applied linguistics’ has changed its meaning several times since it was first used in the 1940s as an academically respectable way of talking about language teaching theory. As a result of this, the relationship between applied linguists and language teachers has not been a stable one, and has itself undergone many changes.

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Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to

1. Explain the term ' Second language Acquisition as a field of study,
2. Distinguish between acquisition and learning
3. Differ between First language Acquisition (FLA), Second language acquisition (SLA), and bilingualism.
4. Distinguish between English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL).
5. Gain knowledge of English as an international language.

1. Overview on SLA

According to Saville-Troike (2006, p.2), **Second Language Acquisition (SLA)** refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language. The additional language is called a **second language (L2)**, even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also commonly called a **target language (TL)**, which refers to any language that is the aim or goal of learning. The scope of SLA includes **informal L2 learning** that takes place in naturalistic contexts, **formal L2 learning** that takes place in classrooms, and L2 learning that involves a mixture of these settings and circumstances. She further clarifies that in trying to understand the process of second language acquisition, we are seeking to answer three basic questions:

- (1) *What* exactly does the L2 learner come to know?
- (2) *How* does the learner acquire this knowledge?
- (3) *Why* are some learners more successful than others?

For Ortega (2013, p 2),

- Second language acquisition (SLA, for short) is the scholarly field of inquiry that investigates the human capacity to learn languages other than the first, during late childhood, adolescence or adulthood, and once the first language or languages have been acquired. It studies a wide variety of complex influences and phenomena that contribute to the puzzling range of possible outcomes when learning an additional language in a variety of contexts.
- SLA began in the late 1960s as an emerging interdisciplinary enterprise that borrowed equally from the feeder fields of language teaching, linguistics, child language acquisition and psychology (Huebner, 1998).
- During the 1980s and 1990s SLA expanded considerably in scope and methodology, to the point that by the end of the twentieth century, after some 40 years of exponential growth, it had finally reached its coming of age as an autonomous discipline (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The growth of SLA continues to be prodigious today.

2. Language distinctions in SLA

According to Saville-Troike (2006, p.4), sometimes it is necessary for us to make further distinctions according to the function the L2 will serve in our lives, since this may significantly affect *what* we learn. These differences may determine the specific areas of vocabulary knowledge we need, the level of grammatical complexity we have to attain, and whether speaking or reading skills are more important. The following are distinctions commonly made in the literature:

- A **second language** is typically an official or societally dominant language needed for education, employment, and other basic purposes. It is often acquired by minority

group members or immigrants who speak another language natively. In this more restricted sense, the term is contrasted with other terms in this list.

- A **foreign language** is one not widely used in the learners' immediate social context which might be used for future travel or other cross-cultural communication situations, or studied as a curricular requirement or elective in school, but with no immediate or necessary practical application.
- A **library language** is one which functions primarily as a tool for further learning through reading, especially when books or journals in a desired field of study are not commonly published in the learners' native tongue.
- An **auxiliary language** is one which learners need to know for some official functions in their immediate political setting, or will need for purposes of wider communication, although their first language serves most other needs in their lives.
- Other restricted or highly specialized functions for 'second' languages are designated **language for specific purposes** (such as *French for Hotel Management*, *English for Aviation Technology*, *Spanish for Agriculture*, and a host of others), and the learning of these typically focuses only on a narrow set of occupation-specific uses and functions. One such prominent area is *English for Academic Purposes (EAP)*.

3. First Language Acquisition, Bilingualism and SLA

Saville-Troike (2006, p.4) sees that there is also sometimes a need to distinguish among the concepts

- **first language, native language, primary language, and mother tongue**, although these are usually treated as a roughly synonymous set of terms (generalized as **L1** to oppose the set generalized as **L2**). The distinctions are not always clear-cut. For purposes of SLA concerns, the important features that all shades of L1s share are that

they are assumed to be languages which are acquired during early childhood – normally beginning before the age of about three years – and that they are learned as part of growing up among people who speak them.

- Acquisition of more than one language during early childhood is called **simultaneous multilingualism**, to be distinguished from **sequential multilingualism**, or learning additional languages after L1 has already been established. ('Multilingualism' as used here includes bilingualism.) Simultaneous multilingualism results in more than one "native" language for an individual, though it is undoubtedly much less common than sequential multilingualism. It appears that there are significant differences between the processes and/or results of language acquisition by young children and by older learners,

Ortega (2013, p 3- 4) makes the following distinctions:

- In some parts of our world, most children grow up speaking one language only. It should be underscored that this case is truly the minority in the large picture of humanity. The field that investigates these cases of monolingual language acquisition is known by the generic name of **child language acquisition** or **first language acquisition**. Child language acquisition happens in a predictable pattern, broadly speaking.
- In many parts of the globe, most children grow up speaking two or more languages simultaneously. These cases are in fact the majority in our species. We use the term 'bilingual acquisition' or 'multilingual acquisition' to refer to the process of learning two or more languages relatively simultaneously during early childhood – that is, before the age of four. The field that studies these developmental phenomena is **bilingualism** (or **multilingualism**, if several rather than two languages are learned during childhood). Two key questions of interest are how the two (or more) languages

are represented in the brain and how bilingual speakers switch and alternate between their two (or more) languages, depending on a range of communicative needs and desires.

- The third field devoted to the study of the acquisition and development of the language faculty is **second language acquisition**. SLA as a field investigates the human capacity to learn languages once the first language – in the case of monolingual children – or the first languages – in the case of bilingual or multilingual children – have been learned and are established. Naturally, this happens later in life, whether in late childhood, adolescence or adulthood.

4. ESL Vs EFL

Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas (1980) make the distinctions as follows (pp.5-6):

- first language situations where English is the mother tongue (MT), as in the USA or Australasia,
- **English as a second language** (SL) in situations where English is the language of commercial, administrative and educational institutions, as in Ghana or Singapore. In a second language situation, English is the language of the mass media: newspapers, radio and television are largely English media. English is also the language of official institutions—of law courts, local and central government— and of education. It is also the language of large commercial and industrial organisations. Clearly, a good command of English in a second language situation is the passport to social and economic advancement, and the successful user of the appropriate variety of English identifies himself as a successful, integrated member of that language community.

- **English is a foreign language.** That is, it is taught in schools, often widely, but it does not play an essential role in national or social life. In Spain, Brazil and Japan, for example, Spanish, Portuguese and Japanese are the normal medium of communication and instruction: the average citizen does not need English or any other foreign language to live his daily life or even for social or professional advancement.

5. English as an International Language

According to Edge (1999), Different reasons were behind the spread of English around the world as British trade followed by colonial and imperial expansion. Then, the dominance of USA has confirmed the status of English as an international language. English becomes the bridge to higher education, science, international trade, politics, and tourism (p. 25).

The role of English can best deal with in terms of attitudes, ownership and ability (pp. 26-27)

- **Attitudes:** with a positive attitude towards language and the speakers of that language, this will help in learning the language.
- **Ownership:** In many countries such as India, Nigeria and Singapore, English is widely used in at least some parts of everyday life. This is the situation which is meant when people talk about English as a second or foreign language.
- **Ability:** This refers to the ability to do something, to pass the exam, get a job, do a job, write a letter, or make a speech. Acceptable standards of correctness will always be involved in these activities.

Homework:

1. By referring to different countries, provide examples of 1st language, 2nd language and Foreign language.

2. In the Algerian context, provide examples of different L1s, simultaneous multilingualism and sequential multilingualism.
3. List the languages that you can use. First classify them as L1(s) and L2(s), and then further classify the L2(s) as “second,” “foreign,” “library,” “auxiliary,” or “for special purposes.” Finally, distinguish between the ways you learned each of the languages: through informal exposure, formal instruction, or some combination of these.
4. Provide examples of Algerian immigrants in different countries and state their L1 and L2, FL.
5. In a chart Format, students will show the difference between acquisition and learning based on the lesson and on extra research.

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Theories in Second/Foreign language learning

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Explain the main elements of the behaviourist theory: stimulus, response reinforcement.
2. Recognize the different factors affecting the cognitive theory and identifying the different processes involved in cognition.
3. Distinguish between Individual constructivism and social constructivism
4. Gain awareness of Chomsky's Universal grammar theory.
5. Recognize Krashen's five theories of language learning

1. Behaviourism

According to Schunk (1991), Behaviorism dominated the psychology of learning for the first half of the twentieth century. These theories explain learning in terms of **environmental events**. The learning theories of Thorndike, Pavlov, and Guthrie are of historical importance. Although these theories differ, each views learning as a process of forming associations between stimuli and responses. Thorndike believed that responses to stimuli are strengthened when followed by satisfying consequences. Pavlov experimentally demonstrated how stimuli could be conditioned to elicit responses by being paired with other stimuli. Guthrie hypothesized that a contiguous relation between stimulus and response established their pairing. These theories and the research they generated helped to establish the psychology of learning as a legitimate area of study. Hence, Pritchard (2009) concludes that behaviourism is a theory of learning focusing on observable behaviours and discounting any mental activity.

Learning is defined simply as the acquisition of new behavior. The behaviourists call this method of learning ‘conditioning’ (p. 6). Two different types of conditioning is are described:

a) Classical conditioning

It involves the reinforcement of a natural reflex or some other behavior which occurs as a response to a particular stimulus (Pavlov who conditioned dogs to salivate at the sound of a bell).

b) Operant conditioning:

It is the most important type of behaviourist learning. It is more flexible in its nature than classical conditioning and therefore seen as potentially more powerful. It involves reinforcing a behaviour by rewarding it. It can also work in a negative way, when an undesirable behavior can be discouraged, by following it with punishment of some form. In some cases, simply not offering an expected reward for a particular behaviour is a sufficient punishment. The learning theory formulated by B. F. Skinner—is based on the assumption that features of the environment (stimuli, situations, events) serve as cues for responding. Reinforcement strengthens responses and increases their future likelihood of occurring when the stimuli are present. It is not necessary to refer to underlying physiological or mental states to explain behavior. The basic operant conditioning model is a three-term contingency involving a discriminative **stimulus** (antecedent), **response** (behavior), and **reinforcing stimulus** (consequence). The consequences of behaviors determine the likelihood that people will respond to environmental cues; consequences that are reinforcing increase behavior; consequences that are punishing decrease behavior. **Shaping** is the process used to alter behavior. Shaping involves reinforcing successive approximations of the desired behavior toward its **desired form or frequency occurrence**.

Pritchard (2009) sees that the behaviourist theory has been criticized for two main reasons:

- 1 Rewarding children for all learning is likely to cause the child to **lose interest in learning for its own sake**. Studies have suggested that using rewards with children who are already well motivated may lead to a loss of interest in the subject.
- 2 Using a reward system or giving one child increased attention may have a detrimental effect on the others in the class.

However, he adds, the behaviourist approach can be effective when applied with learners who have a history of academic failure; where there is very low motivation and high anxiety; and in cases where no other approach has worked. Schunk (1991) sees that the generality of operant conditioning principles has been **challenged** by cognitive theorists who contend that by ignoring mental processes, operant conditioning offers an incomplete account of human learning. Stimuli and reinforcement may explain some human learning, but much research shows that to explain learning and especially higher-order and complex learning, people's thoughts, beliefs, and feelings should be taken into account.

2. Cognitivism

Pritchard (2009) defines cognitivism as the scientific study of mental processes such as learning, perceiving, remembering, using language, reasoning and solving problems (p. 17). Jordank, Carlile and Stack (2008) clarify further that cognitivism involves the study of mental processes such as sensation, perception, attention, encoding and memory that behaviourists were reluctant to study, because cognition occurs inside the 'black box' of the brain (p.36). Cognitivists believe that learning results from organizing and processing information effectively. If educators understand how learners process information, they can design

learning experiences that optimize this activity. Four factors influenced the development of cognitivism as a separate discipline in psychology:

- a) The development of experimental psychology precisely experimental memory research by psychologists beginning in the 1880s.
- b) The move from an interest in external behaviours to internal brain processes: Not all learning could be explained by simple stimulus–response and reinforcement theories.
- c) The inadequacy of behaviourism to explain language acquisition: as the structural linguist Naom Chomsky challenged this by arguing that stimulus–response does not explain how children can generate sentences they have not heard before.
- d) The development of computers and an interest in artificial intelligence. Computer scientists in the 1950s were interested in mental processes that could be reproduced by machines. The computer came to be used as a metaphor for cognitive function, and the brain came to be seen as a computing device. For example, cognitive theory employs an information-processing, input-process-output model, similar to that used in the computer industry as shown in the following figure :Input-process-output model of brain processes

Jordank, Carlile and Stack (2008) further explain that there are five basic processes involved in cognition, all of which have implications for the learning process (p. 38):

1. **Sensation:** the process through which stimuli from the external environment are held very briefly in sensory registers before being transferred for further processing. For example, visual information is available for only about half a second, and fewer than ten items can be held at any one time.
2. **Perception:** the process by which we interpret and make sense of the things that are presented to our senses. This involves:
 - pattern recognition;

- object recognition;
- bottom-up or top-down processing;
- unconscious perception.

3. **Attention:** the cognitive process of selectively concentrating on one thing while ignoring others. 'Attention acts as a means of focusing limited mental resources on the information and cognitive processes that are most salient at a given moment' (Sternberg 1999: 69). It determines what reaches conscious awareness (p.41).
4. **Memory:** Memory is our ability to retain and recall information. Although we may think of memory as one particular faculty, it involves different kinds of inter-related systems: sensory, short-term (STM) and long-term (LTM). Each of these has a different purpose.
5. **Encoding:** Having perceived and then attended to stimuli, we need to encode information by organizing it in the form of a mental representation, or schema. A schema is 'a mental framework or organized pattern of thought.'

Then, Jordank, Carlile and Stack (2008, p. 51) conclude that cognitivism presents a scientific approach to learning and offers a coherent understanding of the processes involved. However, it could be argued that its focus on learning as an individual mental event ignores social processes. Its treatment of teaching as a technical-rational activity ignores the element of reflective practice and artistry involved. Cognitivism can be seen as a progressive step towards an approach that combines cognitive processes with the element of individual and shared meaning making that is constructivism.

3. Constructivism

According to Williams and Burden (1997), a key assumption of constructivism is that people are active learners and develop knowledge for themselves. Another constructivist assumption

is that teachers should not teach in the traditional sense of delivering instruction to a group of students. Rather, they should structure situations such that learners become actively involved with content through manipulation of materials and social interaction. The most straightforward recommendations are to involve students actively in their learning and to provide experiences that challenge their thinking and force them to rearrange their beliefs.

Carlson (2003) and Woolfolk (2004) draw attention to two waves in constructivism: Piaget's psychological/individual constructivism; 'the first wave constructivism' or 'solo constructivism', and Vygotsky's social constructivism; 'the second wave constructivism'.

3.1. Piaget's Psychological/Individual Constructivism

Psychological/individual constructivists are concerned with knowledge as constructed by the learner; they focus on the individual and psychological sources of learning. For instance, Piaget refers to four stages of cognitive development that all humans go through. "Thinking at each stage builds on and incorporates previous stages as it becomes more organized and adaptive and less tied to concrete events"(Woolfolk, 2004, p. 324).

1. The sensorimotor stage: extends between child's birth to two years in which the environment is experienced through the basic senses.
2. The pre-operational stage lasts between the age of two to seven, in which child's thoughts become more flexible and when memory and imagination begin to activate.
3. The concrete operational phase in which the development of the cognitive development lasts from the age of seven to eleven. It enables children to go beyond the information given, but it is still dependent on concrete rather than abstract examples.
4. The formal operational stage, the last one, allows abstract reasoning that becomes increasingly possible.

Wardsworth in his book *Piaget for the Classroom Teacher* (1978) explains that Piaget considers cognitive development as essentially a process of maturation and experience. By maturation, Piaget refers to the growth and development of the tissues of the nervous system including the brain, while experience denotes the active engagement in the environment. Piaget sees that the developing mind is hunting for equilibration, that is, “The balance between what is known and what is currently being experienced” (Williams & Burden 1997, p. 22). **Equilibration** is self-regulated process in the cognitive development which is achieved by temporary balance between two complementary processes: assimilation and accommodation. **Assimilation** is the process of fitting new information into what is already known, and **accommodation** refers to the process of modifying or changing existing knowledge to take into account new information. Besides, he considers the importance of the social environment in learners’ cognitive development, but not social interaction as the central device for changing thinking.

Subsequently, Piaget views learning as active construction of knowledge that challenges and guides thinking toward understanding. Learning is the process of exploration and discovery; experience influences thinking and thinking in its turn influences knowledge. Piaget’s suggestion that learning is an essentially active process of assimilations and accommodations, that does not depend on an adult such as a teacher, lends obvious support to a range of activities and approaches associated with what has come to be known as ‘child-centred’, or ‘student-centred’ teaching: that is to say, teaching which begins with the learner’s existing understandings and experience, helping them to build upon and develop.

3.2. Vygotsky’s Social Constructivism

In *Thought and Language* (1962), the influential Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky places more emphasis on the social environment as a facilitator of development and learning.

There are critical differences between Piaget's and Vygotsky's theories of development and learning, which are in part differences of *emphasis*. Centrally, whereas Piaget's emphasis is, from the start, on **the 'internal', independent, 'psychological' development** of the child's cognition, Vygotsky stresses throughout his writing to view learning and teaching as essentially **social activities** that take place *between* social actors in socially constructed situations. Piaget may see the child's early cognitive development as being rooted in active, **personal explorations** of the physical environment of things and of relationships between things, but Vygotsky is more inclined to perceive early development in terms of children actively **exploring their social environment** and being driven to learn by **socially-rooted factors** (such as the desire to please, to attract positive responses from adults, to participate in social networks and so on). Partly for this reason, Vygotsky places a great deal of emphasis on the relationship between thought and *language*, suggesting that **language, like thought**, begins as a social activity and that, from a very early age, thought and language become effectively inseparable from one another.

According to Williams and Burdens (1997), Vygotsky's work implicitly invites teachers to adopt strategies that are not only 'student centred' but that create spaces for students verbally to elaborate developing concepts, and that involve the teacher in a partnership model of teaching with the student. Such a model stands in clear opposition to arguments that advocate models of teacher 'transmission' and student 'reception'. In Vygotsky's theory The **'Zone of Proximal Development'** (ZPD) describes the gap, in terms of 'mental age', between what a child can do unassisted and what that same child can achieve with the benefit of adult assistance. The notions of **'consciousness'** and **'deliberation'** are critical to Vygotskian understandings of how learning itself develops and undergoes qualitative change. The 'conscious', 'deliberate' learner is one who is able to reflect on what they have learned, and indeed on the language through which their learning is taking place. They are also able to

elaborate and discuss their learning with peers and with their teachers, are capable of making decisions and exercising choices in the pursuit of their learning, and can, to an extent, articulate preferences, beliefs and understandings that might previously have only existed in a 'common-sense', very partially apprehended way.

A common application involves the concept of **instructional scaffolding**, which refers to the process of controlling task elements that are beyond the learners' capabilities so that they can focus on and master those features of the task that they can grasp quickly. To use an analogy of scaffolding employed in construction projects, instructional scaffolding has five major functions: provide support, function as a tool, extend the range of the learner, permit the attainment of tasks not otherwise possible, and use selectively only as needed.

In a learning situation, a teacher initially might do most of the work, after which the teacher and the learners share responsibility. As learners become more competent, the teacher gradually withdraws the scaffolding so learners can perform independently. The key is to ensure that the scaffolding keeps learners in the ZPD, which is raised as they develop capabilities through **negotiation**.

4. Universal Grammar (UG)

Saville-Troike (2006, pp 46- 50) clarifies that Chomsky and his followers have claimed since the 1950s that the nature of speaker-hearers' competence in their native language can be accounted for only by **innate knowledge that the human species is genetically endowed with**. They argue that children (at least) come to the task of acquiring a specific language already **possessing general knowledge of what all languages have in common**, including constraints on how any natural language can be structured. This innate knowledge is in what Chomsky calls the **language faculty**. What all languages have in common is **Universal Grammar**. Until the late 1970s, followers of this approach assumed that the language

acquisition task involves children's induction of a system of rules for particular languages from the input they receive, guided by UG. How this could happen remained quite mysterious. (Linguistic input goes into "black box" in the mind, something happens, and the grammatical system of a particular language comes out.)

Three questions are of particular importance in the study of SLA from a UG perspective (Saville-Troike, 2006, *p. 50*):

- What is the **initial state** in SLA? (L1 versus L2 acquisition)
- What is the nature of **interlanguage**, and how does it change over time?
- What is the **final state** in SLA?

According to Mitchell, Myles & Marsden (2013), the main aim of UG linguistic theory is twofold: firstly, to characterize what human languages are like (descriptive adequacy), and secondly, to explain why they are that way (explanatory adequacy) (*p.61*) . In addition, UG attempts to characterize the underlying linguistic knowledge in L2 learners' minds.

❖ **Principles and Parameters**

Mitchell, Myles & Marsden (2013) explain that from a generative perspective, linguistic theory aims to describe the representations of language which are stored in the human mind. It aims to define what all human languages have in common, as well as distinctive characteristics which make human language different from other systems of communication. It also needs to specify in what ways individual human languages can differ from one another (*p. 62*).

Since around 1980, the construct called **Universal Grammar** has been conceptualized as a set of **principles** which are properties of all languages in the world. Some of these principles contain **parameters** or points where there is a limited choice of settings depending on which specific language is involved. Because knowledge of principles and parameters is postulated to be innate, children are assumed to be able to interpret and unconsciously analyze the input

they receive and construct the appropriate L1 grammar. This analysis and construction is considered to be strictly constrained and channeled by UG, which explains why L1 acquisition for children is relatively rapid and always successful; children never violate core principles nor do they select parametric values outside of the channel imposed by UG, even though there might be other logical possibilities (Saville-Troike, 2006).

An example of an early principle is that every phrase in every language has the same elements including a Head: e.g. a noun phrase (NP) must always have a noun head (N), a verb phrase (VP) must always have a verb head (V), a prepositional or postpositional phrase (PP) must always have a preposition or postposition head (P). The only choice, or parameter setting, that speakers have in different languages is Head Direction, or the position of the head in relation to other elements in the phrase. There are only two possible choices: **head-initial** or **head-final**. Ex: a. *John [kicked the ball]VP*

5. Krashen Monitor Model

According to Saville-Troike (2006, p. 45), one of the last of the early approaches to SLA which has an internal focus is the **Monitor Model**, proposed by Stephen Krashen (1978). It explicitly and essentially adopts the notion of a **language acquisition device** (or **LAD**), which is a metaphor Chomsky used for children's innate knowledge of language. Krashen's approach is a collection of five hypotheses which constitute major claims and assumptions about how the L2 code is acquired.

The hypotheses forming the model are the following:

1. **Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis**. There is a distinction to be made **acquisition** and **learning**. **Acquisition** is subconscious, and involves the innate **language acquisition device** which accounts for children's L1. **Learning** is conscious and is exemplified by the L2 learning which takes place in many classroom contexts.

2. **Monitor Hypothesis.** What is “learned” is available only as a **monitor**, for purposes of editing or making changes in what has already been produced.
3. **Natural Order Hypothesis.** We acquire the rules of language in a predictable order.
4. **Input Hypothesis.** Language acquisition takes place because there is **comprehensible input**. If input is understood, and if there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided.
5. **Affective Filter Hypothesis.** Input may not be processed if the **affective filter** is “up” (e.g. if conscious learning is taking place and/or individuals are inhibited).

Krashen’s model has frequently been criticized by researchers because many of its constructs (e.g. what constitutes **comprehensible input**) and the claimed distinction between learning and acquisition are vague and imprecise, and because several of its claims are impossible to verify.

Homework

1. In a chart, show the differences between Behaviourism and Cognitivism
2. Compare/contrast between the two waves of constructivism: Piaget’s Individual psychological constructivism and Vygotsky’s social Constructivism
3. Summarize the main Ideas of Universal Grammar (mapping/ charting)
4. How to consider Krashen affective filter in the classroom?

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L2 Learning Difficulties: Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define contrastive analysis
2. Differ between positive and negative transfer
3. Explain contrastive analysis hypothesis
4. Differ between the two versions of CA
5. Explain the weaknesses of CA

1. CA Definition

Saville-Troike (2006, p, 34), **CA** is an approach to the study of SLA which involves predicting and explaining learner problems based on a comparison of L1 and L2 to determine similarities and differences. It was heavily influenced by theories which were dominant in linguistics and psychology within the USA through the 1940s and 1950s, Structuralism and Behaviorism:

- following notions in structuralist linguistics, the focus of CA is on the surface forms of both L1 and L2 systems, and on describing and comparing the languages one level at a time – generally contrasting the phonology of L1 and L2 first, then morphology, then syntax, with the lexicon receiving relatively little attention, and discourse still less. A “bottom-up” priority for analysis (generally from smaller to larger units) is also expressed as a priority for language learning, of structures before meaning.
- Following notions in behaviorist psychology, early proponents of CA assumed that language acquisition essentially involves habit formation in a process of **Stimulus** –

Response – Reinforcement (S-R-R). Learners respond to the stimulus (linguistic input), and reinforcement strengthens (i.e. habituates) the response; they imitate and repeat the language that they hear, and when they are reinforced for that response, learning occurs. The implication is that “practice makes perfect.”

Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991, p. 122) explain, “ The contrastive analysis hypothesis was important to this view of language learning, since if trouble spots in the target language could be anticipated, errors might be prevented or at least held to a minimum. In this way, the formation of bad habits could be avoided”. Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982) explain that “Contrastive analysis (CA) took the position that a learner’s first language “ interferes” with his or her acquisition of a second language” (p. 97). Larsen Freeman & Long (1997, pp. 118-119) report Charles Fries’ declaration (one of the leading applied linguists of the day): “The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner” (1945, p. 9). Such statements inspired a number of contrastive analyses.

2. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)

Johnson & Johnson (1999) explain that the first systematic and extensive formulation of CAH was by Lado (1957) in his book *Linguistics across Culture: Applied linguistics for Teachers*. It was widely regarded as having launched the CA movement in language teaching. Using structuralist linguistic method, Lado set out procedures for the comparison of Phonology, Grammar and Vocabulary and discussed ways in which this analysis might be relevant to syllabus and material design, methodology and testing.

In CAH as Larsen-Freeman & Long (1997, p. 53) clarify, there was a conviction that similar items between L1 and L2 will ease L2 learning, while different items lead to difficulty in learning L2. Linguistic differences could be used to predict learning difficulty gave rise to

the contrastive analysis hypothesis(CAH), where two languages were similar **positive transfer** would occur; where they were different, **negative transfer; or interference**, would result.

Another assumption of this theory is that there will be **transfer** in learning: in the case of SLA, this means the transfer of elements acquired (or habituated) in L1 to the target L2. The transfer is called **positive** (or facilitating) when the same structure is appropriate in both languages, as in the transfer of a Spanish plural morpheme -s on nouns to English (e.g. *lenguajesto languages*). The transfer is called **negative** (or **interference**) when the L1 structure is used inappropriately in the L2, as in the additional transfer of Spanish plural -s to a modifier in number agreement with the noun: e.g *greens beans* (for ‘green beans).

The process of CA involves describing L1 and L2 at each level, analyzing roughly comparable segments of the languages for elements which are likely to cause problems for learners. This information provides a rationale for constructing language lessons that focus on structures which are predicted to most need attention and practice, and for sequencing the L2 structures in order of difficulty. Consequently, linguists thought that CA would reveal areas of difficulty for L2 learners, thereby providing teachers and developers of L2 materials with specific guidelines for lesson planning (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982).

3. CA Versions

Wardhaugh (1970, cited in Khansir, 2012) proposes a distinction between two versions of CA analysis hypothesis. The strong version involves predicting errors in SLL based upon a priori contrastive analysis of L1 and L2 and teaching material can then be devised to meet those difficulties and a weak version claims that no more than an explanatory role for contrastive linguistics: Where difficulties are evident from the errors made by the learners and the predictions are not always borne out (Back up with evidence). In the weak version, researchers start with learner error and explain at least a subset of them by pointing to the

similarities and differences between the two languages. CAH might not be useful a priori, it was still claimed to possess a posteriori explanatory power. It was useful in a broader approach to detecting the source of error, namely error analysis.

4. CA Critics

Saville-Troike (2006, p 37) states that CA approach of the 1940s to 1960s was not adequate for the study of SLA in part because:

- The behaviorist learning theory to which it is tied cannot explain the logical problem of language learning (how learners know more than they have heard or have been taught).
- Another problem was that CA analyses were not always validated by evidence from actual learner errors. Many of the L2 problems which CA predicts do not emerge
- CA does not account for many learner errors; and much predicted positive transfer does not materialize.

A major limitation in application to teaching has been that instructional materials produced according to this approach are language-specific and unsuitable for use with speakers of different native languages (students from different language background in English speaking countries (Johnson and Johnson, 1999). Besides, CA depend only on analysis of linguistic product to explain second language learning; what about the psycholinguistics process (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Still, CA stimulated the preparation of hundreds of comparative grammars

Homework:

1. Students will summarize the main points of the lesson through the mapping or the charting method.

2. Applying contrastive analysis on two languages the students master and show examples of positive transfer and negative transfer. They may refer to different levels of the language.

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L2 Learning Difficulties: Error Analysis (EA)

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Explain the reasons behind the shift from Contrastive analysis to error analysis.
2. Distinguish between errors of competence and errors of performance, intra-lingual errors and inter-lingual errors
3. Identify the procedure followed in analyzing errors.
4. Gain awareness of the main critics attributed to EA.

1. EA Background

According to Saville-Troike (2006, p 37), Error Analysis (EA) is the first approach to the study of SLA which includes an internal focus on learners' creative ability to construct language. It is based on the description and analysis of actual learner errors in L2, rather than on idealized linguistic structures attributed to native speakers of L1 and L2 (as in CA). EA largely augmented or replaced CA by the early 1970s because of the following developments:

- ✓ Predictions made by CA did not always materialize in actual learner errors, as noted above. More importantly, perhaps, many real learner errors could not be attributed to transfer from L1 to L2.
- ✓ As linguistic theory changed, the exclusive focus on surface-level forms and patterns by structural linguists shifted to concern for underlying rules.
- ✓ The behaviorist assumption that habit formation accounts for language acquisition was seriously questioned by many linguists and psychologists. There was a shift to

Mentalism in explanations of language acquisition, with emphasis on the **innate** capacity of the language learner rather than on external influences.

- ✓ The study of SLA was no longer motivated as strongly by teaching concerns as it had been for CA. L2 learning came to be thought of as independent of L2 teaching to some extent, and researchers began to separate issues in SLA from pedagogical concerns. Learning processes became an important focus for study in their own right.

2. EA Definition

Saville-Troike (2006, p 38) highlights that the most influential publication launching **Error Analysis** as an approach in SLA was S. Pit Corder's (1967) article on "The significance of learners' errors," which calls on applied linguists to focus on L2 learners' errors not as "bad habits" to be eradicated, but as sources of insight into the learning processes. Corder (1967) claimed that errors provide evidence of the system of language which a learner is using at any particular point in the course of L2 development, and of the strategies or procedures the learner is using in his "discovery of the language." In a sense, errors are windows into the language learners' mind. In this approach, learner language is viewed as a target of analysis which is potentially independent of L1 or L2, and the state of learner knowledge is seen as **transitional competence** on the path of SLA. Further, Corder claimed that the making of errors is significant because it is part of the learning process itself. This includes testing whether aspects of existing L1 knowledge can be used in the L2. Errors are thus a sign that the learner is (perhaps unconsciously) exploring the new system rather than just experiencing "interference" from old habits. Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) report Corder's three main points explaining the significance of learners' errors:

1. They serve a pedagogic purpose by showing teachers what learners have learned and what they have not yet mastered.

2. They serve a research purpose by providing evidence about how languages are learned
3. They serve a learning purpose by acting as devices by which learners can discover the rules of the target language (i.e. by obtaining feedback on their errors)

Corder (1967) made a distinction between **errors of competence** and **errors of performance**. The Errors of competence is systematic (Errors/transitional competence) while the errors of performance is unsystematic (mistakes). Learners' errors provide evidence of the system of the language he is using (i.e. has learned) at a particular point in the course(and it must be repeated that he is using some system, although, it is not yet the right system (p. 25).

3. EA procedure

Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) explain that EA consists of a set of procedures identifying, describing, and explaining learner's errors. Ellis (1994) clarifie further that the procedure for analyzing learner errors includes the following steps (cited in Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 39):

- **Collection of a sample of learner language.** Most samples of learner language which have been used in EA include data collected from many speakers who are responding to the same kind of task or test (as in **Morpheme Order Studies**, which are discussed below). Some studies use samples from a few learners that are collected over a period of weeks, months, or even years in order to determine patterns of change in error occurrence with increasing L2 exposure and proficiency.
- **Identification of errors.** This is the first step in the analysis. It requires determination of elements in the sample of learner language which deviate from the **target** L2 in some way. Corder (1967) distinguishes between systematic **errors** (which result from learners' lack of L2knowledge) and **mistakes** (the results from some kind of processing failure such as a lapse in memory), which he excludes from the analysis.

- **Description of errors.** For purposes of analysis, errors are usually classified according to language level (whether an error is phonological, morphological, syntactic, etc.), general linguistic category (e.g. auxiliary system, passive sentences, negative constructions), or more specific linguistic elements (e.g. articles, prepositions, verb forms). Duly, Burt & Krashen (1982) suggest that there are four principle ways in which learners modify target forms:

- ✓ **Omission:** (For example the omission of copula Be in utterance : My sister very pretty)
- ✓ **Addition** (i.e. the presence of a form that does not appear in a well formed utterance); This is sub- categorized into:
 - Regularization: A rule typically applies to a class of linguistic items, such as the class of main verbs or the class of nouns. Applying the rules used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular, resulting in errors of regularization (for example , eated for ate, sheeps, putted)
 - Double –marking (for example, he did not came, he does not knows my name, we did not went there)
 - Simple additions (i.e. addition not describable as regulations or as double-markings- the use of an item which should not appear in a well –formed utterance ex: preposition as “ in over here”, article as “ a this”)
- ✓ **Misinformation** (i.e. the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure:
 - Regularization (a regular marker is used in place of an irregular one.
Ex: Reflexive pronoun **his self** (himself), regular past (I falled (fell), plural geoses (**geese**) and childs (children)

- **Archi-forms:** the selection of one member of a class of forms to represent others in the class. Ex: demonstrative adjectives: **that** dog- **that** dogs (for both that not those), A member of the class of personal pronouns to function for several others in the class as: Give **me** that- **Me** hungry (using me as both subject and object).
- **Alternating forms:** Free alternation of various members of a class with each others: demonstrative adjectives (those dogs- **this** cats), Masculine for feminine (or vice versa as he for she), plural for singular (they for it), accusative for nominative case (her for she)
- ✓ **Misordering** (Errors characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance as in he is **all the time** late (all the time is misordered), le chien a mange les, what daddy **is** doing?
- **Explanation of errors.** Accounting for why an error was made is the most important step in trying to understand the processes of SLA. Two of the most likely causes of L2 errors are **interlingual** (“between languages”) factors, resulting from negative transfer or **interference** from L1 and **intralingual** (“within language”) factors, not attributable to cross-linguistic influence. Intralingual errors are also considered **developmental** errors and often represent incomplete learning of L2 rules or overgeneralization of them. Distinguishing between interlingual and intralingual errors implicitly builds upon CA procedures, since the distinction requires comparative knowledge of L1 and L2. *Example: The weather is been¹ very hot in the² Washington D.C. There climate³ last week warm⁴.*
- (1) Use of *is* instead of *has* with *been* (**intralingual/developmental error**). This is evidence that the speaker/writer is learning the English auxiliary verb system, but

hasn't yet mastered the distinction between forms of *be* and *have*, which doesn't exist in Korean.

(2) Use of *the* with a place name (**intralingual/developmental** error). This is evidence that the speaker/writer is learning to use articles in front of nouns (no articles are used in Korean) but hasn't yet learned that they don't occur before most place names.

(3) *There climate* is a direct translation of the Korean phrase which would be used in this context (**interlingual/interference** error).

(4) In Korean the word for 'warm' is a verb itself, so no additional verb corresponding to English *was* would be used (**interlingual/interference** error).

- **Evaluation of errors.** This step involves analysis of what effect the error has on whoever is being addressed: e.g. how "serious" it is, or to what extent it affects intelligibility, or social acceptability (such as qualifying for a job). of meaning.

Saville-Troike (2006) explains that interlanguage has the following characteristics:

- **Systematic.** At any particular point or stage of development, the IL is governed by rules which constitute the learner's internal grammar. These rules are discoverable by analyzing the language that is used by the learner at that time – what he or she can produce and interpret, correctly as well as errors that are made.
- **Dynamic.** The system of rules which learners have in their minds changes frequently, or is in a state of flux, resulting in a succession of interim grammars
- **Variable.** Although the IL is systematic, differences in context result in different patterns of language use.
- **Reduced system, both in form and function.** The characteristic of **reduced form** refers to the less complex grammatical structures that typically occur in an

IL compared to the target language (e.g. omission of inflections, such as the past tense suffix in English). The characteristic of **reduced function** refers to the smaller range of communicative needs typically served by an IL (especially if the learner is still in contact with members of the L1 speech community). (p 41)

Selinker (1972) stresses that there are differences between IL development in SLA and L1 acquisition by children, including different cognitive processes involved (from McLaughlin 1987:61):

- **Language transfer** from L1 to L2.
- **Transfer of training**, or how the L2 is taught.
- **Strategies of second language learning**, or how learners approach the L2 materials and the task of L2 learning.
- **Strategies of second language communication**, or ways that learners try to communicate with others in the L2.
- **Overgeneralization of the target language linguistic material**, in which L2 rules that are learned are applied too broadly. (Overgeneralizations include some of the **intralingual or developmental errors**)

Also unlike L1 acquisition is the strong likelihood of **fossilization** for L2 learners – the probability that they will cease their IL development in some respects before they reach target language norms, in spite of continuing L2 input and passage of time. This phenomenon relates to age of learning, with older L2 learners more likely to fossilize than younger ones, but also to factors of social identity and communicative need

L1 ____ | | ____ L2

Interlanguage

The beginning and end of IL are defined respectively as whenever a learner first attempts to convey meaning in the L2 and whenever development “permanently” stops, but the boundaries are not entirely clear.

4. EA Critics

Saville-Troike, M. 2006, p 40 EA continues as a useful procedure for the study of SLA, but a number of shortcomings have been noted and should be kept in mind. These include:

- Ambiguity in classification.** It is difficult to say, for instance, if a Chinese L1 speaker who omits number and tense inflections in English L2 is doing so because of L1 influence (Chinese is not an inflectional language) or because of a universal developmental process (also present in L1 acquisition) which results in simplified or “telegraphic” utterances.
- Lack of positive data.** Focus on errors alone does not necessarily provide information on what the L2 learner *has* acquired ;further, correct uses may be overlooked.
- Potential for avoidance.** Absence of errors may result from learners’ avoidance of difficult structures, and this will not be revealed by EA.

Like CA, EA fell into disfavor for the following reasons (Laren-Freeman & Long, 1997 p. 61):

- a) They studied what learners were doing wrong, but not what made them successful.
- b) It was often difficult to identify the unitary source of an error (ex: the doges ran home is ambiguous: it is overgeneralization of the syllabic plural, but it is also a developmental error of the type children learning English as their native language commonly make.
- c) It fails to account for all the areas of SL in which learners have difficulty.

Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005, p 70) add that for these reasons EA no longer figures as the preferred method for analyzing learner language. Nevertheless, the study of learners' errors remain of practical significance to language pedagogy.

Homework

1. In a chart format, contrast between CA and EA.
2. From the social media, extract passages of discussions and analyze the possible errors following the steps in the lesson.

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History of Foreign Language Teaching

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Recognize the main principles of the surveyed methods
2. Identify the weakness of these methods
3. Compare/contrast between certain methods
4. Develop competence in applying the methods

History of Foreign Language Teaching: Part1

1. Grammar Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method is called old method of teaching. It is also called classical method because it is very helpful in learning the classical language like Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic, Latin and Greek etc (Patel & Praveen, 2008). In this method the mother tongue is used to teach English.

According to Richards & Rodgers (1986), these are the main **principles** of GTM:

1. The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. GTM is a way of studying a language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into or out of the target language.
2. Reading and writing are the major focus; little attention is paid to speaking or listening.

3. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorization (a list of vocabulary items are presented with their translation equivalents).
4. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Much of the lesson is devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language (focus on the sentence)
5. Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards in translation.
6. Grammar is taught deductively; that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises.
7. The students' native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the students' mother tongue language.

For Larsen-Freeman (2004), **teachers' role** is very traditional in GTM. The teacher is the authority in the classroom. S/he explains grammar rules and the meaning of words in the learners' native language, organizes practice (ex: the recitation of rules and translation), and corrects learners' mistakes. The learner pays careful attention to the teachers' explanations and corrections, memorizes rules and vocabulary lists, and carefully does the practice tasks the teacher sets. Most of the interaction in the classroom is from the teacher to the students. There is little student initiation and little student-student interaction. If students make errors or do not know an answer, the teacher supplies them with the correct answer.

Richards & Rodgers (1986) provide the following **drawbacks** related to GTM:

1. For thousands of school learners, foreign language learning meant a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusual grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations of literary prose.
2. It creates frustration for students, and makes few demands on teachers.

3. The main weakness of GTM resides in the fact that it fails to help learners to speak a FL fluently.
4. GTM does not emphasize on the basic skills like listening and speaking skills.
5. GTM is a method without theory; there is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it.

Besides, there are words, idioms, phrases which cannot be translated into learners' mother tongue (Patel & Praveen 2008). In the mid-nineteen century, opposition to GTM gradually developed in several European countries. This reform movement, as it was referred to, laid the foundations for the development of new ways of teaching languages.

2. Direct Method

Direct method is called natural method because it is learnt naturally like mother tongue or first language (Patel & Praveen, 2008, p. 77). This method was against of Grammar-Translation method. The extreme use of mother tongue affected the naturalness of language. This method has one basic rule: No translation is allowed (Larsen-Freeman, 2004, p. 23). In practice, DM stood for the following principles and procedures (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, pp-9/10):

1. Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language (no translation).
2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and –answer exchange between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
4. Grammar was taught inductively.
5. New teaching points were introduced orally.
6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.

7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
8. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasised.

The teacher needs to be active, demonstrating the language, organizing practice, and correcting the learners. The learners' role is to listen carefully, imitate, and participate as much as possible in the oral practice of the language. Larsen- Freeman (2004) provides the following techniques used by GTM teachers: reading aloud, question and answer exercise, getting students to self-correct, conversation practice, fill -in-the-blank exercise, and dictation, paragraph writing

According to Brown (2000, p.21), although DM enjoyed popularity in Europe, not everyone embraced it enthusiastically. The DM was quite successful in private language schools, but despite pressure from its proponents, it was difficult to implement in public secondary school education. It overemphasized the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom. In addition, it lacked a rigorous basis in applied linguistic theory. It had several drawbacks (Richards & Rodgers, 1986):

1. It requires teachers who were native speakers or who had native-like fluency in the FL.
2. It was largely dependent on the teacher's skill, rather than on a textbook, and not all the teachers were proficient enough in the FL to adhere to the principles of the method.
3. Strict adherence to the principles of the DM principles was often counterproductive, since teachers were required to go to great lengths to avoid using the native tongue, when sometimes a brief explanation in the students' native tongue would have been a more efficient route to comprehension.

The DM offered innovations at the level of teaching procedures, but lacked a thorough methodological basis. Applied linguists argued for the development of sound methodological

principles that could serve as the basis for teaching techniques. The concept 'method' as FLT emerged as a significant educational issue in the 19th and 20th.

3. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching

a) Anthony's Model: Approach-Method- Technique

According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described. As such, within one approach there can be many methods. Methods are implemented in the classroom through what are called techniques (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 85). Anthony's model serves as a useful way of distinguishing between different degrees of abstraction and specificity found in the different language teaching proposals; the proposals of the Reform Movement were at the level of approach. According to Anthony, approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serves as the source of practices and principles in LT. For example, Stephan Krashen's Monitor Model addresses both process and condition dimensions of learning: Process as in distinguishing between acquisition and learning study of language. And condition as the type of 'input' the learner receives (must be comprehensible, slightly above the learner's present level of competence, interesting and relevant, in sufficient quantity, and experienced in low anxiety context).

Anthony's model has the advantage of simplicity and comprehensiveness and serves as a useful way of distinguishing the relationship between underlying theoretical principles and the practices derived from them, but it fails to give sufficient attention to the nature of a

method itself. Nothing is said about the roles of teachers and learners assumed in a method, nor about the instructional materials. It failed to account for how an approach may be realised in a method, or for how method and technique are related.

b) Richards & Rodgers' Model

Richards and Rodgers (1986) revised and extended the original Anthony's model. They proposed a reformulation of the concept of method. Anthony's approach, method, and technique were renamed respectively approach, design and procedure with a superordinate term to describe the three-step process called method (Brown, 2000, p. 14). Hence, their model is divided into ***approach, design and procedure***. The term, method, does not figure in this hierarchy. That is because Richards and Rodgers preferred to use it as an umbrella term to refer to the broader relationship between theory and practice in language teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 86). Approach is the same as in Anthony's model, and in order for an approach to lead to a method, it is necessary to develop a design for an instructional system. *Design* is the level of method analysis considers:

1. What the objectives of a method are linguistically oriented or product oriented objectives: grammatical accuracy, perfect pronunciation, general communicative skills, vocabulary),
2. How language content is selected and organised within the method(is related to both to subject matter and linguistic matter: the syllabus),
3. The types of learning tasks and teaching activities the method advocates(often serves to distinguish methods),
4. The roles of learners (the degree of control learners have over the content of learning, the patterns of learner groupings adopted, the degree to which learners influence the learning of others, and the view of learner as processor, performer, initiator, problem solver),

5. The roles of teachers (related to assumptions about language and language learning at the level of approach; dependence on the teacher, as guide, consultant, and model for learning.
6. The roles of instructional materials (to present content, to practice content, to facilitate communication bet learners, ex: textbook, audiovisuals, and computer.

The last level of conceptualization and organization within a method is *procedure*. This encompasses the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviours that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). It is the level at which we describe how a method realizes its approach and design in classroom behaviour. Essentially, then, procedure focuses on the way a method handles the presentation, practice, and feedback phases of teaching.

Homework

Before the session, the students got all the lessons of the survey of language teaching methods. They read them attentively at home, and in groups of 4 to 6 students they perform GTM and DM as real teachers and students. Their classmates will assess their performance along with teachers' assessment.

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History of Foreign Language Teaching: Part 2

4. The Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP)

The entry of the United States into World War II had a significant effect on the language teaching in America (Brown, 2000). To supply the US government with personnel who were fluent in German, French, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, and other languages, and who could work as interpreters, code-room assistants, and translators, it was necessary to set up a special language training programme. The GVT commissioned American universities to develop foreign language programmes for military personnel. The Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP) was established in 1942. Richards & Rodgers (1986) explain that fifty-five American universities were involved in the programme by the beginning of 1943. The objective of the ASTP was for students to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages. The “informant method” was used composing of the native speaker of the language-the informant- who served as a source of phrases and vocabulary and who provided sentences for imitation, and a linguist, who supervised the learning experience. Thus, the students and linguist were able to take part in guided conversation with the informant, and together they gradually learned how to speak the language, as well as to understand much of its basic grammar. Students in such courses studied ten hours a day, six days a week. There were generally fifteen hours of drill with native speakers and twenty to thirty hours of private study spread over two to three six-week sessions. This was the system adopted by the army, and in small classes of mature and highly motivated students, excellent results were often achieved.

The ASTP lasted only about two years but attracted considerable attention in the popular press and in the academic community. But the linguists who developed the ASTP were not interested primarily in language teaching. Linguists and applied linguists during this period were becoming increasingly involved in the teaching of EFL. There was a growing demand

for foreign expertise in the teaching of English. Thousand of foreign students entered the United States to study in universities, and many of these students required training in English before they begin their studies. These factors led to the emergence of the American approach to ESL, which by the mid-fifties had become Audiolingualism. **The Audiolingual Method**

The Audio-Lingual Method, like the Direct Method, is an oral-based approach. However, it is also, unlike the Direct Method, as it has a strong theoretical base in linguistics and psychology (Larsen-Freeman, 2004). The origins of the audiolingualism are to be found in the “Army Method” (Stern, 1983 ,p. 463). The emergence of the Audiolingual Method resulted from the increased attention given to foreign language teaching in the US toward the end of the 1950s. The need for a radical change and rethinking of foreign language teaching methodology (most of which was still linked to the reading method) was prompted by the launching of the Russian Satellite in 1957. The US Government acknowledged the need for a more intensive effort to teach foreign languages in order to prevent Americans from becoming isolated from scientific advances made in other countries. Audiolingualism, the term was coined by Professor Nelson Brooks in 1964, have transformed language teaching from an art to a science, which would enable learners to achieve mastery of a foreign language effectively and efficiently. The method was widely adopted for TFLs on North American colleges and universities (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

a) Approach

The rationale of the audio-lingual method was provided by the behaviourist psychology and the structural linguistics (Nunan, 1991, p.229). The **theory of language** underlying Audiolingualism was derived from the structural linguistics. Linguistics had emerged as a flourishing academic discipline in the 1950s, and the structural theory of language constituted

its backbone- structural linguistics had developed in part as a reaction to traditional grammar.

The term structural referred to these characteristics:

1. Elements in a language were thought of as being linearly produced in a rule-governed (structured) way.
2. Language samples could be exhaustively described at any structural level of description(phonetic, phonemic, morphological, ...etc)
3. Linguistic levels were thought of as systems within systems; that is, as being pyramidally structured; phonemic systems led to morphemic system, and these in turn led to higher-level systems of phrases, clauses, and sentences.

An important tenet of the structural linguistics was the primary medium of language is oral: Speech is language. It was argued that language is” primarily what is spoken and only secondarily what is written” (Brooks 1964 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 49).”In 1961, the American linguist William Moulton, proclaimed the linguistic principles on which language teaching methodology should be based: *“language is speech, not writing... A language is a set of habits ...Teach the language, not about the language....A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say....Languages are different”*(Quoted in Rivers 1964: 5, cited in Idem).

The **theory of learning** which developed audiolingualism was drawn upon the behavioural psychology (Richards& Rodgers, 1986). To the behaviourist, the human being is an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviours. The occurrence of these behaviours is dependent upon three crucial elements in learning: a stimulus, which serves to elicit behaviour; a response triggered by stimulus; and a reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression) of response in the future. To apply this theory to language learning is to identify the organism as the foreign language learner, the behaviour as the verbal behaviour, the

stimulus as what is taught or presented of the foreign language, the response as the learners' reaction to the stimulus, and reinforcement as the extrinsic approval and praise of the teacher or fellow students or the intrinsic self-satisfaction of the target language use. Language mastery is represented as acquiring a set of appropriate language stimulus response chains.

b) ALM Principles

The central principles of ALM are the followings (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 51):

1. Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is a verbal behaviour.
2. Language skills are learned more effectively if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of language skills.
3. Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalization and discrimination. Explanations of rules are therefore not given until students have practiced a pattern in a variety of contexts and are thought to have acquired a perception of the analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence the approach to the teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.
4. The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching the language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language.

C) Objectives and Roles

The Audiolingual programmes aims at short –range and long-term objectives. Short-range objectives include training in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation,

recognition of speech symbols as graphic signs on the printed pages, the ability to reproduce these symbols in writing. Long-range Objective aim at achieving language as the native speaker uses it. In ALM, correct production by the learners should always be praised (reinforced) and incorrect production firmly corrected (Davies& Pearse, 2000, p. 190).

In accordance with the behaviourist learning theory, teaching focuses on the external manifestations of learning rather than the internal processes. Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, and thus have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning. They are not encouraged to initiate interaction, because this may lead to mistakes. However, teacher's role is central and active; it is teacher-dominated method. The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects the learners' performance. The teacher must keep the learners attentive by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practice structure. *"Introduce, sustain, and harmonize the learning of the four skills in this order: hearing, speaking, reading and writing"* (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 56).

d) The Decline of ALM

ALM reached its period of most widespread use in the 1960s, but then came criticism on two fronts. The theoretical foundations of ALM were attacked as being unsound both in terms of language theory and learning theory. In addition, practitioners found that the practical results fell short of expectations. Students were often found to be unable to transfer skills acquired to real communication outside the classroom; it was boring and unsatisfying. Williams & Burden (1997) add that there was a little concern for what goes on inside learners' head, or the cognitive processes involved in learning. Besides, there is no room for the actual process of interaction and negotiation of meanings. Finally, audiolingualism with its overemphasis on correct responses does not allow for learning from mistakes. However, to this day, adaptations of ALM are found in contemporary methodologies (Brown, 2000. p.23).

6. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

In the 1970s, it has been observed that students could produce sentences accurately in a lesson, but could not use them appropriately. The ever-growing need for good communication skills in English has created a huge demand for English teaching around the world. *Communicative language teaching*, or CLT, was first proposed in the 1970s and since then, it has served as a major source of influence on language teaching practice around the world. CLT is a learner centred approach. In this approach, apart from fluency, accuracy and appropriateness are equally important. The "term communicate" meant to express or convey the ideas verbally or non-verbally. This approach emphasizes the communicative capability of the learners (Patel & Praveen, 2008).

The communicative approach or the communicative language Teaching (CLT) is the name which is given to a set of beliefs which included not only a re-examination of what aspects of language to teach, but also a shift in emphasis in how to teach (Harmer, 2001, p. 84). According to Richards & Rodgers (1986), CLT approach starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as “**communicative competence**”. Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky’s theory of competence. Hymes held that that linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture. Hymes’s theory of communicative competence was a definition of *what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community*. In Hymes’s view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use. According to Richards (2006, p. 3), Communicative competence includes the following aspects of language knowledge:

1. Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions.

2. Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication)
3. Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations)
4. Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies)

Richards & Rodgers (1986, pp.67/8) provide the following **principles** of CLT:

1. Meaning is paramount and contextualisation is the basic premise.
2. Language learning is learning to communicate; Effective communication is sought.
3. Communicative competence is the desired goal.
4. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal; accuracy is judged in context.
Translation may be used whenever necessary.
5. Dialogs, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
6. Any device which helps the learners is accepted
7. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
8. Reading and writing can start from the first day.
9. Students' interact, cooperate and negotiate through pair/group work.
10. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
11. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
12. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in using the language.
13. Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.

14. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.

Many of the issues raised by a communicative teaching methodology are still relevant today (Richards, 2006). CLT is by its nature is an eclectic method (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p.191). Hence, CLT is best considered as approach rather than a method. CLT cannot be found in any one textbook or set of curricular materials in as much as strict adherence to a given text is not likely to be true to the processes and goals of CLT. In keeping with the notion of context of situation, CLT is properly seen as an approach, a theory of Intercultural communicative competence to be used in developing materials and methods appropriate to a given context of learning (Byram, 2000, p. 129). Thus, although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure there is much greater room for **individual interpretation** and **variation** than most methods permit. The adoption of communicative approach raises important issues for teacher training, materials development, and testing and evaluation. Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied to all levels in a language programme, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how much such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 83).

Class work

In groups of 4 to 6 students they perform ALM and CLT as real teacher and students. Their classmates will assess their performance along with teachers' assessment.

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History of Foreign Language Teaching: Part 3

7. Alternative Methods

‘Alternative methods’ refers to several methods and one approach developed between the mid-1960s and the early 1980s that have been quite influential, although they have never been widely used. In some ways they can be seen as products of the research for the “perfect method” (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 191). These methods are based on the humanistic approach. They are more based on psychology than on linguistics; they all consider the affective factors of learning a language as important; they are all concerned with treating the learner as a whole person, and they see the importance of a learning environment which minimises anxiety and enhances personal security (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 37).

a) Total Physical response (TPR)

TPR was developed by James Asher in the USA from the mid-1960s. Asher sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition. He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of **commands**, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. Asher feels adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their mother tongue. Total Physical Response is linked to the "trace theory" of memory in psychology, which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, increase the probability of successful recall (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.87).

Asher shares with the school of humanistic psychology a concern for the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning. It involves game-like movements to reduce

learners' stress, besides creating a positive mood in the learners, which facilitate learning. Asher's emphasis on developing comprehension skills before the learner is taught to speak. TPR uses basically the following techniques (Larsen-Freeman, p. 116/7):

1. **Using commands to direct behavior:** The commands are given to get students to perform an action; the action makes the meaning of the command clear
2. **Role reversal:** Students command their teacher and classmates to perform some actions.
3. **Action sequence:** At one point, the teacher gives three connected commands.

Learners in TPR have the primary roles of listener and performer; the teacher plays an active and direct role, he is encouraged to be well prepared and well organized. It is most suitable for beginners' courses only and later needs to be supplemented by activities and techniques from other methods.

b) The Silent Way (SW)

The Silent Way was developed by Caleb Gattegno in the USA from the early 1972 (Williams & Burden, 1997). He uses coloured wooden sticks called Cuisenaire rods and series of Words in colour, an approach to teaching of initial reading in which sounds are coded by specific colours. It contrasts totally with TPR. Instead of giving extensive active listening comprehension practice, the teacher is silent for the most of the time, giving only single examples of new sentence structure and then getting different learners to attempt to reproduce the sentence and produce similar ones. The method is based on the following hypotheses (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 99):

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

Discovery and problem solving produce much better learning than imitation and repetition. Learners must concentrate and usually struggle a bit to benefit from the method. Teachers need special training in the use of Silent Way materials and techniques. Harmer (2001, p. 89) sees that through this procedure the teacher indicates by gesture or expression what the students should do and whether or not they are correct; examples and corrections are only given verbally if no student can do it first time round. Thus, it's up to the students-under the controlling but indirect influence of the teacher- to solve problems and learn the language.

Harmer (2001), adds that SW been criticised as inhuman, with the teacher's silence acting as a barrier rather than an incentive. But to others, the reliance students are forced to place- upon themselves and upon each other- is exciting and liberating. It is students who should take responsibility for their learning. It is the teacher's job to organize this. The SW has had an influence on teaching by promoting the use of phonemic charts and pointing to objects and sounds.

c) Community Language Learning (CLL)

This method was developed by Charles Curran in the USA from the mid-1972. The teacher is at the learners' service, to help them achieve their own goals. He proposed the 'counselling- Learning Model' of education (Brown, 2001, p. 25). Learning is seen as personal development, not the achievement of objectives imposed from the outside by the teacher or the institution. Harmer (2001) explains that the learners sit in circle, with the teacher (the knower) standing outside it. Any learner can volunteer to ask question or to make a statement (in the L1 at the beginner level). The teacher repeats this question or statement in the L2 as many times as the learner wishes to hear it. Then, the teacher says it, recording it onto a cassette. Another learner responds to the question or statement (again in the L1 at beginner level), listens to the teacher repeating the response in the L2, and records it onto

cassettes. The teacher then replays the whole recording and the learners listen to their ‘conversation’. The teacher selects some sentences from the conversation and writes them on the board for analysis and discussion of the language.

The learners, in this method, not the teacher or the institution create the syllabus according to their own interests and concerns. The learning/teaching activities include the following types: translation, group work, recording, transcription, analysis, reflection and observation, listening, free conversation (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In CLL, the learners become members of a community and learn through interacting with members of the community; learning achieved collaboratively. Learners are expected to listen attentively to the knower, to freely provide meanings they wish to express, to repeat target utterances without hesitation, to support the fellow members of the community, to report deep inner feelings and frustrations as well as joy and pleasure, and become counsellors to other learners. At the deepest level, the teacher’s function derives from the functions of the **counsellor**; **clients** are people with problems.

Critics of CLL question the appropriateness of the counselling metaphor. Questions also arise about whether teachers counselling without special training. Other concerns have been expressed regarding the lack of syllabus, which makes objectives unclear and evaluation difficult to accomplish, the focus on fluency rather than accuracy which may lead to inadequate control of the grammatical system of TL.

d) Suggestopedia

It was developed by Georgy Lozanov in Bulgaria from the early 1979. Its main concern is the facilitation of memorization, “ people are capable of learning more if their minds are clear of other things (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 37). Suggestopaedia is said to be a pedagogical application of “Suggestology”, the influence of suggestion on human behavior

(Richards & Schmidt, 2002. p.528). It attempts to realise the hidden potential of the mind by getting students to learn in a state of deep relaxation bordering on hypnosis (Nunan, 1991, p. 239). In FLT, Suggestopedia is applied largely to the memorization of 'interesting' texts in L2. Learners are provided with L1 translation of the texts so that they have a fair understanding of what they are memorizing. These memorized texts are then used as the basis for other language analysis and practice activities. Memory is facilitated by relaxing surroundings (pleasant décor and comfortable furniture), soothing background music, and confident, authoritative reading and behaviour by the teacher. The teacher's reading of the text to be memorized should be matched to the rhythm of the background music (the centrality of music). Suggestion is at the heart of suggestopedia, which involves loading the memory banks with desired and facilitating memories. It aims to deliver advanced conversational proficiency quickly. However, it was criticised as its results were questionable. Besides, it is not practical as the teacher has to deal with issues related to music and furniture. The major critic to Lozanov was his constant reference to memorisation and the ignorance of understanding (Brown, 2001).

Homework

In a chart, demonstrate which of the 4 alternative methods are teacher-centred or learner-centred?

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Multiple Line of Approach

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define Palmer's Multiple line of Approach
2. Discuss the main principles of the eclectic approach
3. Gain awareness of the advantages and disadvantages of the eclectic approach

Introduction

Since the early 20th century, experts in FLT have been seeking the best method for FLT. Different methods have been introduced, tried out and found unsatisfactory. They have realized no single method seems good enough to be universally accepted as best. In teaching practice, many have to come to favor of eclecticism, which generally holds that although no single ELT method can meet all teaching and learning needs, thus teachers need a set of principles to adapt their teaching procedure to the specific circumstances. Eclecticism has been given a variety of names: effective or successful eclecticism, enlighten eclecticism, integrative eclecticism, new eclecticism, etc. The fact that it had many names testifies the influence and popularity of this theory.

1. Palmer: The Multiple Line of Approach

In 1921, Palmer published a book named the *Principles of Language Study*. In this book, he discussed the matter of accepting more than one separate item in the program so as to fulfill its objectives. It should be pointed out that making use of the positive aspects of different approaches helps the teacher to achieve his aim with his pupils in different learning situations when presenting his material. He calls this "the multiple line of approach". He thinks that

varying the drills and devices which may further and make teachers near from their immediate purpose and achieve their ultimate goal. Teachers may adopt every good idea and leave the door open for all further developments. They can also reject nothing except useless and harmful forms of work. Palmer (1921, p 162) explains “ the recognition and appreciation of any particular good thing does not necessarily invalidate those things which do not resemble it, nor even cause us to disparage or deprecate things which are seemingly in conflict with it”. He further clarifies that two or more opposing principles, ideas, likes, operations, interests, in short any two or more conflicting tendencies, may be combined, and this combination can be effected by other means than the expedient of compromising. According to him, the complete method (of which **the multiple line of approach** is the expression) is the antithesis of the special or patent method. He adds, “it is not a compromise between two or more antagonistic schools ; it boldly incorporates what is valuable in any system or method of teaching and refuses to recognize any conflict, except the conflict between the good and the inherently bad” (p. 164) .

According to Bagster-Collins (1922),

Palmer shows his broad-minded eclecticism in one of the last chapters, entitled The Multiple Line of Approach. In it he tries to tie together the various elements that go to make up the modern language procedure. There is no rigid method. "All is good which tends toward good." A method "will embody every type of teaching except bad teaching and every process of learning except defective learning." Applied in a concrete case as to whether the reading shall be intensive or extensive, he answers: "At times read intensively; at others read extensively. Adopt both plans concurrently, but not in one and the same operation." So with translation. "At appropriate moments and for specific purposes make the fullest

use of all sorts of translation work; at other moments, and for other specific purposes banish translation entirely (p. 472).

The multiple line of approach embodies the eclectic principle which tries to absorb the best techniques of all well – known language – learning methods into their classroom procedures using them for the purpose for which they are most appropriate. Eclecticists seek the balanced development of all four skills at all stages, while retaining an emphasis on the early development of aural – oral skills. These techniques are appropriate to the type of pupils who pass through their classes they gradually involve a method which suits their personality. To be successful, an eclectic teacher needs to be imaginative, energetic, and willing to experiment for the purpose of keeping lessons varied and interesting.

2. Eclecticism

Different names have been attributed to eclecticism, “effective or successful sclecticism, enlighten eclecticism, integrative eclecticism, new eclecticism” (Wali, 2009, p.35). The interaction between teacher’s approach and the classroom practice is the key to dynamic teaching. For Brown (2001), an eclectic teacher thinks in terms of a number of possible methodological options at his disposal for tailoring classes to particular contexts. It includes a number of basic principles of learning and teaching. It is inspired by the interconnection of all teachers’ readings, observations, discussions and teaching, and that interconnection underlies everything that teacher does in the classroom. (p. 40). Stern (1991), “many language teachers consider themselves to be eclectics. That is, they do not subscribe to a distinct language teaching approach nor do they base their philosophy on a named psychological or linguistic theory” (p. 29).

3. Principles of Eclecticism

For Richards and Rodgers (1986, p. 158), "Informed eclecticism" implies that various design features and procedures are selected, perhaps drawn from different methods related explicitly to program objectives. Most language teaching programs operate from a basis of informed eclecticism rather than by attempting to rigidly implement a specific method. Harmer (2007) clarifies that Eclecticism that makes use of an underlying philosophy and structure, in other words, a **principled eclecticism** avoids these risks of disorganized ragbag lessons of different activities with no obvious coherence or philosophy to underpin them. Ali (1981) further explains that the eclectic approach is not rigid and is characterized by the following principles:

- a) Teachers are given a chance to choose different kinds of teaching techniques in each class period to reach the aims of the lesson.
- b) There is flexibility in choosing any aspect or method that teachers think suitable for teaching inside the classroom
- c) Learners can see different kinds of teaching techniques, using different kinds of teaching aids, that help to make lessons much more stimulating and ensures better understanding of the material on the other hand.
- d) Solving difficulties that may emerge from the presentation of the textbook materials
- e) Finally, it saves both time and effort in the presentation of language activities (cited in Mwanza, 2017, p 57).

4. Advantages of Eclecticism

For Kumar (2013) the advantage of this theory is learners have clear vision what they are learning- multiple tasks, high interaction, lively learning, objective correlative, and fast results

are the salient features of this method. He adds (p. 3) the advantages lay in general understanding aspects as follows:

1. With this theory, it becomes easier and more possible for the learners to understand the language of the text with the context of culture.
2. It blends the practices of listening, speaking, reading and writing into an organic whole. It is obvious that any one method does not serve the right purpose of teaching English. This is how teaching English by combination of various methods and approaches will help the teacher to teach English effectively by creating situations. It is also important that creating situations should be appropriate to students' level and their context of culture.

Besides, Weidman (2001, p. 9-10) argues:

- 1- The best argument for adopting an eclectic approach is probably that it has the potential of keeping the language teacher open to alternatives; actively seeks out new techniques, trying them out in their professional practice all the time, one may be able to justify eclecticism. One must add the further rider that new techniques must also be considered in terms of their underlying rationale.
- 2- It does not discard a theory on a prejudiced attitude
- 3- The teacher embraces a dynamic role, i.e. actively seeks out new techniques, trying them out in their professional practice all the time, one may be able to justify eclecticism. One must add the further rider that new techniques must also be considered in terms of their underlying rationale.
- 4- In principle, it should be more open in considering the strength and weaknesses of various positions.

5. Disadvantages of Eclecticism

Stern (1992, p. 11) pointed out : “The weakness of the eclectic position is that it offers no criteria according to which we can determine the best theory, nor does it provide any principles by which to include or exclude features which form part of existing theories or practices. The choice is left to the individual’s intuitive judgment and is, therefore,, too broad and too vague to be satisfactory as a theory in its own right.” Kumaravadivelu (1994, p. 30) observes, at the classroom level invariably degenerates into an unsystematic, unprincipled, and uncritical pedagogy because teachers with very little professional preparation to be eclectic in a principled way have little option but to randomly put together a package of techniques from various methods and label it eclectic. Weidman (2001) advances:

1. If it is adopted as a safe strategy that immunizes one against ideological undercurrents in language teaching methods, it cuts teachers off from the reconsideration of their professional practices. In a word, it discourages them to **reflect** upon their teaching. They have made up their minds, will use anything that ‘works’ to obtain results, and are safe from ideological excesses.
2. Adopting an ‘anything goes’ position can have exactly the opposite result of playing it safe. Because one adopts a language teaching practice without much deliberation, one can just as easily fall victim to the methodological baggage that comes with it.
3. Mixing all manner of methods and approaches may result in gathering in one’s teaching arsenal such a mixed bag that all kinds of conflicts might arise. Indeed, if there are **conflicting** approaches in one’s instructional techniques, one may have contrary results to those one is striving for.
4. Against an eclecticism that is not accompanied by **deliberate** choice, or not backed up by argument as well as by practical and theoretical justification. This is that teachers, when introduced to new methods and techniques, so quickly integrate into their

traditional styles of teaching the new ‘tricks’ they are shown that they forget about the rationale for the techniques altogether. It is like cutting the technique off from its theoretical roots, which may have enriched it and allowed it to develop when used deliberately.

5. If an innovative technique is used only occasionally, and mixed in with other (potentially contradictory) ones, the effect of the new is **diluted**. (pp. 5 – 9)

Conclusion

One of the major premises of eclecticism is that teaching should serve pupils not methods. Thus, teachers should feel free in choosing techniques and procedures inside the classroom. There is no ideal approach in language learning. Each one has its merits and demerits. There is no loyalty to certain methods. Teachers should know that they have the right to choose the best methods and techniques in any method according to pupils needs and learning situation. Teachers can adopt a flexible method and technique so as to achieve their goals. They may choose whatever works best at a particular time in a particular situation.

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Scientific Grammar Vs Pedagogic Grammar

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define scientific grammar and pedagogic grammar
2. Contrast scientific grammar and pedagogic grammar
3. Recognize the link between scientific grammar and pedagogic grammar

Considerable discussion has been given to the differences between pedagogical and linguistic grammar, variously termed ‘theoretical’ or ‘scientific’, in particular concerning the extent to which a pedagogical description should have a theoretical basis and what this basis should be.

1. Scientific Grammar

Scientific grammar is also known as “theoretical”, “formal”, and “linguistic” grammar. Linguistic theory and description lead to a specific statement about a language. According to Nasr (1980, p. 84), “Transformationalists hope to arrive at a “scientific grammar’ which offers a complete explanation for the way any particular language operates”. A theoretical linguist is thus a creator of theories about language, while the role of the applied linguist is that of a consumer of theories. However, applied linguists are those who exploit the gains of linguistics knowledge, keeping in view the requirements of those who are in need of such knowledge. Scientific grammar or the formal grammar forms the basis for writing a pedagogic grammar. Scientific grammar is an effort to describe and explain language in scientific terms. Scientific grammar has been used to describe the theoretical grammars constructed by linguists or other researchers. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 208), defines it

as “ an approach to grammatical analysis and description in which the aim is to investigate grammatical structures as primitives to be explained in terms of their contribution to the systematic nature of language”.

2. Pedagogical Grammar

A pedagogical grammar falls within the domain of applied linguistics. Applied linguistics is a field of activity wherein the aims of studying languages go beyond the study of language for its own sake. This implies a clear distinction between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics. There was a conviction that linguistic studies cannot be applied to language pedagogy without modification and interpretation led to the formulation of the concept of a ‘pedagogical grammar’ as an intermediary or link between linguistics and pedagogy. The main aims of pedagogic grammar are not to present a systematic description of the language in terms of rules but they provide a relatively informal framework of definitions, exercises, etc which will be useful for the language learners to acquire the knowledge of the language. Stern (1991) explains the concept of Pedagogical Grammar as follows:

It can be argued that it was a fault of past efforts to attempt to apply too directly the findings of phonetics, structural linguistics, or transformational generative grammar. The conviction that linguistic studies cannot be applied to language pedagogy without modification and interpretation led to the formulation of the concept of a ‘pedagogical grammar’ as an intermediary or link between linguistics and pedagogy. If linguistic theory and description lead to a specific statement about a language L, this statement constitutes a ‘formal’, ‘scientific’, or ‘linguistic’ grammar or part of such a grammar of L. What the teacher or course writer needs, or what can be presented to the learner is not the scientific grammar. The teacher, the textbook writer, or student should have a selection of linguistic

data, derived from the scientific grammar, modified in accordance with the purposes and conditions of language learning. (p.175)

Pedagogical grammar is what linguists typically refer to this as prescriptive grammar. According to Nasr (1980), there are many varieties of pedagogic grammar as the grammar designed to instruct the native speaker of his own language. Besides, a pedagogic grammar which serves as a basis for an explanation of how people ‘understand’ sentences they hear or read would be different from one designed to help explain how people ‘produce’ the sentences they speak. She adds, “All teachers of English need to be aware of the best scientific description of language; they need in short, to know the theory. But they will not all use the theory and the description in the same way when it comes to teaching English (p. 85). Therefore, pedagogic grammar refers to the grammar the teacher wants to use in his classroom with students and any pedagogic grammar must be based on the best known scientific grammar. Stern (1991) clarifies that what the teacher or course writer needs, or what can be presented to the learner is not the scientific grammar. The teacher, the textbook writer, or student should have a selection of linguistic data, derived from the scientific grammar, modified in accordance with the purposes and conditions of language learning. Similarly, Richards and Schmid (2002, p. 389) **pedagogic grammar** also **pedagogical grammar** **refers** to the grammatical description of a language which is intended for pedagogical purposes, such as language teaching, syllabus design, or the preparation of teaching materials. A pedagogic grammar may be based on:

- a) grammatical analysis and description of a language
- b) particular grammatical theory, such as GENERATIVE GRAMMAR
- c) the study of the grammatical problems of learners (see ERROR ANALYSIS)
- d) or on a combination of approaches.

3. The Conversion of Scientific Grammar into Pedagogic Grammar

Stern (1991) raised certain questions in relation to the link between scientific grammar and pedagogic grammar. They are as follows:

1. What factors should be taken into account in writing the pedagogical grammar?
2. How much of the scientific grammar should appear in it, and
3. how can the information the pedagogical grammar is to offer be presented most effectively? (p. 175)

He explains that pedagogical grammar does not need to be rigidly tied to one theory of language as other than purely linguistic factors, in particular **psychological and sociolinguistic** factors, must determine the content. He provides the example of Noblitt (1972), who bases his conception of a pedagogical grammar on *linguistic, psychological, and educational* considerations and includes a fivefold analysis: a pedagogical grammar requires descriptive and contrastive data and concepts, an ordering of the information in terms of skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and in terms of levels of achievement (elementary, intermediate, and advanced), and evaluation procedures, bearing in mind objectives and educational settings for which the pedagogical grammar is intended. Besides, factors like the age of the learners, the teachers' skill, the course objectives etc are to be kept in view while preparing a pedagogic grammar. The language teacher or the applied linguist has to select and choose the rules and statements from the formal grammars keeping in view his experiences as a teacher and his tentative decision about the utilitarian value of such selected rules and their use in teaching. In other words, Noblitt makes the valid point that a language curriculum cannot be founded on linguistic considerations alone and he specifies what other factors have to be borne in mind in composing a pedagogical grammar.

From a slightly different perspective Corder (1973, p.156) has suggested what specific contribution to pedagogy can be expected from theoretical linguistics. He recognizes three orders of application as in Figure1:

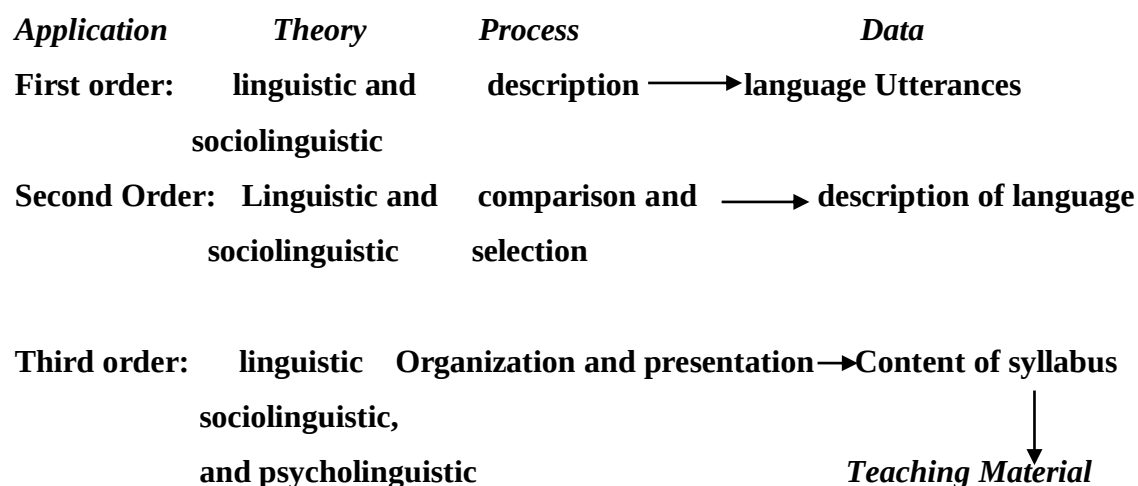


Figure1: Corder's view of the applications of linguistics (Corder, 1973, p.156)

Stern (1991) explains the three levels of conversion.

At the first level of application the concepts of theoretical linguistics are used to analyse language data leading to the description of the second language. On this basis, the 'second-order applications' determine the selection of items. Such selection will be helped by contrastive analysis and error analysis, and will yield an inventory from which the linguistic content of the syllabus, equivalent to the level 2 of our model, as well as in the teaching materials can be determined at the 'third level of application' (i.e., our level 3). Although linguistics has still a contribution to make at this level in the development of a syllabus, on the composition of teaching materials, and in tests, the linguistic component has

progressively declined in favour of psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic considerations (p. 176).

Conclusion

Pedagogical grammars thus, have a direct relationship with theoretical, as well as, language-specific descriptive grammars. However, a pedagogical grammar, in addition, includes many more things. A pedagogical grammar is applied in nature, and exists in its own right. We cannot look at this discipline as merely a sub-set of linguistics, since linguistics is concerned primarily with the code of a language, while pedagogical grammar deals with the use of code made maximally effective in language teaching/learning operation and hence, the nature of its grading is not always congruent with the ordering of rules in a theoretical or language-specific grammar.

Homework

In a chart format, contrast between scientific grammar and pedagogic grammar and explain the link between both.

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Egrule Vs Ruleg

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define ruleg (deductive approach) and egrule Inductive approach
2. Contrast ruleg (deductive approach) and egrule Inductive approach
3. Recognize the advantages and disadvantages of ruleg (deductive approach) and egrule Inductive approach.

1. Definitions

There are various teaching methods that can be applied to the teaching of grammar. According to Nunan (2005, p. 15), there are two basic ways to introduce new grammar item, deductively and inductively. In inductive method, the teacher presents the grammar rule and then gives student exercise in which they apply the rule. In inductive approach, the teacher presents sample of language, and the student have to come to an intuitive understanding of the rule.

a) Deductive Approach (ruleg)

According to Gorat & Prijambodo (2013, p. 80):

The deductive approach of teaching English grammar refers to the style of teaching students by introducing the grammatical rules first, and then applying them by the students. In the deductive approach a grammatical rule is first presented explicitly by the teacher and examples applying the rule will follow. Next the students practice the rule with various kinds of exercises, for example drills and translation into and out of the target language. That is to say, that it moves from general to more specific information. The deductive approach is also often compared with other more traditional methods of grammar teaching. It aims

at teaching various grammatical rules one at a time through presentation and explanation by the teacher. This is done by giving the learners explicit interpretations and time to internalize the rule instead of making them to use or produce structures they cannot yet fully master. Also, as the approach gives the teacher a simple and quick way for teaching the rules, there will be more time for practicing the structure.

b) Inductive Approach (egrule)

For Gorat & Prijambodo (2013),

The inductive approach refers to the style of introducing language context containing the target rules where students can induce such rules through the context and practical examples. In other words, the sequence in this approach goes from creating a situation and giving examples to the generalization where students should discover such generalization by themselves or with the teacher's help. The inductive approach, in its turn, moves from specific to general. The learners are first shown many examples that contain a certain grammatical structure in different contexts and they have to work out the rules by themselves. Next the learners apply the rules with various exercises and in different contexts to learn how they actually work in real language use (pp. 80-81).

They argue that there are some reasons for the advantages of the inductive approach as students feel secure and attracted when they have to find the rule themselves with teacher's guidance.

2. Egrule Vs Ruleg

Benitez-Correa, et.al (2019, p.227) clarify that deductive teaching is a traditional method in which information about the target language and rules are given at the beginning of a class

and complemented with examples. The principles of this approach are generally used in classes where the main target is to teach grammar structures. However, in an inductive method, learners analyze examples in a context (e.g. text or audios) to discover the grammar rules by themselves. Therefore, for Jacka and Hermann (1977) ***ruleg is an expository method while egrule is a discovery method.***

Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 146) further state that **deduction** is an approach to language teaching in which learners are taught rules and given specific information about a language. They then apply these rules when they use the language. Language teaching methods which emphasize the study of the grammatical rules of a language (for example the Grammar Translation Method) make use of the principle of deductive learning. Conversely, **inductive learning** or **learning by induction**, in which learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules directly but are left to discover or induce rules from their experience of using the language. Language teaching methods which emphasize use of the language rather than presentation of information about the language (for example the Direct Method, Communicative Approach, and Counseling Learning) make use of the principle of inductive learning.

Both the inductive approach – egrule and the deductive approach - ruleg are important in grammar teaching and teachers should vary the method used in teaching grammar to avoid the students' boredom. The teacher should be creative in teaching grammar develop different reasoning skills. Every approach has its advantages and disadvantages and it is up to the teacher to make the best use of both.

Homework

1. In a chart format demonstrate the difference between ruleg (deductive approach) and egrule Inductive approach.
2. In a chart format, state the advantages and disadvantages of the ruleg (deductive approach) and egrule Inductive approach.

References

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TGG Levels of Adequacy

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Recognize the background of the three levels of adequacy: TGG.
2. Define the three levels of adequacy: observational, descriptive and explanatory.
3. Contrast between the three levels of adequacy

1. Background

Skenderi Rakiplari (2015), Noam Chomsky revolutionized the linguistic thought of the 20th century as he argued for the shortcomings of the behaviourist and the structuralist theories as they fail to reach the third level of grammar adequacy; that is , explanatory adequacy. Both theories did not account for the mental processes in language learning which universal grammar (UG) consider. Chomsky claims that his Universal Grammar theory is explanatory adequate because it sets universal principles that generate structures and sentences for all the languages. The explanatory adequacy goes further than the descriptive adequacy, as it explains how speakers attain the knowledge of language (p. e4).

2. Defining TGG

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 221),” **generative grammar is** a type of grammar that attempts to define and describe by a set of rules or principles all the GRAMMATICAL sentences of a language and no ungrammatical ones. This type of grammar is said to **generate**, or produce, grammatical sentences”. They add, that **generate (v) is when** the application of a set of rules results in a given structure or string as output, then those rules are said to “generate” the structure or string”. They further explain **generative theory as**

a cover term for a variety of linguistic theories that have the common goals of (a) providing an account of the formal properties of language, positing rules that specify how to form all the grammatical sentences of a language and no ungrammatical ones (the principle of **descriptive adequacy**), while (b) explaining why grammars have the properties they do and how children come to acquire them in such a short period of time (the principle of **explanatory adequacy**). The major versions of generative theory (all associated with the pioneering work of the linguist Noam Chomsky) that have influenced the fields of first and second language acquisition have been: **transformational grammar** (also **transformational-generative grammar**, **TG**, **generative-transformational grammar**), an early version of the theory that emphasized the relationships among sentences that can be seen as **transforms** or transformations of each other, for example the relationships among simple active declarative sentences (e.g. *He went to the store*), negative sentences (*He didn't go to the store*), and questions (*Did he go to the store?*). Such relationships can be accounted for by **transformational rules**

the **Standard Theory** (also **Aspects Model**) proposed in the mid-1960s, which specified a **base component** that produces or generates basic syntactic structures called **deep structures**; a **transformational component** that changes or transforms those basic structures into sentences called **surface structures**; a **phonological component**, which gives sentences a phonetic representation (see GENERATIVE PHONOLOGY) so that they can be pronounced; and a **semantic component**, which deals with the meaning of sentences (pp. 221-222)

3. Level s of Adequacy

Chomsky (1965) establishes three levels of adequacy stating that the ultimate goal of generative theory is to achieve these levels of adequacy. Every level is a prereuiste for the . next level. They are as follows:

- **Observational adequacy:** adequacy requires a language theory or a grammar to be capable of distinguishing adequate expressions from inadequate ones;
- **descriptive adequacy** requires it to appropriately describe the content of UG;
- **and explanatory adequacy** requires it to capture the fact that children acquire a language regardless of the environment in which they are raised(Chomsky, 1965: 24-26).

Skenderi Rakiplari (2015, pp. e3- e4) further clarifies the three levels of adequacy as follows:

- **Observational Adequacy:** is the lowest adequacy level. The observationally adequate grammar is build upon the data observed from a certain corpus and does not take into account the sentences and linguistic constructions outside the assigned corpus. For Rizzi (2016) “ this level refers to the generation of the right sequences of words”. (p. 2).
- **Descriptive Adequacy** is the second adequacy level. A descriptively adequate grammar regards the tacit knowledge of language of the native speakers (for example when making judgments on the acceptability of a sentence or structure), but it does not motivate or explain where does this knowledge that the speaker possesses, come from. For Rizzi (2016), it is “the generation of sequences of words with appropriate structural descriptions” (p. 2).

- **Explanatory Adequacy:** The definition of explanatory adequacy is broad but mainly stands for **discovering linguistics universals**. The explanatory adequate grammar goes beyond just describing the tacit knowledge of language, but even **explains where the knowledge comes from, focusing on the mental aspects**.

Homework:

In a chart, summarize the definitions of the three levels of adequacy and contrast between them.

References

1. Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, MA.: MIT Press.
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3. Rizzi, L. (2016) 'The concept of explanatory adequacy'. In I. Roberts (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Universal Grammar*, forthcoming (22/12/2016 - estimated). New York: Oxford University Press. <https://global.oup.com/academic/product/the-oxford-handbook-of-universal-grammar-9780199573776?cc=ch&lang=en&#>
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Testing

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Explain the difference between assessment, evaluation, testing and measurement
2. Recognize the different characteristics of test
3. Distinguish the types of tests
4. Identify the different steps of test construction

1. Definitions

- **Test:** According to Brown (2004, p. 3- 4), it is a **method** of **measuring** a **person's ability**, knowledge or performance in a given **domain**. He explains:

1. It is a method: an instrument – a set of techniques, procedures, or items- that requires performance on the part of the test taker. To qualify as a test the method should be explicit and structured.
2. A test must measure a general ability or specific competences or objectives.
3. It must measure an individual's ability, knowledge, or performance. Testers need to understand who the test takers are: what is their previous experience and background? Is the test appropriately matched to their abilities? How should test takers interpret their scores?
4. Test measures a given domain as in proficiency test the domain is overall proficiency in a language- general competence in all skills of a language. Others test can have more specific criteria as test of pronunciation limited to set of phonemic minimal pairs.

He further states that test is a subset of assessment as shown in the following figure:

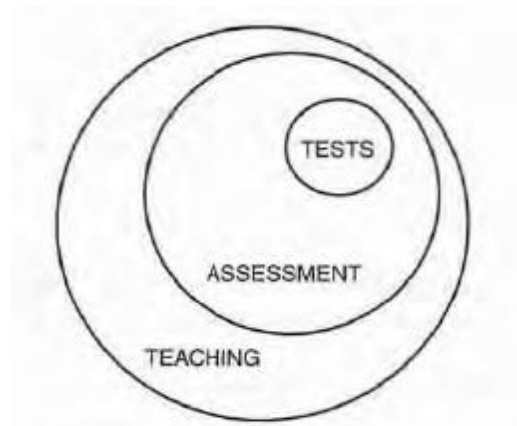


Figure 1: Test, assessment, and Teaching (Brown, 2004, p. 5)

▪ **Evaluation/ measurement/ assessment**

Woolfolk (2004, p. 514) distinguishes between the three terms as follows:

- ✓ **Evaluation:** judgment and making decisions based on values. Comparing information to criteria and then make judgments (using different text, different types of questions?)
- ✓ **Measurement** is evaluation put in quantitative terms- the numeric description. Measurement tells how much, how often, or how well by providing scores, ranks, or ratings. Measurement also allows a teacher to compare one student's performance on one particular task with either a standard or the performance of the other students.
- ✓ **Assessment:** the process of gathering information about students' learning. It is broader than testing and measurement because it includes all kinds of ways to sample and observe students' skills, knowledge, and abilities. Assessment can be formal such as unit test, or informal as observing who emerged as a leader in a group. It can be signed by local state or classroom teachers. Some assessment types involve testing and the reporting of scores.

Brown (2004) adds that informal assessment can take the form of incidental, unplanned comments and responses. Formal assessments are exercises or

procedures specifically designed to tap into storehouse of skills and knowledge.

They are systematic, planned sampling techniques constructed to give teacher and students an appraisal of students' achievement; "We can say that all tests are formal assessments, but not all formal assessment is testing" (p. 6).

▪ **Formative/ summative Assessment**

Brown (2004, p. 6) explains that most of classroom assessment is formative as it evaluates students in the process of forming their competencies and skills with the goal of helping them to continue that growth process. The key to such formation is the delivery by the teacher and internalization by the student of appropriate feedback on performance with eye towards the future continuation or formation of learning.

Summative assessment aims to measure, or summarize what a student has grasped, and typically occurs at the end of a course or unit of instruction. A summation of what the student has learned implies looking back and taking stock of how well student has accomplished objectives, but does not point they way to future progress, Example: Final exams.

▪ **Assessment of learning/ for learning/ as learning**

Bloxham & Boyd (2007, p. 15) distinguish between the three terms as follows:

- ✓ Assessment of learning characterizes traditional view of assessment. It involves making judgments about students' summative achievement, for purposes of selection and certification, and it also acts as a focus for institutional accountability and quality assurance.
- ✓ Assessment for learning is formative and diagnostic. It provides information about student achievement which allows teaching and learning activities to be changed in response to the needs of the learner and recognizes the huge benefit that feedback can have on learning

- ✓ Assessment as learning can be defined in two interlinked ways.
 1. Tackling assignments and revision is when higher education students do much of their learning.
 2. Assessment as learning is a subset of assessment for learning and sees student involvement in assessment, using feedback, participating in peer assessment, and self-monitoring of progress as moments of learning in themselves. Students come to have a better understanding of the subject matter and their own learning through their close involvement with assessment.

2. Test Principles

Brown (2004, pp 19- 28) refers to five crucial criteria for testing test. They are as follows:

- ✓ **Practicality:** an effective test is practical. This means that it:
 - Is not excessively expensive
 - Stays within appropriate time constraints.
 - Is relatively easy to administer, and
 - Has a scoring/evaluation procedure that is specific and time efficient.
- ✓ **Reliability:** A reliable test is consistent and dependable. If you give the same test to the same student or matched students on two different occasions, the test should yield similar results. There are a number of factors that may contribute to the unreliability of a test:
 - a) ***Student-related reliability:*** The most common student-related issues in reliability is caused by temporary illness, fatigue, a “ bad-day”, anxiety, and other

psychological and physical factors which may make an observed score deviate from one's true score

- b) **Rater Reliability:** Human error, subjectivity and bias may enter into the scoring process.
 - c) **Test Administration Reliability:** Unreliability may also result from the conditions in which the test is administered (oral test with street noise)
 - d) **Test reliability:** Sometimes the nature of the test itself can cause measurement errors. If the test is too long, test taker won't achieve the last point.
- ✓ **Validity:** The degree to which the test actually measures what it intended to measure. A valid test of reading ability measures reading ability 20/20, nor previous knowledge in a subject, nor some other variable. How can a teacher be assured that a test is indeed valid? Three types of validation are important in your role as classroom teacher: content validity, face validity, and construct validity (Brown 2001, p. 388/9).
- a) **Content validity:** If the test samples the subject matter about which conclusions are to be drawn, if it requires the test-taker to perform the behavior that is being measured.
 - b) **Face validity: asks the question**” Does the test, on the ‘face’ of it, appear from the learners’ perspective to test what is designed to test? Learners need to be convinced that the test is indeed testing what it claims to test. Face validity will be likely be high if learners encounter:
 - ✓ A well- constructed , expected format with familiar tasks,
 - ✓ Clearly doable within the allotted time limit.
 - ✓ Items that are clear and uncomplicated
 - ✓ Directions that are crystal clear
 - ✓ Tasks that relate to their course work (content validity), and

- ✓ A difficulty level that presents a reasonable challenge (p.27)
- c) **Construct Validity:** Ask the question “ Does this test actually tap into the theoretical construct as it has been defined” Proficiency is a construct. Communicative competence is a construct. Self esteem is a construct.
- ✓ **Authenticity:** the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a target language task. In test authenticity may be present in the following ways:
 - The language in the test is as natural as possible.
 - Items are contextualized rather than isolated.
 - Topics are meaningful (relevant, interesting) for the learner
 - Tasks represent or closely approximate real world tasks (p. 28).
- a) **Washback:** is the effect of testing on teaching and learning. One way to enhance washback is to comment generously and specifically on test performance. (Summative and formative assessment)
- b) **Transparency:** Information, guidance, rules and regulations on assessment should be clear, accurate, consistent and accessible to all staff, students, practice teachers and external examiners.

3. Types of Tests

The first task in designing a test for students is to determine the purpose for the test. Defining the purpose will help in choosing the right kind of test. They are as follows (Brown, 2004):

- **Language Aptitude tests** is designed to measure capacity or general ability to learn a foreign language and ultimate success in that undertaking. Two standardized aptitude tests: The modern Language Aptitude test (MLAT)(Carroll & Sapon, 1958) and Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery(PLAB)(1966). Both are English language tests and require students to perform a number of language related tasks.

MLAT: number learning, phonetic scripts, spelling clues, words in sentences, paired associates

- **Proficiency tests:** aim to test global competence in a language. They are not limited to any one course, curriculum, or single skill in the language; rather, they test overall ability. Proficiency tests are almost summative. (TOEFL test). They are not designed by teachers but by professionals.
- **Placement tests:** certain tests can act in the role of placement tests. The purpose is to place a student into a particular level or section of a language curriculum or school. A placement test usually, not always, includes a sampling of the material to be covered in the various courses in a curriculum; a student's performance on the test should indicate the point at which the student will find material neither too easy nor too difficult but appropriately challenging.
- **Diagnostic Test:** is designed to diagnose specified aspects of a language. A test of pronunciation might diagnose the phonological features of English that are different for learners. They should elicit information on what students need to work on for future.
- **Achievement tests:** analyze the extent to which students have acquired language features that have already been taught. They are related directly to classroom lessons, units, or even a total curriculum. They are limited to particular material addressed in a curriculum within a particular time frame and are offered after a course has focused on the objectives in questions.

Within every one of the five categories of test above, there are a variety of different possible techniques and procedures; these range from

- a) Objectives to subjective scoring procedures,
- b) Open-ended to structured response options.

- c) Multiple choice to fill in the blank item design formats
- d) Written to oral performance

4. Test Purposes

Sarosdy et.al (2006, p.137) clarify that tests are often used for several pedagogical purposes as follows:

- ✓ They may give diagnostic information to the teacher about where the learners are at the given moment to help decide what to teach next.
- ✓ Tests also give information to the learners about what they know, so that they can decide what they need to learn or review. In this way tests provide students with **a sense of achievement and progress** in their learning and this way may motivate students to learn specific material.
- ✓ At the same time tests give tasks which themselves can provide useful practice.
- ✓ Tests assessing performance provide a clear indication of reaching a certain phase in the course such as the end of a unit, or the end of the course.
- ✓ Tests may also be used for purely descriptive purposes in doing research.

5. Steps to Test Construction

➤ **Assessing clear, Unambiguous objectives:**

In addition to knowing the purpose of the test you are creating, you need to know as specifically as possible what it is you want to test. Examine the objectives for the unit you are testing in terms of the performance elicited and the target linguistic domain.

Drawing test specification:

- a) A broad outline of the test within the time limits (ex: 30mnts)
- b) What skills you will test, and

c) What the items will look like: items types and tasks

➤ **Scoring , Grading, and giving feedback**

Scoring: As you design test, you must consider how the test will be scored and graded. Your scoring plan reflects the relative weight that you place on each question and items in each section. Ex: oral interview: 40%, Listening: 20%, Reading 20%, Writing 20% total 100%

Grading: giving mark: Ex: A grade for 90 -100

Giving Feedback: Scoring and grading would not be complete without consideration of the form of feedback teachers offer to their students.

Homework

Using the mapping method, summarize the main points of the lesson

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