The Cambridge Guide to

Pedagogy and Practice in Second Language Teaching

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CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

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PREFACE

The present volume arose from the need for an authoritative set of core readings covering central issues in second language teaching. Approaches and practices in language teaching are constantly being revised and rethought as a result of the impact of changing understandings of the nature of language learning and teaching as well as in response to the growing demand by educational authorities and institutions around the world for more effective second language teaching programs. This guide seeks to provide an accessible yet comprehensive overview of key issues and current approaches in second language teaching as a resource for student-teachers, teachers, and teacher educators.

Contributors to the book were asked to provide a concise overview of their topic, drawing on current theory, research, and practice in order to clarify the key issues that current practice addresses, and to identify additional key readings related to the issue they address. These issues range from the role of English as an International Language, the nature of second language teaching and learning, the roles, identities, and beliefs of teachers and learners, the contexts of learning, learning styles and strategies, current approaches and practices in language instruction, and the role of media and materials in language teaching.

We hope that this collection of original papers will provide a valuable resource and reference for those involved in different aspects of second language teaching.

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September 2011

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to the contributors to this volume who responded enthusiastically to our invitation to contribute to this collection, and to the reviewers whose suggestions helped guide the contributors in preparing the final version of their chapters. We would also like to thank Karen Brock and Kathleen Corley for their editorial guidance and Carol-June Cassidy for skillfully managing this project through its developmental stages.

INTRODUCTION

Pedagogy and Practice in Second Language Teaching: An Overview of the Issues

Jack C. Richards and Anne Burns

The teaching of second languages, particularly English, is a vast international enterprise. Increasingly, proficiency in English is seen as the key to accessing the educational, technical, and knowledge resources that contemporary societies depend on. But the demand for competent English users, as well as adequately prepared English teachers, often exceeds the supply. Consequently in recent years there has been a dramatic change in the scope of English language teaching worldwide, and as a result, growing demands on those charged with providing an adequate response to the impact of the worldwide spread of English. There is increasing need for language programs that deliver the language skills and competencies required by today's global citizens and a demand from governments for more effective approaches to the preparation of language teachers. It is this gap between demand and supply that provides the motivation for cycles of curriculum review and innovation in many parts of the world. Such innovations may include increasing the time allocated to English in public education, commencing the teaching of English at primary school, teaching some school subjects through English, importing native speakers to work alongside national teachers in high schools, or increasing the weighting given to English in college and university entrance exams.

As a consequence of the growing demand for effective English programs, language teaching professionals are engaged in a continual review and evaluation of their assumptions and practices. The emergence of approaches such as reflective teaching, task-based pedagogy, genre theory, and action research are examples of how the language teaching profession undergoes periodic waves of renewal and paradigm shifts as it continually reinvents itself through the impact of new ideas, new educational philosophies, new technology, and new research findings. The present volume seeks to document such changes through a comprehensive overview of current approaches and practices in language teaching. In this book, 30 chapters focus on key issues in second-language teaching, drawing on current theory, research, and practice to identify present trends as well as future directions. In the process of this review a number of key issues emerge.

CHANGED UNDERSTANDING OF THE GOALS OF TEACHING

Today English is so widely taught worldwide that the purposes for which it is learned are sometimes taken for granted. Thirty years ago the assumption was that teaching English was a politically neutral activity and acquiring it would bring untold blessings to those who succeeded in learning it and lead to educational and economic empowerment. English was regarded as the property of the English-speaking world, particularly the United Kingdom and the United States. Native speakers of the language had special insights and superior knowledge about teaching it. And it was, above all, the vehicle for the expression of a rich and advanced culture or cultures whose literary artifacts had universal value.

This picture has changed somewhat today. As McKay (2002; this volume, chap. 1) points out, now that English is the language of globalization, international communication, commerce and trade, tourism, the media, and pop culture, different motivations for learning it come into play. English is no longer viewed as the property of the English-speaking world but is an international commodity sometimes referred to as World English or English as an international language. The cultural values of the United Kingdom and the United States are often seen as irrelevant to language teaching, except in situations where the learner has a pragmatic need for such information. The language teacher need no longer be an expert on British and American culture and a literature specialist as well. English is still promoted as a tool that will assist with educational and economic advancement but is viewed in many parts of the world as one that can be acquired without any of the cultural trappings that go with it.

NEW DIRECTIONS IN METHODOLOGY

Since the 1990s, the methodology known as communicative language teaching has been widely adopted as a framework for teaching English worldwide. However, since it describes a set of very general principles grounded in the notion of communicative competence as the goal of second and foreign language teaching, there is no single or agreed upon set of practices that characterize current interpretations of communicative language teaching. Indeed, many practitioners today are hesitant to use the term, preferring to base their pedagogy on a set of general principles that can be applied in different ways, depending on the teaching context, the age of the learners, their level, their learning goals, and so on. These principles reflect changed understandings of the nature of second language learning and teaching and can be summarized as follows:

- Second language learning is facilitated when learners are motivated to learn and are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication.
- Effective classroom learning tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange.
- Meaningful communication results from students processing content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting, and engaging.
- Communication is a holistic process that often calls upon the use of several language skills or modalities.
- Language learning is facilitated both by activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language use and organization, as well as by those involving language analysis and reflection.
- Language learning is a gradual process that involves creative use of language and trial and error. Although errors are a normal product of learning the ultimate

goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.
- Learners develop their own routes to language learning, progress at different rates, and have different needs and motivations for language learning.
- Successful language learning involves the use of effective learning and communication strategies.
- The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator and language expert who creates a classroom climate conducive to language learning and provides supportive opportunities for students to use and practice the language and to reflect on language use and language learning.
- The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing.

Jacobs and Farrell (2001) suggest that these principles are reflected in the following trends in current language teaching methodology, which are illustrated throughout this volume:

1. **Learner autonomy:** Learners are given greater choice over their own learning, both in terms of the content of learning and in the learning processes they can employ. This is seen in the use of group-based learning, self-assessment, learner training, and other learner-centered approaches (chapter 12, Legutke).

2. **The social nature of learning:** Learning is not an individual private activity but a social one that depends upon interaction with others. Such interaction can create the motivation for learning (chapter 8, Ushioda). Creating a supportive classroom climate involves using principles of group dynamics and is a key condition for successful learning (chapter 4, Senior).

3. **Curricular integration:** The connection between different strands of the curriculum is emphasized so that English is not seen as a stand-alone subject but is linked to other subjects in the curriculum as well as to learners' out-of-class interests (chapter 12, Legutke; chapter 16, Crandall). Text-based learning (chapter 15, Burns; chapter 18, Brick) reflects this approach, and seeks to develop fluency in text types that can be used across the curriculum. Project work in language teaching also requires students to explore issues outside of the language classroom.

4. **Focus on meaning:** Meaning is viewed as the driving force of learning. Content-based, theme-based, and task-based teaching reflect this view and seek to make the exploration of meaning through content and tasks the core of language learning activities (chapter 9, Bell; chapter 14, Van den Branden; chapter 15, Burns).

5. **Diversity:** Today's English learners are characterized by diversity, differing in their motivations, needs, abilities, learning styles, learning histories, and cultural backgrounds (chapter 6, Wright; chapter 9, Bell). Teaching needs to take these differences into account rather than assuming that students approach learning in a uniform manner. This has led to more active learner involvement in choosing the content and manner of learning, offering choices, more support for learners, and emphasis on developing students' use and awareness of learning strategies (chapter 3, Benson).

6. **Thinking skills:** Language should serve as a means of developing higher-order thinking skills, i.e., critical and creative thinking. In language teaching this means that students do not learn language for its own sake but in order to develop and apply their thinking skills in situations that go beyond the language classroom (chapter 12, Legutke; chapter 20, Kern).

7. **Alternative assessment:** New forms of assessment replace traditional multiple-choice and other items that test lower-order skills. Multiple forms of assessment (e.g., observation, interviews, journals, portfolios) can be used to build up a comprehensive picture of what students can do in a second language.

8. **Teachers as colearners:** The teacher is viewed as engaged in a process of experimentation, reflection, and discovery, expanding his or her understanding of teaching through the process of teaching. This may be facilitated through various forms of reflective inquiry (chapter 2, Bailey) including action research and other forms of classroom investigation. Such activities are often carried out collaboratively.

RETHINKING THE NATURE OF TEACHING

The nature of teaching itself has been reimagined in applied linguistics with the influence of cognitive and sociocultural perspectives on teaching. Teacher cognition encompasses the mental lives of teachers, how these are formed, what they consist of, and how teachers' beliefs, thoughts, and thinking processes shape their understanding of teaching and their classroom practices. Teacher cognition research introduced a focus on teacher decision making, on teachers' theories of teaching, teachers' representations of subject matter, and the problem-solving and improvisational skills employed by teachers with different levels of teaching experience during teaching (Borg 2006). Constructs such as teachers' practical knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge, and personal theories of teaching noted above are now established components of our understanding of teacher cognition (chapter 5, Richards). From the perspective of teacher cognition, teaching is not simply the application of knowledge and of learned skills. It is viewed as a much more complex cognitively driven process affected by the classroom context, the teachers general and specific instructional goals, the learners' motivations and reactions to the lesson, and the teacher's management of critical moments during a lesson. At the same time teaching reflects the teacher's personal response to such issues; hence teacher cognition is very much concerned with teachers' personal and "situated" approaches to teaching. Borg's (2006) survey of research on teacher cognition shows how research has clarified such issues as the relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practice, the impact of context on language teacher's cognitions and practices, the processes of preservice teacher learning in language teaching, the relationship between cognitive change and behavioral change in language teachers, and the nature of expertise in language teaching.

Sociocultural perspectives on learning emphasize that learning takes place in specific settings or contexts that shape how learning takes place (Johnson 2006; Lantolf 2000; Lave and Wenger 1991). The location of language learning may be a classroom, a workplace, or an informal social setting, and these different contexts for learning create different potentials for learning. Sociocultural theory draws on Vygotsky's notion of the zone of proximal development, which focuses on the gap between what the learner can currently do and the next stage in learning – the level of potential development – and how learning occurs through negotiation between the learner and a more advanced language user during which a process known as scaffolding occurs (chapter 15, Burns). To take part in these processes the learner must develop interactional competence, the ability to manage exchanges despite limited language development. Personality, motivation, cognitive style may all play a role in influencing the learner's willingness to take risks, his or her openness to social interaction, and attitudes toward the target language and users of the target language, all of which can be developed and strengthened through teaching. At the same time, successful learning is contingent upon the teacher fostering the social dynamics of the classroom and encouraging the class to function as an effective learning community where learners support each other's learning (chapter 4, Senior).

CHANGING MODELS OF SECOND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Language teaching seeks to develop proficiency in language use, although there is no common consensus as to what the construct of proficiency entails and how best it can be acquired. Traditional views of language proficiency attributed a primary role to grammar in language learning and language use (McCarthy 2001). Syllabuses were essentially grammar based, grammar was a primary focus of teaching techniques, and sentence-based practice was viewed as the key to learning. In the 1970s the emergence of the notion of communicative competence and functional approaches to the study of language led to the development of communicative methodologies to replace the grammar-based methodologies of audiolingualism and situational language teaching. However, the adoption of communicative and fluency-based methodologies did not resolve the issue of the status of grammar in language teaching, which continues to arouse debate (chapter 27, Cullen). Programs where there was an extensive use of "authentic communication," particularly in the early stages of learning, reported that students often developed fluency at the expense of accuracy, resulting in learners with good communication skills but a poor command of grammar and a high level of fossilization (Higgs and Clifford 1982). To address this issue, recent trends in language teaching have included (a) incorporating a more explicit treatment of grammar within a text-based curriculum (chapter 15, Burns; chapter 27, Cullen), (b) building a syllabus and teaching and testing activities around tasks that involve communicative language use as well as attention to grammatical form (chapter 14, Van den Branden); (c) introducing activities involving consciousness raising and "noticing" grammatical features of input or output, (d) using activities that require "stretched output," i.e., which expand or "restructure" the learner's grammatical system though increased communicative demands and attention to linguistic form, and (e) opportunities for meaningful and communicative practice of grammar (Swain 2000; Cullen this volume, chap. 27).

While the field of second language acquisition research has done much to inform the role of grammar in language teaching, it has tended to give scant attention to other aspects of language proficiency, namely the mastery of the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing – the focus of most language programs and international tests. Consequently, approaches to the teaching of the four skills has tended to develop independently of the SLA research industry. These developments have been shaped by advances in the study of written and spoken discourse as well as by advances in technology (chapter 29, Levy).

LISTENING

The teaching of listening now receives much greater emphasis than it did in the past. Traditional views of listening saw it as the mastery of discrete skills or microskills (e.g., Richards 1983). Later, theoretical models of comprehension from the field of cognitive psychology began to inform the teaching of listening. It was from this source that the distinction between bottom-up processing and top-down processing was derived, a distinction that led to an awareness of the importance of background knowledge and schema in comprehension. The bottom-up model holds that listening is a linear, data-driven process. The top-down model of listening, by contrast, involves the listener in actively constructing meaning based on expectations, inferences, intentions, knowledge of schema, and other relevant prior knowledge and by a selective processing of the input. Listening came to be viewed as an interpretive process, although as Field points out (this volume, chap. 22), the importance

of word-level decoding in listening has tended to be neglected with an overemphasis on the role of top-down processes. Listening instruction has also been informed by the fields of conversation analysis and discourse analysis. Study of the organization of spoken discourse has led to the realization that written texts read aloud cannot provide a suitable basis for developing the abilities needed to process real-time, authentic discourse. Authenticity in materials became a catchword and part of a pedagogy of teaching listening that is now well established in language teaching (chapter 22, Field; chapter 28, Tomlinson).

SPEAKING

Speaking, including pronunciation, has always been a major focus of language teaching; however both the nature of speaking skills and approaches to teaching them have undergone a major shift in thinking in recent years. Speaking in traditional methodologies usually meant "repeating after the teacher, reciting a memorized dialogue, or responding to a mechanical drill" (Shrum and Glisan 2000, p. 26), reflecting the sentence-based view of proficiency prevailing in the methodologies of Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching. The theory of communicative competence prompted proposals for the development of communicative syllabuses, leading initially to proposals for notional and functional syllabuses and more recently proposals for task-based and text-based syllabuses and methodologies. Fluency became a goal for speaking courses, and this can be developed through the use of information-gap and other tasks that involve negotiation, interaction, feedback, and the use of communication strategies that require learners to attempt real communication despite limited proficiency in English. In so doing the teacher and other learners provide support for the oral practice and assisted performance that help develop speaking skills (chapter 21, Thornbury). At the same time the need for accuracy-based activities to complement a focus on fluency work has also been highlighted. Swain (2000) proposed that successful language acquisition requires not only comprehensible input, but also comprehensible output, that is, language produced by the learners that can be understood by other speakers of the language. Swain suggested that when learners have to make efforts to ensure that their messages are communicated (pushed output) this puts them in a better position to notice the gap between their productions and those of proficient speakers, thus fostering accuracy in second-language development. Managed output here refers to tasks and activities that require the use of certain target-language forms, i.e., which "stretch" the learner's language knowledge and that consequently require a "restructuring" of that knowledge. Ferris (this volume, chap. 24) reviews a number of strategies that can be used to address accuracy in pronunciation.

The notion of English as an International Language has also prompted a revision of the notion of communicative competence to that of "intercultural competence," a goal for both native speakers and language learners, and which focuses on learning how to communicate in ways that are appropriate in cross-cultural settings (chapter 12, Legutke). At the same time it is now accepted that models for oral interaction cannot be based simply on the intuitions of applied linguists and textbook writers but should be informed by the findings of conversation analysis, discourse analysis, and corpus analysis of authentic speech (chapter 15, Burns; chapter 21, Thornbury).

READING

As with the teaching of listening, second language reading ability was traditionally viewed as the mastery of specific reading subskills. Bottom-up views of reading dominated theory and pedagogy, and reading tended to be taught by providing texts (usually contrived texts

written from word lists) which students read and then answered comprehension questions about (chapter 23, Anderson). In many classrooms there was little difference in approach between teaching reading and testing reading. Advanced reading served as a form of cultural enrichment rather than addressing any real-world goals.

More recently, the fields of psycholinguistics, cognitive science, discourse, and text analysis, as well as second language reading research, have considerably enriched understanding of second language reading processes. Such research has suggested that L2 readers can benefit from the understanding of text structures and from the use of text-mapping strategies that highlight text structures and their function (Grabe 2009). Differences between proficient and nonproficient readers has been another focus of research and generated interest in the value of strategy instruction. The teaching of reading has been one area where strategy training is seen to be teachable, particularly with less proficient readers (chapter 23, Anderson). The role of vocabulary in reading has also been extensively researched (chapter 24, Ferris). Hu and Nation (2000) found that a vocabulary of 5000 words was needed to read short, unsimplified novels for pleasure, while Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) found that twice as many words as that were needed to read first-year university material. Both studies emphasize the need for vocabulary development as a component of a reading course since L2 learners typically are underprepared for reading unsimplified texts.

Although L2 reading programs are often designed to serve the needs of learners needing reading for academic purposes, the role English plays as the language in globalization in the information and communication age is also prompting a rethinking of approaches to the teaching of reading in many parts of the world. Students must now learn how to apply what they have learned, to use knowledge to solve problems, and to be able to transfer learning to new situations. Educationists argue that learners need to develop effective analytical processing skills through reading, problem solving, and critical thinking, and to develop technical reading skills rather than those used for literary reading. These need to be based on the use of authentic texts. In addition information-literacy skills are needed, i.e., the skills needed to access, analyze, authenticate, and apply information acquired from different sources and turn it into useful personal knowledge (Jukes and McCain 2001).

WRITING

The status of writing within language teaching has also changed considerably (chapter 24, Ferris). In the past, learning to write in a second language was mainly seen to involve developing linguistic and lexical knowledge as well as familiarity with the syntactic patterns and cohesive devices that form the building blocks of texts. Learning to write involved imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher and was closely linked to learning grammar. Later the focus in teaching writing shifted to the paragraph-pattern approach with a focus on the use of topic sentences, supporting sentences, and transitions and practice with different functional patterns such as narration, description, comparison-contrast, and exposition. In the 1990s process writing introduced a new dimension into the teaching of writing with an emphasis on the writer and the strategies used to produce a piece of writing.

More recently second-language writing instruction has been influenced by genre and literacy perspectives. These look at the ways in which language is used for particular purposes in particular contexts, i.e., the use of different genres of writing. Writing is seen as involving a complex web or relations between writer, reader, text, and real world knowledge (chapter 20, Kern; chapter 24, Ferris) Discourse communities such as those of business executives, applied linguists, technicians, and advertising copywriters possess

a shared understanding of the texts they use and create and the cultural assumptions underlying them and expectations as to the formal and functional features of such texts. Genre research has examined different types of written genres (e.g., narrative, descriptive, argumentative writing), as well as different text types (e.g., research reports, business letters, essay examinations, technical reports). Writers not only need realistic strategies for drafting and revising texts but also a clear understanding of the meanings and implications of texts to be able to structure their writing experienced according to the demands and constraints of particular contexts (chapter 19, Paltridge). And younger writers need opportunities to create texts that express their individuality and are not produced merely as evidence of learning (chapter 12, Legutke).

RETHINKING THE ROLES OF LEARNERS

In recent years there has also been a substantial change in where and how learning takes place and the role that learners play in the learning process. In the past teaching mainly took place in the classroom and in the language laboratory. With the advent of communicative teaching and learner-centered approaches in the 1990s, learning began to move away from the teacher's direct control and into the hands of learners through the use of individualized learning, group work, and project work (chapter 3, Benson). Technology has further increased the distance between teachers and learners and created new opportunities for learning. Learning is not confined to the classroom: it can take place at home or in other places as well as at school, using the computer and other forms of technology. Today's teachers and learners live in a technology-enhanced learning environment. Videos, computers, and the Internet are accessible to almost all teachers and learners, and in smart schools the language laboratory has been turned into a multimedia center that supports online learning. Technology has facilitated the shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered and blended learning, creating both new challenges and opportunities for teachers and learners (chapter 29 Levy; chapter 30, Reinders). Students, particularly teenagers, now spend large amounts of time in the digital world – time interacting not with the teacher, but with other learners using chat rooms that provide access to more authentic input and learning processes and that make language learning available at any time (chapter 12, Legutke).

A priority for teachers is understanding the specific characteristics and dispositions of one's learners, whether they be young children, teenagers, or adults (chapter 11, Pinter; chapter 12, Legutke; chapter 13, Orem) and making learners (rather than the lesson or the method) the focus of teaching. This involves understanding learners' needs and goals, communicating trust and respect for them, acknowledging diversity of needs and learning styles, giving feedback on their learning in ways which help develop their confidence and self-esteem and minimize loss of face, and using strategies that help develop an atmosphere of collaboration and mutual support among learners (Dörnyei 2001; Lamb 2003). Experienced teachers create learner-centered teaching by drawing on their familiarity with typical student behaviors, by using their knowledge of learners to make predictions about what might happen in the classroom, by choosing texts and tasks that engage their learners and provide opportunities for creative experimentation with the target language (chapter 12, Legutke; chapter 16, Crandall) and by building their lessons around students' difficulties and using strategies to maintain active student involvement in lessons (Lynch 2001). They recognize that language learning is not necessarily a direct consequence of good teaching but depends on understanding the different ways in which learners learn, the role of individual learning styles, motivations, backgrounds, and purposes in learning, and the understanding that at teaching needs to be adapted to their students' individual as well as collective needs (Tarone and Yule 1989; Benson 2005).

THE ROLE OF CONTEXT

A message that recurs throughout this volume is that each teaching context is different and effective language teaching involves understanding what the characteristics of the teaching context are and how they shape the nature of teaching and learning (chapter 5, Richards). McKay points out that different contexts for the use of English create different standards or norms for the use of English and that standards should be determined by local rather than external contexts of use. Native-speaker models for the pronunciation of English are not necessarily considered an appropriate target (Jenkins 2000; Thornbury this volume, chap. 21). Sociocultural perspectives on learning emphasize that learning is situated, i.e., it takes place in specific settings or contexts that shape how learning takes place. The location of language learning may be a classroom, a workplace, or an informal social setting, and these different contexts for learning create different potentials for learning. The context may be a campus-based ESL program, a public school, a community college, or a private language institute. The learners may be children, teenagers, or adults and may represent a variety of different social, economic, cultural, and educational backgrounds. Classes may vary from 10 to 60 or more students (chapter 10, Shamin) and contain students of varying abilities, motivations, and levels (chapter 9, Bell), all of which pose particular problems for teachers. Teaching thus involves understanding the dynamics and relationships within the classroom and the rules and behaviors specific to a particular setting. Wright (this volume, chap. 6) emphasizes that a key factor in teaching is managing the classroom so that it provides favorable conditions for learning.

Differing contexts for learning also represent different purposes for language learning as well as different priorities in terms of learning needs. Students' learning needs may be related to study skills, academic literacy, travel, social survival, or employment and each learning context requires the mastery of specific genres of discourse with their own linguistic characteristics, i.e., mastering the language of particular discourse communities (chapter 18, Brick; chapter 19, Paltridge). From the 1960s in language teaching there was a growing recognition of the demand for specialized language programs to meet the diverse needs and contexts of language learners, and needs analysis procedures increasingly began to be introduced into language teaching. By the 1980s a "need-based philosophy" emerged in language teaching, particularly in relation to the design of special purposes language courses (e.g., English for science students) and vocationally oriented program design (e.g., English for nurses, English for engineers) (Richards 2001). Needs analysis is a now a standard procedure in the design of language programs (chapter 24, Ferris). Examples in this volume include needs analysis from the perspective of ESP and EAP courses, task-based teaching, and text-based teaching (chapter 14, Van Den Branden; chapter 15, Burns; chapter 18, Brick; chapter 19, Paltridge).

The need for context-specific courses also creates a demand for context-specific materials. Tomlinson (this volume, chap. 28), argues that global materials designed for use worldwide cannot meet the needs of learners in specific learning environments with specific learning objectives, for whom teacher-made local materials are often more appropriate.

ORGANIZATIONAL AND MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVES

In the last decade or so language teaching has also been influenced by concepts and practices from the corporate world. In the past, four ingredients were seen as essential to provide for effective teaching: teachers, methods, course design, and tests. Teaching was viewed rather narrowly as a self-contained activity that did not need to look much beyond itself.

Improvements in teaching would come about through fine-tuning methods, course design, materials, and tests. By comparison, effective language teaching today is seen both as a pedagogical problem and well as an organizational one. On the pedagogical side, teachers are no longer viewed merely as skilled implementers of a teaching method but as creators of their own individual teaching methods, as classroom researchers, and curriculum and materials developers. Beyond the pedagogical level however, and at the level of the institution, schools are increasingly viewed as having similar characteristics to other kinds of complex organizations in terms of organizational activities and processes and can be studied as a system involving inputs, processes, and outputs. Teaching is embedded within an organizational and administrative context and influenced by organizational constraints and processes (chapter 4, Senior). In order to manage schools efficiently and productively, it is argued, it is necessary to understand the nature of the organizational activities that occur in schools, the problems that these activities create, and how they can be effectively and efficiently managed and controlled. These activities include setting and accomplishing organizational goals, allocating resources to organizational participants, coordinating organizational events and processes, and setting policies to improve their functioning (Visscher 1999).

This management view of education has brought into language teaching concepts and practices from the commercial world, with an emphasis on planning, efficiency, communication processes, targets and standards, staff development, learning outcomes and competencies, quality assurance, strategic planning, performance appraisal, and best practice (chapter 17, Leung). We have thus seen a movement away from an obsession with pedagogical processes to a focus on organizational systems and processes and their contribution to successful language programs. The scope of English teaching worldwide and the huge financial investment it requires has also created a demand for greater accountability in language-teaching practices (chapter 6, Wright). One way to approach the issue of accountability is through the identification of standards for language programs (chapter 13, Orem). The standards movement has taken hold in many parts of the world and promotes the adoption of clear statements of instructional outcomes in educational programs as a way of improving learning outcomes in programs and to provide guidelines for program development, curriculum development, and assessment.

CONCLUSION

In discussing change in education, Kuhn's (1970) notion of paradigm shift is often referred to. According to Kuhn, new paradigms in science emerge rapidly as revolutions in thinking shatter previous ways of thinking. Reviewing changes in language teaching in recent years, while some changes perhaps have the status of paradigm shifts (e.g., the spread of communicative language teaching and process writing) most of the trends in language teaching changes documented in this volume have emerged more gradually and at different times. But once a trend emerges there is generally pressure to adopt new ideas and practices, hence the need for the kind of critical review of current assumptions and practices that this volume seeks to provide.

Probably the main motivation for change comes from dissatisfaction with the present state of affairs. Despite the resources expended on second and foreign language teaching worldwide, in almost every country, results normally do not match expectations, hence the constant pressure to adopt new curriculum, teaching methods, materials, and forms of assessment. Government policy is often the starting point for change when requirements are announced for a new curriculum or syllabus or for some other change in goals or the delivery of language instruction. However, other factors also influence educational change. These include:

* trends in the profession, such as when particular practices or approaches like communicative language teaching become sanctioned by the profession;
* guru-led innovations, such as when the work of a particular educationist like Krashen or Gardner becomes fashionable or dominant;
* responses to technology, such as when the potential of the World Wide Web catches the imagination of teachers;
* political or values-driven changes, such as critical pedagogy;
* influences from academic disciplines, such as when ideas from psychology, linguistics, or cognitive science shape language pedagogy;
* learner-based innovations, such as a focus on learner-strategies.

Once changes have been adopted they are often promoted with a reformist zeal. Previous practices suddenly become out of fashion, and positive features of earlier practices are quickly forgotten – doubtless the trends and directions described in this book will be superseded in time. In the meantime it is hoped that the overview provided in this volume will enable language teaching professionals to assess the currency of their own educational practices as well as reflect on the changes they have experienced or are preparing for in their own institutions.

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SECTION I

RETHINKING OUR UNDERSTANDING OF TEACHING

This introductory section considers the impact of recent new developments, ideas, educational philosophies, concepts, and approaches on the field of English language teaching (ELT). It lays out some of the larger-scale considerations that have had an influence on pedagogy and practice in language teaching over the last two decades.

In chapter 1, McKay considers how the notion that English is now the major international world language is changing the way the field must think about its pedagogical principles. She points out that although in terms of quantity of native speakers English is not predominant, its effects are widespread. The numbers of second-language speakers of English far outweigh the numbers of native speakers, and the desire to learn and speak English is pervasive. English is perceived as the language to which those beyond "the inner circle" must aspire to have access to international education and employment. Such perceptions have radically changed the ways English language teachers need to conceive of their practices. McKay stresses that ELT must give learners access to authentic opportunities and realistic and meaningful interactions, but at the same time must respect the diversity of other languages, cultures, and educational contexts within which learning opportunities are offered. Importantly, McKay's chapter sets the scene for the volume by laying out the international landscapes of English language and its teaching worldwide.

Following from McKay's scoping of ELT internationally, Bailey, in chapter 2, focuses on a key attribute now considered indispensable to teaching professionalism. Having traced the development of reflective pedagogy and reflective teaching, she identifies key components of reflective teaching models and outlines the attitudes and developmental phases integral to a reflective mode of pedagogy. Drawing partly on her research with Springer, she offers useful practical suggestions about how teachers can develop a reflective stance

on the pedagogical practices and processes of their classrooms. The chapter concludes by discussing the advantages and disadvantages of practicing reflective pedagogy.

Benson's discussion in chapter 3 takes up and critically evaluates a philosophical orientation in language teaching that has permeated the field since the late 1970s – that of learner-centeredness. He argues that in its contemporary versions this notion is essentially bound up with learner diversity – a demographic reality that is central to every language classroom. The widespread interest that has developed in autonomy in language learning is a manifestation of new approaches to issues of learner-centeredness. Benson complexifies what may in the past have been a rather simplistic notion of learner-centeredness by making a distinction between "learner-focused" teaching and "learner-directed" learning. He offers a number of practical principles underlying learner-centered teaching that can be adopted by classroom teachers.

In chapter 4, Senior offers a complementary perspective on the dynamics of pedagogy and practice in ELT classrooms. Her chapter picks up on themes raised by both Bailey and Benson and considers them within a sociopedagogic theoretical framework. Class-centered teaching is a concept that emerged from research conducted by Senior with experienced English-language teachers, looking at the elements of pedagogy that distinguish effective from less-effective teachers. Senior focuses on the myriad, but often intuitive, forms of pedagogy that experienced and effective teachers practice on a daily basis in order to be "class-centered." Her chapter offers useful insights for language teachers on what it means to be class-centered and how the principles of class-centeredness can be implemented in the classroom.

Tying together themes from the chapters by Bailey, Benson, and Senior, chapter 5 by Richards discusses what we know about the knowledge, beliefs, and skills that language teachers make use of in their practice. His focus in considering these issues is on what makes for "exemplary teaching," that is, effective teaching demonstrated by expert language-teaching practitioners. In the current times, where language teachers are held accountable and the outcomes from language teaching may be subject to criticism from policy makers, the media, and the public, it is important that the ELT field is able articulate the features that characterize good teaching. Richards synthesizes 10 qualities that can be argued to be central to ELT competence, expertise, and professionalism. As a final chapter in a section that lays out some of the major premises for conceptualizing current pedagogy and practice, it reminds us of the centrality of the teacher in effective language learning.

CHAPTER 1

English as an International Language

Sandra Lee McKay

INTRODUCTION

Today reference to English as an international language (EIL) is commonplace in discussions of English teaching. In this chapter, I argue that since English is an international language, we need to make significant changes in the pedagogy and practice of English teaching. In order to make this argument, I begin with some background information on the present-day spread and use of English. Then I discuss three key issues in EIL pedagogy, namely:

- imagined communities
- inequality of access to English learning
- standards in English teaching

The chapter ends with a discussion of what these issues suggest for EIL pedagogy. We begin with some background on the characteristics of an international language.

BACKGROUND

Most would agree that for a language to qualify as an international language, the language has to be widely used. However, if we consider recent estimates of the number of L1 speakers of major languages, English is not at the top of the list (See table 1.1).

Why then do many consider English an international language? One of the major reasons is the increasing number of L2 speakers of English, so that today there are more L2 speakers of English than L1 speakers (Graddol 2006). Another factor that contributes to the use of English as an international language is that, unlike some other major languages, such as Mandarin and Hindi, the use of English is geographically widely distributed. This allows English to be used cross-culturally both within one country (e.g., among different

Mandarin	1,213,000,000
Spanish	329,000,000
English	328,350,000
Arabic	221,000,000
Hindi	182,000,000
Bengali	181,000,000
Portuguese	178,000,000
Russian	144,000,000
Japanese	122,400,000
German	90,300,000

Table 1.1　Speakers of major languages.
(Adapted from Lewis 2009. Used by permission,
© SIL International (*Ethnologue* 2009).)

ethnic and linguistic groups in the Philippines or India or Tanzania) and across political
boundaries (e.g., between a Chinese speaker and a Japanese speaker of English or between
an American speaker of English and an Indian speaker of English).

Smith (1976) was perhaps one of the first to define the term *international language*,
noting that an "*international* language is one which is used by people of different nations
to communicate with one another" (p. 38). Elaborating on this definition of an interna-
tional language, Smith makes several important assertions regarding the relationship of an
international language and culture. These assumptions are that

a.　learners of an international language do not need to internalize the cultural norms of
native speakers of that language;

b.　the ownership of an international language becomes "denationalized";

c.　the educational goal of learning an international language is to enable learners to
communicate their ideas and culture to others.

If we accept these assertions on the relationship between an international language and
culture, then the primary cultural content of an EIL class should not be on learning cultural
information about other countries, particularly western, English-speaking countries, but
rather on learning how to tell others about the culture of the country where the language
is being taught. In addition, when the culture of other countries is being examined, the
focus should be on achieving what Kramsch (1993, 8) calls a "sphere of interculturality" in
which learning about another culture involves having students consider their own culture in
relation to another. For example, a discussion of Thanksgiving in the United States should
not be merely about describing this holiday as it is celebrated there, but more importantly
about holidays that exist in the host country for giving thanks for a harvest.

Another important feature of an international language is that it is used in many
varied contexts. Several decades ago Kachru (1989) tried to characterize these contexts by
describing the use of English as a factor of three concentric circles: (a) the *Inner Circle*,
where English is the primary language of the country, such as in Australia, Canada, the
United States, and the United Kingdom; (b) the *Outer Circle*, where English serves as a
second language in a multilingual country, such as in Singapore, India, and the Philippines;
and (c) the *Expanding Circle*, where English is widely studied as a foreign language, such
as in China, Japan, and Korea. The problem is that the lines of Kachru's three circles are
blurring today so that, for example, there are many Swedes who use English on a daily

basis even though Sweden is considered an Expanding Circle country. Let us now turn
to examining some of the issues that surround the teaching of English as an international
language today.

KEY ISSUES

IMAGINED COMMUNITIES AS INCENTIVES FOR ENGLISH LEARNING

Back in 1986, in a book entitled *The Alchemy of English*, Kachru (1986, 1) argued that
"knowing English is like possessing the fabled Aladdin's lamp, which permits one to open,
as it were, the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science, and travel. In
short, English provides linguistic power." This belief in the power of English has resulted
in many language learners imagining the various benefits that can develop if they learn
English. Often these "imagined communities" are depicted in the narratives of language
learners. Such narratives reinforce the belief of many English learners that if they invest in
English learning, they will reap the benefits of social and intellectual mobility.

Niño-Murcia (2003), for example, cites Peruvian narratives that recount the benefits of
joining an imagined community of English speakers. Niño-Murcia examined the beliefs of
English learners in Tupichocha, an agro-pastoral village of 1,543 inhabitants that is losing
its population through emigration. While people over age 40 generally do not express
an interest in learning English, this is not true of the younger generation. Many of the
young people want to learn English so that they can take distance-learning courses over the
Internet; others want to learn English so that they can go to an English-speaking country
and earn more money. For example, one respondent, Luz (age 25), when asked why she
was studying English, responded that she wanted to learn English so she could go to the
United States and earn a good salary. In her mind English proficiency was the key to both
immigration and making money when, in fact, entry to the United States depends on much
more than English proficiency.

The concept of an imagined community is one that has not gone unnoticed by ELT
private schools. Evidence of this is the establishment of theme villages that depict an
imagined environment. Seargeant (2005), for example, describes British Hills in Japan, a
leisure language-learning complex that seeks to simulate an "authentic" English-speaking
environment. In fact, the sales slogan "boasts that the complex is 'More English than
England itself'" (p. 327). The village is staffed by native speakers recruited from Britain,
Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

The theory underlying such villages is that learning can be enhanced by students
actually imagining themselves in the role of a fluent speaker in an "authentic" environment.
Whereas such imagined communities may provide learners with motivation to learn English,
these imagined communities may mislead learners as to both the benefits of learning English
and the importance of native speakers in the learning of English. While we as teachers do
not want to undermine students' motivation to learn English, it is equally important that we
do not exaggerate the benefits of learning English.

INEQUALITY OF ACCESS TO ENGLISH LEARNING

An economic divide in the teaching of English is evident in many countries as, for example,
in South Korea. The size of the English language market in South Korea is estimated to
be about $3,333 million dollars a year with another $833 million spent on study abroad
programs. The private after-school education market is also booming, particularly after it
was announced in 1995 that English would become an elementary school subject. Many

Korean parents are sending their children to English-language kindergartens, even though such schools are typically three times more expensive than ordinary kindergartens (Park 2006).

An economic divide in English learning is also evident in the current English education policies in Hong Kong where, in 1997, the Department of Education announced a sweeping change in the medium of instruction in schools so that most schools were asked to adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction. At the same time, the government made an exemption for a quarter of the schools which had been operating successfully in English to continue using English as the medium of instruction (Choi 2003).

In order to justify the policy, the government extolled the benefits of mother-tongue education; however, many parents believed that it would be best for their children to go to English-medium schools and potentially gain the benefits they believed, rightly or wrongly, would come from proficiency in English. Many parents strove to get their children into the small number of English-medium schools or enroll them in expensive international schools and even send their children overseas to Anglophone countries to study, options that were available only to a small proportion of economically elite families. The Hong Kong language policy then had several negative effects brought on by global-ization and the spread of English: first, it encouraged an economic divide in the learning of English; second, it minimized the value of using the mother tongue in education with its implicit suggestion that this option was in some ways less desirable; and finally, it promoted the idea of the desirability of an English-only classroom in the acquisition of English.

The current state of English education raises several critical issues of access. The first is how to convince parents and students of the value of supporting bilingual/biliterate education. At the present time in many countries, parents, school administrators, and teachers support an English only agenda in the schools in the belief that this is best for their children. Often, a child's first language is viewed as a problem rather than a resource. The second issue is how to provide less advantaged children in the society with equal access to English so they can succeed in institutions of higher education. How can we as English teachers respond to this situation? First, we can value the first language of our students, using the L1 in the English classroom when it furthers language learning, and secondly, we can strive to provide access to English learning for all students who wish to learn English regardless of their economic background.

THE QUESTION OF STANDARDS

A final issue, and perhaps the most controversial, is the notion of standards in reference to an international language. The spread of English has brought with it the development of many new varieties of English, which has led to much discussion regarding what standards should be promoted in the teaching of English. *Standard language* is the term generally used to refer to that variety of a language that is considered the norm. It is the variety regarded as the ideal for educational purposes, and usually used as a yardstick by which to measure other varieties and implement standard-based assessment.

The challenge that World Englishes presents to the Standard English ideology is one of plurality – that there should be different standards for different contexts of use; that the definition of each Standard English should be determined locally rather than determined outside its context of use. However, if there are different forms of Standard English, the concern of mutual intelligibility emerges. The fact that some speakers of English use a variety of English that is different from a standard variety of English has led some to argue that the use of these varieties of English will lead to a lack of intelligibility among speakers

of English. It is this fear that has led to a widespread debate over standards in the use of English.

One of the early debates over standards occurred at a 1984 conference to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the British Council. At this conference, Randolph Quirk and Braj Kachru, two key figures in the growing debate over standards in international English, expressed conflicting views on the issue of standards in relation to international English. Quirk argued for the need to uphold standards in the use of English in both countries where English is spoken as a native language and in countries where English is used as a second or foreign language. He maintained that tolerance for variation in language use was educationally damaging in Anglophone countries and that a common standard of use was warranted in all contexts of English language use.

Kachru (1985), on the other hand, argued that the spread of English had brought with it a need to reexamine the traditional notion of a standard language. As he put it,

> In my view, the global diffusion of English has taken an interesting turn: the native speakers of this language seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization; in fact, if current statistics are any indication, they have become a minority. This sociolinguistic fact must be accepted and its implication recognized. What we need now are new paradigms and perspective for linguistic and pedagogical research and for understanding the linguistic creativity in multilingual situations across cultures. (p. 30)

Kachru maintained that allowing for a variety of linguistic norms would not lead to a lack of intelligibility among varieties of English; rather what would emerge from this situation would be an educated variety of English that would be intelligible across the many varieties of English. The reason this would occur is that the variety of written English promoted in the schools, upon which standard English is based, varies little among learning contexts.

The debate regarding the teaching of standards continues today with some arguing for the promotion of a monolithic model of English while others support a pluricentric model. Those like Quirk who argue for a monolithic model contend that native-speaker models should be promoted in both spoken and written English because these varieties have been codified and have a degree of historical authority.

On the other hand, those like Kachru who support a pluricentric model of English contend that language contact necessarily leads to language change, particularly in terms of spoken English and in the coining of new words. They argue that the development of new varieties of English is a natural result of the spread of English. In many ways the debate reflects a tension between the global and the local brought about by the new social space of globalization. Whereas global space has brought exposure to a standard variety of English, local space has taken the language and modified it for the local context.

CONCLUSION

In view of the many diverse social contexts of EIL learning and use, as well as the research findings cited above, what principles should inform a socially sensitive EIL pedagogy? The following are some key principles.

EIL curricula should include examples of the diversity of English varieties used today.

Recent research has documented the diversity of English use today, illustrating both the regularity of these varieties and the manner in which they are a source of personal and

social identity. In light of this diversity, a socially sensitive EIL pedagogy needs to first of all afford equal status to all varieties of English and second, promote an awareness of variation in English use. Which particular varieties are dealt with will depend on the local context. Promoting an awareness of the varieties of English spoken today may enhance learners' receptive skills in processing different varieties of English and promote an awareness that English, as an international language, no longer belongs solely to speakers of the "Inner Circle." Recognition of the hybridity and fluidity of modern day English use will afford full status to second language speakers of the language. At the same time, the fact that in most formal learning contexts a standard written English variety is taught will ensure a basic commonality in the use of English.

EIL professionals should strive to alter language policies that serve to promote English learning only among the elite of the country.

In many countries we have seen how those with privilege are most likely to have access to English learning. It is often those who have both the economic resources and time for language learning who gain proficiency in English. To avoid English fluency contributing to a greater economic divide, educational leaders and planners need to establish policies that afford English access to learners of all economic backgrounds. This may well mean establishing more government-funded opportunities for English learning for all citizens. In contexts in which gaining proficiency in English may threaten mother tongue use and development, English programs should be established in such a way that the local language is fully supported.

EIL curricula need to exemplify L2/L2 interactions.

Given that the majority of English interactions today are among L2 speakers, EIL curricula need to include far more examples of L2/L2 English interactions. Including examples of actual L2/L2 interactions will be beneficial in two ways. First, it will create an awareness that one important value of English is that it allows individuals to communicate across a great variety of geographical and cultural boundaries and not merely with speakers from Inner Circle countries. Second, including actual examples of L2/L2 interactions can provide a context for discussing various means by which individuals can seek clarification and establish relationships when they may have gaps in their knowledge of English.

Full recognition needs to be given to the other languages spoken by English speakers.

For too long a good deal of ELT pedagogy has been informed by an English-only discourse. Yet often bilingual speakers of English have a rich linguistic repertoire which they use to signal their personal identity and social relationships. Code switching is an important means by which they do this. Encouraging code-switching in EIL classrooms is beneficial in that it will provide both equal status to all of the languages learners speak and a context for students to investigate reasons for code switching. And most importantly it allows for a discretionary use of the first language as a means of developing proficiency in English.

EIL should be taught in a way that respects the local culture of learning.

In many instances globalization has led to the introduction of materials and methods that are not in keeping with the local culture of learning. When this occurs, local teachers may be placed in a situation in which their credibility as competent teachers is challenged because they do not know about some aspect of Western culture that appears in a textbook, or they are encouraged to use group work when this is not in keeping with typical student roles. Local teachers are the ones most familiar with local expectations regarding the roles of teachers and learners. They are also familiar with the manner in which English is used in the local context. Because of this, they are in a strong position to design a pedagogy that respects the local culture of learning.

In summary, it is clear that present-day globalization, migration, and the spread of English have resulted in a great diversity of social and educational contexts in which English learning is taking place. Because English is an international language, effective pedagogical decisions and practices cannot be made without giving special attention to the many varied social contexts in which English is taught and learned. An appropriate EIL pedagogy is one that promotes English bilingualism for learners of all backgrounds, recognizes and validates the variety of World Englishes that exist today, and teaches English in a manner that meets local language needs and respects the local culture of learning.

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CHAPTER 2

Reflective Pedagogy

Kathleen M. Bailey

INTRODUCTION

In general, *reflective pedagogy* refers to the idea that professionals carefully evaluate their own work, seeking to understand their motives and rationales as well as their practice, and then try to improve upon their work. It is a stance toward educational professionalism that can be taken by teachers, curriculum and materials developers, test designers, program administrators, and so on. Here we will focus specifically on reflective teaching.

This chapter addresses the following questions about reflective pedagogy. How is reflective pedagogy defined? How does one develop the practice of reflective pedagogy? How do teachers carry out reflective teaching? What are the advantages and disadvantages of adopting a reflective stance to our teaching practices? The chapter will also summarize some findings of an international survey of over a thousand language teachers, about their experience with several reflective teaching procedures and the appeal those various practices hold for them.

BACKGROUND

The concept of *reflective teaching* was popularized in general education before it became widespread in language education. In the former context, one widely cited definition of *reflective teaching* comes from Cruickshank and Applegate (1981): "the teacher's thinking about what happens in classroom lessons, and thinking about alternative means of achieving goals or aims" (p. 554). For first-language educators Zeichner and Liston (1996), the concept involves more influence of the social context. In their view, *reflective teaching* is "a recognition, examination, and rumination over the implications of one's beliefs, experiences, attitudes, knowledge, and values as well as the opportunities and constraints provided by the social conditions in which the teacher works" (p. 6).

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In language teaching, a widely cited definition of *reflective teaching* comes from Richards and Lockhart (1994). They say that in reflective teaching "teachers and student teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assnmptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (p. 1). This definition emphasizes collecting data. Here we will define *data* as records of events (Bateson 1972). Such records need not be quantified. They can include video recordings, audio recordings, teachers' journal entries, lesson plans, samples of students' work, and so on.

Taking a reflective approach to pedagogy involves both the actions discussed by Richards and Lockhart (1994) and a particular attitude, or set of attitudes, toward our work. Three key attitudes are said to be necessary to carrying out a reflective teaching practice (Dewey 1933): (1) open-mindedness, (2) responsibility, and (3) wholeheartedness. We will examine each in turn.

Open-mindedness, according to Zeichner and Liston (1996), is "an active desire to listen to more sides than one, to give full attention to alternative possibilities, and to recognize the possibility of error even in beliefs that are dearest to us" (p. 10). Open-minded teachers "carefully consider" the rationales that underlie what is taken as natural and right" (ibid.). These authors believe that "an open-minded individual listens to and accepts the strengths and weaknesses of his or her own and others' perspective" (ibid.).

An attitude of responsibility "involves careful consideration of the consequences to which an action leads" (ibid.). It must also include "reflection about the unexpected outcomes of teaching because teaching, even under the best of conditions, always involves unintended as well as intended outcomes" (ibid.). According to Zeichner and Liston (1996), being responsible "involves thinking about at least three kinds of consequences of one's teaching: (1) personal consequences – the effects of one's teaching on pupil self-concepts; (2) academic consequences – the effects of one's teaching on pupils' intellectual development; and (3) social and political consequences – the projected effects of one's teaching on the life chances of various pupils" (p. 11).

The third attitude Dewey identified as essential to reflective teaching is wholeheartedness. Zeichner and Liston (1996) say that wholehearted teachers "regularly examine their own assumptions and beliefs and the results of their actions, and approach all situations with the attitude that they can learn something new" (p. 11). Thus, Dewey's (1933) views have profoundly influenced teacher educators' current views of reflective pedagogy.

KEY ISSUES

In this section we will examine key issues regarding reflective teaching. These include the dimensions of reflection, the phases involved in developing reflective pedagogy, and the results of a survey of over a thousand language teachers worldwide with regard to their experiences with and the appeal of various reflective teaching practices. This section will close with a brief discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of using reflective teaching.

MODELS OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING

In first language education, the work of Schön (1987) has been very influential. He distinguished between reflection-*in*-action and reflection-*on*-action. The former occurs while we are teaching, and the latter occurs before or after our teaching while we are planning lessons, marking papers, etc.

1. RAPID REFLECTION	Immediate and automatic Reflection-in-Action
2. REPAIR	Thoughtful Reflection-in-Action
3. REVIEW	Less formal Reflection-on-Action at a particular point in time
4. RESEARCH	More systematic Reflection-on-Action over a period of time
5. RETHEORIZING and REFORMULATING	Long-term Reflection-on-Action informed by public academic theories

Table 2.1 Dimensions of reflection (Adapted from Zeichner and Liston 1996, p. 47, copyright Lawrence Erlbaum, used by permission.)

Zeichner and Liston (1996) divided Schön's two concepts into five dimensions of reflective teaching. The first two are types of reflection-in-action while the last three are types of reflection-on-action. These are shown in Table 2.1.

The first dimension, *rapid reflection* involves immediate and automatic reflection-in-action. Repair can happen very rapidly, almost at an out-of-awareness level. For instance, if a teacher feels a student has responded to a question so quietly that the other students could not hear the answer, the teacher may move away from the speaker and say, "Please repeat that idea louder so your classmates can hear better." This choice is practically automatic. It does not involve a great deal of thought to make the decision.

Repair consists of thoughtful reflection-in-action. That is, while we are teaching, we are aware that some adjustment may be needed, and we think about what to do. For example, in setting up a group work task, an ESL teacher may realize, "Oh! Maria is absent today. I was going to pair her with Kyung Sim, so I wouldn't have two Korean speakers in the same pair." At this point the teacher might rethink earlier pair decisions to try to create dyads whose members do not share a common first language.

The next three dimensions are all components of reflection-on-action. *Review* is less formal reflection-on-action which occurs at a point in time before or after a lesson. It is "often interpersonal and collegial" (Zeichner and Liston 1996, 46). In *review*, teachers think about, discuss, or write about their teaching or the students' learning (e.g., discussing a class with a colleague or writing a student's progress report).

The fourth dimension is *research*. It is a more systematic type of reflection-on-action which involves a long-term process of collecting data over a period of time. Examples of this dimension include conducting action research or keeping a diary of one's teaching. In this dimension, "Teachers' thinking and observation become more systematic and sharply focused around particular issues" (ibid.).

The final dimension in Zeichner and Liston's (1996) model is called *retheorizing and reformulating*. It entails long-term reflection-on-action informed by public academic theories. In this dimension, teachers critically examine their practical theories in the light of academic theories. These processes are "more abstract and more rigorous than the other dimensions" (ibid.). *Retheorizing and reformulating* can continue for years. This dimension involves making connections to others' work, and may involve attending conferences, reading professional books and academic journals, and so on.

PHASES OF DEVELOPING REFLECTIVE PEDAGOGY

How does one develop the practice of reflective pedagogy? In a study of six experienced teachers, Stanley (1998) identified five phrases of reflective teaching:

1. *Engaging with reflection* involves choosing to begin some kind of reflective practice.
2. *Thinking reflectively* entails going beyond simply recalling what happened in a lesson.
3. *Using reflection* is a stage in which "teachers begin to sort out the forms and feelings of the process that are most beneficial to their practice" (p. 587).
4. *Sustaining reflection* over time involves continuing to reflect "in forms that are workable without abandoning a commitment to the development of a reflective practice and to a continuing investigation of the difficult findings" (p. 588).
5. *Practicing reflection* is a phase in which teachers "develop frameworks and procedures for continuing reflective thinking than leads to reflective action in their classrooms" (p. 588).

Thus Stanley's 1998 report provides a conceptual framework for describing the various phases that teachers may experience in developing their own reflective practices. But she points out that these phrases are not linear: At "certain points in time, given personal and contextual circumstances, teachers may find themselves in any of the phases" (p. 585).

LANGUAGE TEACHERS' REFLECTIVE PRACTICES

How do teachers carry out reflective teaching? If we accept the Richards and Lockhart (1994) definition, doing so entails three components: (1) collecting data about one's teaching; (2) using those data to examine one's "attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices" (p. 1); and (3) using the resulting information "as a basis for critical thinking" about one's teaching (ibid.). As noted above, the data collection process can take many forms, so long as some record of events is made. Given this definition, reflective teaching procedures can take many forms, including saving and making notations on our lesson plans, videotaping or audio taping our lessons, keeping a teaching journal, writing a blog about our teaching, and so on.

In a survey of over 1,100 language teachers, Springer and Bailey (2006) asked respondents to rate both their experiences with and the appeal of 18 different procedures for doing reflective teaching. Both constructs (experience and appeal) were rated on a nine-point Likert scale. The possible range of the experience ratings was from *never* (1) to *very frequently* (9), and the possible range of the appeal ratings was from *not at all appealing* (1) to *very appealing* (9). The means and standard deviations of these teachers' responses are shown in table 2.1. (For all items on the questionnaire, the number of respondents was at least 1,100.)

It is interesting to note that in every case, the average appeal ratings are higher than the average experience ratings. This finding may suggest that these respondents are open to the various ideas of how to carry out reflective pedagogy, even if they had not had personal experience with the particular procedures.

The respondents were also asked which three procedures they would suggest if a colleague asked them how to get started on reflective teaching. The five most frequently suggested procedures were (1) observing other teachers, (2) discussing our teaching with respected colleagues, (3) collecting and reviewing students' feedback, (4) being observed, and (5) making notes on our lesson plans. We can see that each of these practices is "low tech" in nature and does not require much formal training or other types of preparation.

Procedure	Experience		Appeal	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Making notes on our lesson plans	6.11	2.24	6.96	2.14
Getting feedback from our students	6.51	2.37	7.17	2.05
Discussing teaching with colleagues	6.87	1.91	7.69	1.62
Observing other teachers' lessons	5.04	2.38	7.10	2.04
Being observed by colleagues	4.07	2.36	5. 97	2.38
Andio-recording our lessons	2.35	2.08	4.40	2.71
Video-recording our lessons	2.82	2.22	5.07	2.72
Making entries in a teaching journal	3.54	2.51	5.19	2.70
Compiling a teaching portfolio	5.96	2.81	6.82	2.46
Posting materials on a Web site	2.87	2.68	5.11	2.87
Reading cases about teaching	6.08	2.42	6.83	2.20
Writing cases about teaching	2.80	2.40	4.88	2.74
Conducting action research	3.95	2.73	5.97	2.71
Language learning experiences	7.04	2.19	7.86	1.65
Team teaching with a colleagne	4.62	2.74	6.31	2.39
Being mentored by other teachers	4.55	2.64	6.92	2.23
Mentoring other teachers	5.39	2.87	7.06	2.10
Reciprocal coaching with other teachers	3.09	2.73	5.82	2.65

Note: Means and standard deviations (SD) are based on a 9-point Likert scale.

Table 2.1 Reflective teaching survey responses

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PRACTICING REFLECTIVE TEACHING

What are the advantages and disadvantages of practicing reflective pedagogy? There are really only two disadvantages. The first is that if we adhere to the Richards and Lockhart definition (1994), which states that data collection is a necessary component, reflective teaching can be time-consuming. Second, we can discover uucomfortable information about our own work when we practice reflective teaching.

In contrast, the advantages are more numerous. First, engaging in reflective teaching can make us more aware of what we actually do. Awareness is important because, as Freeman (1989) has noted, it is one of four constituents of teaching (along with attitudes, knowledge, and skills). Second, reflective teaching can promote collegial sharing if the data are collected in professional development contexts involving other teachers, such as

team teaching, coaching, or mentoring situations (see, e.g., Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan 2004). Third, to the extent that we act on the insights gained through reflection, we can actually improve our teaching. Fourth, gaining insights and improving our practice may help experienced teachers overcome burnout (Maslach 1982). Fifth, reflecting on our work can actually affirm our current practice (or parts of it). Finally, Zeichner and Liston's (1996) fifth dimension of reflective teaching, retheorizing and reformulating, can help us make connections between theory and practice.

CONCLUSION

This chapter began with some definitions of reflective teaching, among which the one by Richards and Lockhart (1994) was selected as a springboard for discussion. We considered Dewey's (1933) three key attitudes for being reflective: open-mindeduess, responsibility, and wholeheartedness. Next we reviewed Zeichner and Liston's (1996) model of five dimensions of reflective teaching, borrowed from L1 teacher education, and then we considered Stanley's (1998) five phases in the development of teachers' reflective practice. Some findings from Springer and Bailey's (2006) survey of international language teachers were then examined before we considered the advantages and disadvantages of practicing reflective teaching.

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CHAPTER 3

~~Learner~~er-Centered Teaching

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INTRODUCTION

The idea that language teachers should know their students well and be responsive to their needs and preferences in language learning is now part and parcel of every teacher's basic training. This was not always the case, however, and even the idea that teachers should think of their students as language *learners* is a relatively new one in the history of language teaching. At the core of much present-day thinking on language teaching lies the idea of learner-centeredness, which is broadly understood here as a focus on learners and learning in language teaching, as opposed to a focus ou language and instruction.

This chapter summarizes insights from key work in the area of learner-centered teaching from the 1970s up to the present day. It identifies how learner-centered teaching is related to learner diversity in the language classroom and to recent widespread interest in autonomy in language learning. It discusses a distinction between "learner-focused" teaching and "learner-directed" learning within the idea of learner-centeredness. The chapter concludes by outlining a number of practical principles underlying learner-centered teaching.

BACKGROUND

Learner-centered teaching is a broad educational concept that originated in fundamental changes in thinking about curriculum planning and pedagogy in the 1970s and 1980s (Nunan 1988). These are best summed up in terms of a shift in the focus of language education research and practice from language and linguistics to language learners and language learning that began in the 1960s with the development of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics and continued through the 1970s and 1980s with the establishment of "second language acquisition" as the key research concept in the field (Ellis 1994). Earlier recommendations on language teaching methodology were largely based on analysis of language forms and structures and assumptions about the best order in which to teach them.

The learner-centered approach involved a shift away from a subject-centered view of language education, which views language learning as the mastery of a fixed body of words and grammatical structures, toward a view that emphasized the acquisition of language skills, participation in communicative processes and the construction of language knowledge.

The idea of learner-centeredness is explored in key works by Nunan (1988), Tarone and Yule (1989), and Tudor (1993, 1996). It can also be used as a cover term to describe a variety of related pedagogical approaches and ideas that emerged during the 1970s and 1980s, including communicative and humanistic language teaching, the process or negotiated curriculum, needs analysis, self-assessment and learner training, and ideas, such as individual differences, motivation, affect, learning styles and preferences, learning strategies, autonomy, and self-directed learning. Taking this historical context as a starting point, the following section explores key issues in learner-centered teaching through two tensions: (1) a tension between learner-centered teaching as (a) a response to learner diversity and (b) a pedagogical imperative concerned with more effective teaching and learning; (2) a tension between (a) learner-focused teaching and (b) learner-directed learniug.

KEY ISSUES

LEARNER-CENTERED TEACHING AND LEARNER DIVERSITY

Wenden (2002, 32) commeuts that the rise of learner-ceuteredness in the 1970s "grew out of the recognition that language learners are diverse." This diversity now tends to be taken for granted, but it is worth taking the time to consider how this recognition came about. For much of the twentieth century, the major theoretical influences on language teaching methodology came from liuguistics and, in many parts of the world, theories of language teaching and learning continue to fall under the heading *applied linguistics*. Guides for language teachers also emphasized the proper organization of target language material and effective techniques to help students acquire languages step-by-step. Works such as Jespersen's 1904 *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (which was regularly reprinted into the 1960s), for example, had much to say about the forms and structures of language and effective methods of getting them across in the classroom, but very little about learners and the ways in which they learned. Indeed, language learners were rarely mentioned at all and, when they were mentioned, they were usually described as "pupils." Language learners were largely invisible in these guides and their invisibility largely reflected an assumption that language learning was a more or less automatic consequence of good language teaching (Benson 2005).

One of the niain factors that has changed this view has been the exponential growth in the number of language learners around the world that began in the early 1960s and has continued as a consequence of the expansion of institutionalized education, overseas study, voluntary and forced migration, business travel and tourism, and the development of global communication technologies. When Murray (1996) wrote of "tapestry of diversity" in language classrooms, she evidently had in mind the ways in which migration and overseas study have created culturally and linguistically diverse ESL classrooms in many parts of North America, Great Britain, and Australasia. But the global expansion of language education has also produced other kinds of diversity, involving factors such as age, social background, and language learning purposes. The fact that language learners are now visibly more diverse also draws attention to less visible aspects of diversity, such as motivations, affective orientations, learning styles and learning preferences, and prior learning experiences, with the consequence that there is now a tendency to foreground not only different types of learners, but also the "uniqueness of *individual* learners engaged in

SLA in different contexts" (Larsen-Freeman 2001, 24). Viewed as a response to this recognition of learner diversity, learner-centered teaching implies a rejection of a one-size-fits-all methodology in favor of more eclectic approaches that emphasize teachers' knowledge of their students and their ability to adapt teaching to their students' collective and individual needs (Tarone and Yule 1989).

LEARNER-CENTERED TEACHING AND EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING

The main justification for learner-centered teaching, however, is pedagogical and based on the argument that it leads to more effective learning for several reasons:

> It is sensitive to individual needs and preferences.
> It encourages construction of knowledge and meaning.
> It draws on and integrates language learning with students' life experiences.
> It generates more student participation and target-language output.
> It encourages authentic communication.
> It breaks down barriers between in-class and out-of-class learning.
> It opens up spaces for discussion of motivations, learning preferences, and styles.
> It encourages students to take more personal responsibility for their learning.
> It challenges the view that learning is equivalent to being taught.

Evidently, this also raises important questions about what "effective learning" really means. Nunan (1988, 3) makes the point that the learner-centered philosophy assumes that it is impossible to teach learners everything they need to know of a language in class. Class time should therefore be used to teach "those aspects of the language which the learners themselves deem to be the most urgently required, thus increasing surrender value and consequent student motivation." From the perspective of learner-centered teaching, therefore, effective learning is often viewed more in terms of personal relevance than in terms of reaching standards of proficiency set by others.

The tension between personal relevance and external proficiency requirements can also be a barrier to introducing learner-centered teaching into formal educational settings, where the range of legitimate second language knowledge can easily be narrowed down to what is needed in order to pass high stakes tests and examinations. In addition to acknowledging the need to "work with language learners as complex and varied human beings, not just in individual but also in social and cultural terms," therefore, the learner-centered perspective also foregrounds the idea that "language teaching is an educational endeavor which should seek to empower learners by enabling them to assume an informed and self-directive role in the pursuance of their language-related life goals" (Tudor 1996, xii).

LEARNER-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION VS. LEARNER-DIRECTED LEARNING

Like many approaches to language education, learner-centered teaching comes in both stronger and weaker flavors, which can be described by the terms *learner-focused teaching* and *learner-directed learning*. This distinction is based, in part, on differences of emphasis within the dual objectives of responding to diversity and empowering learners. Tudor (1996, 1), for example, observes that "language teaching will be more effective if teaching structures are made more responsive to the needs, characteristics and expectations of learners, and if learners are encouraged to play an active role in the shaping of their study program." These two conditions are, however, somewhat different in kind, especially if the learners' needs are assessed primarily by teachers, who respond to them by providing tailor-made materials and tasks. Learner-focused teaching, therefore, refers to teaching that is adapted

to or takes account of learners' needs and preferences, but does not necessarily involve the learners in the design of their own learning. Individualized programmed learning, in which learners are expected to work through tailor-made materials at their own pace, is an extreme example of learner-focused instruction and has been criticized for being materials-centered and for inhibiting rather than developing learner autonomy, or learners' capacity to control their own learning (Benson 2001, 11–12).

Learner-directed learning, on the other hand, implies learners' involvement in self-assessment of their objective and of their subjectively felt needs and in planning, monitoring, and evaluation of their learning. It also implies the development of autonomy as learners become more capable of directing their own learning, but not necessarily that the learning is entirely self-directed. Nunan (1988, 19), for example, argues that the major shift in the learner-centered perspective is from an institutionally prescribed curriculum to processes through which "curriculum development activities occur during the process of teaching and learning." Although Nunan advocates negotiation with learners, a learner-centered approach actually "places the burden for all aspects of curriculum development on the teacher" (p. 2). As learners may initially lack the capacity to make decisions about their learning, it is also up to the teacher to decide on the extent to which learners will be involved in decision-making processes, and how this involvement will increase as they become more experienced. A relatively strong version of the learner-centered teaching would, therefore, advocate a focus on the development of learner autonomy and, at least, a progressive shift in the balance of decision-making from teacher to student within a negotiated curriculum.

LEARNER-CENTEREDNESS IN PRACTICE

Nunan's (1988) *Learner-centered curriculum* was based on practical work, which Nunan describes in detail, in the Australian Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP). This work is a good example of how learner-centeredness can respond both to a culturally and linguistically diverse student population and to the particular needs and preferences of adults. Dam (1995), on the other hand, is an equally detailed account of similar practices applied to more homogeneous student populations in Danish secondary school English classes. Other accounts of systematic attempts to put learner-centered teaching into practice include

- the Autonomous Learning Modules (ALMS) at the University of Helsinki, Finland (Karlsson, Kjisik, and Nordlund 1997; Kjisik 2007),
- the RICH program at Hangzhou University, China (Ying 2007),
- the Talkbase program at the Asian Institute of Technology in Bangkok (Hall and Kenny 1988; Shaw 2008),
- a collaborative project between university researchers and secondary school modern languages teachers in Dublin, Ireland (Little, Ridley, and Ushioda 2003),
- a presessional English courses at the Victoria University of Wellington in New Zealand (Cotterall 2000),
- an innovative English for Academic Purposes program at the University of Edinburgh in Scotland (Lynch 2001), and
- and accounts of negotiation and learner-centered classroom decision-making in Breen and Littlejohn (2000).

Synthesizing insights from accounts of this kind, Benson (2003) outlined five main principles underlying learner-centered teaching for autonomy: (1) active involvement in

student learning, (2) providing optious and resources, (3) offering choices and decision-making opportunities, (4) supporting learners, and (5) encouraging reflection. In recent work on learner autonomy, the idea of learner-centered teaching has been reconceptualized as "pedagogy for autonomy," which, for Vieira et al. (2008), involves four main components: reflection, experimentation, self-regulation, and negotiation. They also suggest that both teachers and learners should "become analysts of their own practice and critical informers of the educational community" (p. 233). Because teachers typically work under constraints that limit their capacity to implement comprehensive pedagogies for autonomy, engagement with learner autonomy is often a matter of teachers "taking the first steps" (Dam 1995, 6) to experiment with pedagogical strategies for autonomy.

At the level of classroom practice, there are now a number of resonrce books containing lesson ideas and tasks for learner-centered teaching (Campbell and Kryszewska 1992; Deller 1990; Gardner and Miller 1996; Scharle and Szabó 2000). Campbell and Kryszewska (1992) is an interesting collection of tasks based on resources that students bring into class, while Deller (1990) describes tasks designed by learners themselves. Barfield and Nix (2003) and Skier and Kohyama (2006) are two useful collections of teachers' accounts of classroom-based initiatives to foster autonomy in Japan. Synthesizing work of this kind, I would argue that tasks and activities contribute to learner-centered teaching if they achieve one or more of the following goals:

- Give students more control over their learning
- Encourage them to make more choices and decisions
- Give them a more active role in constructing knowledge in the classroom
- Encourage more student-student iuteraction
- Allow students to take on teaching and assessment roles
- Encourage independent inquiry inside or outside the classroom
- Bring out-of-class knowledge and learning into the classroom
- Make learning more personally relevant to the students
- Encourage students to reflect on content and processes of teaching/learning
- Encourage students to prepare for active participation in class activities

Although this list is by no means exhaustive, it covers much of what learner-centered teachers report that they do.

One of the persistent questions about learner-centered teachiug concerns the extent to which it can really meet the needs, preferences, and interests of all of the students in a group or class. Iu the 1970s and 1980s advocates of learner-centeredness and autonomy distanced themselves from the idea of individualized learning. But in an interesting recent development, this link has been reconceptualized in the idea of "differentiated pedagogy," driven by "a shared understanding of learner as individual (teacher awareness) and self as learner (learner awareness)" (Coyle 2003, 168). The underlying principle is that differentiation does not mean providing tailor-made programs for each student in a class, but instead involves setting up resources and processes that allow learners to tailor-make tasks and programs for themselves. Lamb (2003), for example, describes a secondary school French / German classroom in the North of England in which units of work are organized to provide a range of learning opportunities around a particular topic, beginning with teacher-centered activities and moving into more self-managed learning when individuals are ready. At the beginning of each unit the students are given record sheets and begin by setting and recording targets for independent work. They are rewarded for achieving targets by a "gold slip." The teacher then introduces core language using communicative methods and the students begin to practice in small groups and individually. The students also use study plans to access a range of activities and resources appealing to a range of ability levels, learning styles and interests, which can number up to 150 for any single unit. Students assess their learning using answer sheets, choose homework activities individually, and at the end of each unit they attempt tests at one of three National Curriculum levels to confirm their self-assessments.

CONCLUSION

The term "learner-centered" is nowadays used less frequently than it was in past, partly because the idea that language teachers should view their students as people who are learning a foreign language, rather than passive receptacles for what they are teaching, is no longer a novelty. The idea of learner-centered teaching has also been subsumed within the growing literature on autonomy. It remains a useful notion, however, because autonomy is, strictly speaking, an educational goal. Although the term *pedagogy for autonomy* is sometimes used, it is learner-centered teaching, perhaps, that most transparently describes the processes of teaching that are most likely to lead to this goal. To sum np, learner-centered teaching centers classroom and curricnlum processes ou the needs, preferences and goals of individual learners and progressively involves them in negotiation and decision-making processes that affect their learning. As such, it can be considered an abiding nnderlyiug principle of the responses to diversity and pedagogical approaches and practices discussed later in this volume.

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CHAPTER 4

s-Centered Teaching: A Framework for
sroom Decision Making

. Senior

INTRODUCTION

Class-centered teaching is a sociopedagogic theoretical framework that emerged from a qualitative study of the beliefs, insights, and classroom practices of a range of experienced English teachers teaching in intensive language courses in various settings in an English-speaking country (Senior 1999, 2006a). The terms *being class-centered* or *behaving in class-centered ways* encompass myriad classroom behaviors that distinguish highly effective from *less* effective teachers. The term class-centered teaching (Senior 2002), is increasingly recognized by teacher educators as a useful way of encouraging all classroom language teachers – regardless of the approach that they use or the context within which they teach – to reflect upon, and where necessary to modify their teaching practices and the ways in which they manage their classes and relate to the students in them. Class-centered teaching resonates with experienced teachers, who report that the term encapsulates their own experience and provides affirmation of the ways that they intuitively behave in their classrooms (Senior 2009a, 2009b).

As its name suggests, class-centered teaching focuses on the overall class group, drawing attention to the fact that the classroom behavior of teachers is related to the quality of their class groups. All teachers are familiar with the notion that each class that they teach is unique – and that some classes are collectively more alert, responsive, and rewarding to teach than are others. While no teacher has classes that function in an optimal manner all the time, teachers who are alert to classroom "vibes" and who teach in ways that are effective both pedagogically and socially have a higher proportion of classes in which a critical mass of students behave in active, engaged, and goal-oriented ways than do teachers who focus narrowly on their teaching and who ignore the social context of the classroom. Teachers in the former category behave in *class-centered* ways.

After identifying key strands of classroom-based research that highlight the complex nature of classroom language teaching and learning, this chapter provides examples of practical issues routinely faced by language teachers. Having outlined the group dynamics principles that underpin the concept of class-centered teaching, the chapter proceeds to give an overview of how the class-centered framework is applied in practice.

BACKGROUND

Since a seminal article by Breen (1985) it has been increasingly accepted that language classrooms are multifaceted, constantly changing learning environments and that classroom language teaching and learning are complex processes involving interaction between an infinite number of personal, interpersonal, learning, pedagogic, and social variables. In 1996 van Lier suggested that language classrooms be regarded as complex adaptive systems, while a few years later both van Lier (2000) and Tudor (2001) promoted an ecological perspective that takes into account the total environment of the learner.

It is now widely accepted that teachers do not follow the principles and practices of established teaching methods, but use their intuitive ability and experiential knowledge to decide what works and what does not work in any given situation (Kumaravadivelu 2006). There is a significant body of research into the highly complex area of teacher classroom decision making that draws on various theories of the nature of expertise (Tsui 2003). There is also a well-established strand of research into teacher cognition, which involves seeking to understand the relationship between what language teachers think, know and believe, and what they actually do in their classrooms (Borg 2009).

The work of educational psychologists has established that the joint processes of teaching and learning are a good deal more complex than the traditional linear model, which assumes that specific teacher input will lead to predictable learning outcomes. It is now well recognized that each individual constructs his or her own reality and therefore learns different things in very different ways, even when provided with what seem to be very similar learning circumstances (Williams and Burden 1997, 2; Dörnyei 2005). Williams and Burden propose a social constructivist model of the teaching-learning process in which the learner(s), the teacher, the task, and the context interact with and affect each other in dynamic ways.

Since the 1970s classroom language teaching has been greatly influenced by humanistic psychology, which places the self at the centre of human learning and which proposes that education be more responsive to the affective needs of students (Dembo 1988). It is now widely accepted, in the fields of both general education and language teacher education that, since student learning involves feelings as well as cognition (Arnold 1999), it is desirable to seek to create supportive classroom climates in which students feel comfortable, accepted, and valued (Littlewood 1981; Candy 1991; Ormrod 2000; Arends 2004; Allwright and Hanks 2009).

Closely related to the notion of creating classroom environments that are supportive of student learning is the notion that myriad group processes – of both a positive and a negative nature – occur in all classrooms. Although this phenomenon has been well researched in the field of general education (Schmuck and Schmuck 2001), it was not until 1992 that Hadfield drew attention to the importance that classroom dynamics has for language teachers. There is now a useful book on group dynamics in the language classroom by Dörynei and Murphey (2003).

Many teacher educators have pointed to the ever-present gap between theory and practice (Ramani 1990; Richards and Nunan 1990; Widdowson 1990). As early as 1984 Widdowson warned of the danger of teachers depending on teaching techniques alone, without at the same time developing awareness of how technique relates to theoretical principles. Kumaravadivelu (2001, 541) argues for a pedagogy of practicality that aims for

a teacher-generated theory of practice, stating that in his view no theory of practice can be useful and usable unless it is generated through practice itself.

Class-centered teaching is congruent with the above trends in a number of respects. It takes the form of a theoretical framework that is grounded in the daily experience of classroom teachers. It is based on acceptance of the relationship between the overall classroom climate and student learning, and draws on well-established group dynamics principles. It fits within a social constructivist view of teaching and learning, providing teachers with a framework that allows them to make principled decisions as they go about their daily teaching.

KEY ISSUES

Questions that language teachers commonly ask themselves include the following: Should I be friendly toward my students or maintain my distance at all times? How should I deal with tricky individuals? How can I get students to participate more readily in group work? How can I motivate bored students? How tightly should I keep control of my class? What should I do when I see opposing factions developing within the class? How can I teach in more engaging ways? What should I do when I sense that a lesson is losing momentum? Should I laugh along with the class when something amusing happens? How can I best teach classes containing students from diverse national, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds? How can I best teach mixed-level classes?

The class-centered framework enables language teachers to develop their own answers to the above and many other similar questions.

GROUP DYNAMICS PRINCIPLES

Some of the key group dynamics principles upon which class-centered teaching is based include the following:

- In the early stage of their development groups go through a formation period in which members get to know one another and begin to develop shared understandings and relationships of openness, trust, and mutual respect. This stage is essential if groups are to evolve further.
- The overall goal(s) of the group must be clearly articulated and accepted by the group as a whole if the group is to develop and maintain cohesion.
- Challenging behavior is a natural part of the group development process, as members test others out and decide whether or not to respect and value them. Some individuals may seek to establish dominant positions within the group.
- Behavioral norms become established early in the life of the group. Although the assigned group leader plays a significant role in establishing and maintaining group norms, the development and maintenance of norms of behavior is most effective when it is a dynamic process involving the whole group.
- Once groups start to function cohesively, group members show support for and collaborate with each other as they work toward the achievement of the overall group goal(s).
- Groups that function cohesively have a powerful influence over group members, exerting pressure on individuals to conform to the behavioral norms of the overall group.

- The inward-focused behavior of subgroups or cliques can have a highly detrimental effect on the wellbeing of the overall group.
- Over time groups develop sets of shared understandings whose significance is recognized by group members but not by outsiders. Provided that groups are cohesive, their unique cultures serve to sustain the solidarity of the group.
- Leadership is not the sole prerogative of the group leader: any group member can assume a leadership role.
- Individual group members can play two distinct roles: group task roles (those that help the group progress toward the achievement of its objectives), and group maintenance roles (those that help the group to maintain a sense of togetherness). Both roles are important for the development and maintenance of class cohesion.
- There is a correlation between progress toward goals and cohesiveness: the more a group senses that it is collectively moving towards the achievement of its goals the more cohesive it becomes, while the more cohesive a group is the more easily it progresses toward its goals.
- When a group has worked together successfully for a length of time, it is common practice to indicate symbolically through a ceremony or special event that the group is about to disband. This allows group members to sever ties with the group and move on.

APPLYING THE CLASS-CENTERED FRAMEWORK

Teachers will naturally apply the class-centered framework in ways that are congruent with their personalities and preferred teaching styles, and that are appropriate for the classes that they teach and the personalities and priorities of the students within them. For a wealth of specific examples of how language teachers have addressed the issues outlined above see Senior (2006a, 79–227). This section will provide an overview of how the class-centered framework is applied in practice.

An essential starting point for teaching in class-centered ways is to develop a relationship with the class, so that students regard the teacher as someone who will guide and support them on their collective learning journey, rather than someone who will harass and hound them from the other side of a great divide. There are myriad ways of developing rapport with classes of language learners, ranging from basic strategies, such as learning students' names, to acknowledging the contributions of individuals in generous-minded ways (see Senior 2008 for a range of recommendations for developing rapport). Students very soon decide which teachers they respect and will work hard for, and which teachers they prefer to regard as "the enemy" (those who are off-putting in their demeanor and uncompromising in their behavior). If classes take a strong dislike to their teacher they may well become unified against their common foe – but such classes cannot be defined as cohesive. Class cohesion, the unspoken goal that underpins the classroom actions of all class-centered teachers, is a pervasive group feeling that includes everyone in the room, including the teacher.

In all classes, but particularly those containing learners from a range of national, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds who are strangers to one another at the start of the course, it is important to set up learning tasks that require students to interact with a range of classmates during the first few lessons. These tasks give the teacher the opportunity both to gain an overall impression of the students' linguistic levels and to start to identify individual personalities within the class. They may even notice subtle behavioral indicators

of potential trouble-spots within the class, such as certain students being reluctant to fraternize with others. (This might lead the teacher to monitor closely the behavior of specific individuals further down the track.) Most crucially of all, tasks that require students to mingle with their classmates encourage students to begin to regard others as "members of our class," rather than as "those students over there" (strangers sitting on the other side of the room).

The early days of courses provide teachers with a onetime opportunity to establish classroom routines and desirable codes of behavior. Aware of the potentially threatening nature of learning a new language, class-centered teachers aim to create overall classroom atmospheres within which students feel comfortable and supported. Many go out of their way to explain that making mistakes is a natural part of the learning process, ensuring that students understand that respect for others is paramount and that while "laughing with" may be appropriate, "laughing at" is not. Class-centered teachers ensure that once codes of behavior have been established (preferably after discussion and agreement with their classes), these are maintained throughout courses. Teachers seek to maintain these codes, however, in low-key ways, conscious of the fact that students who are chastised harshly or in ways that they consider unjust are likely to become disgruntled and upset the equilibrium of the class. Interestingly, once classes have begun to function cohesively students will often pull their classmates into line, telling them to be quiet when the teacher is talking, for example.

Teachers play multiple roles in their classrooms. As teachers they are responsible for all pedagogic aspects of their classes: planning lessons, selecting learning materials, setting up learning tasks, modeling linguistic forms, providing explanations, and so on. Class-centered teachers recognize that learning tasks have the potential to function in two quite different ways: not only enhancing learning (the official, well-recognized function of learning tasks), but also providing opportunities for their classes to develop a spirit of social cohesion (the unofficial but no less important function of learning tasks). A commonly used learning task such as "brainstorming," with its plenary session in which the ideas of individuals or groups of students are shared with the class as a whole, draws classes together and affirms that more can be achieved collectively than individually. Brainstorming also gives lower-profile students the opportunity to contribute to whole-class learning, a practice that can significantly enhance their self-esteem and commitment to learning. Even traditional tasks such as checking the answers to grammar exercises can be conducted in ways that give individuals the feeling that that their input is valued (if they give a valid reason for an incorrect answer that is then discussed, for example). See Senior (2002) for a description of a range of tasks that can fulfill both learning and social functions, and Senior (2005b) for a fuller description of the benefits of brainstorming.

If group processes that enhance learning are to occur, teachers need to behave in flexible ways. While their prime goal is to teach effectively, their subsidiary goal is to give their classes the best possible chance of evolving into effective learning communities. Achievement of these twin goals requires teachers to move seamlessly between their traditional pedagogic roles and their more fluid roles as class group members. The latter role involves teachers reacting spontaneously to some of the many classroom events that add color and human interest to the collective learning experience. They might, for example, laugh along with everyone else when something untoward happens – and perhaps make a comment that shows they are on the same wavelength as their students – before refocusing class attention on the learning task. Stevick (1980, 28) describes the facility of effective language teachers to move into and out of contrasting roles as their ability to come out from behind their "Teacher masks" and put on their "Ordinary Person masks." Donning an ordinary person mask, even for a few moments, lubricates the classroom atmosphere and reinforces the notion that a spirit of camaraderie exists within the class as a whole.

Relationships within classes seldom develop overnight, and cannot be forced. Sometimes the presence of individuals or cliques with strong personal agendas, entrenched attitudes or interpersonal, inter- or intra-cultural tensions means that a prevailing spirit of social harmony fails to develop. However, once social processes of a group-enhancing nature begin to occur there is often a snowball effect, with peripheral class members being gradually drawn in and becoming increasingly committed to the class group. It can also happen that students with leadership qualities who may initially behave in obstructive ways (such as persistently asking inappropriate questions or leading classmates astray at the back of the room) unexpectedly change their tune and begin to channel their energies in group-enhancing directions, such as giving weaker students a helping hand. However, this transformation can only happen if the teacher recognizes that students can play leadership roles alongside themselves, gives them a degree of freedom to do so, and provides positive feedback in the form of a quick "thank you" or smile and nod of the head when a student takes the initiative.

The variety of roles that students play in language classrooms is infinite. All teachers recognize certain student types: the dormouse, the late arriver, the scatterbrain, and so on. Class members naturally get to know things about each other: who is talkative and noisy, who regularly gets good marks, who regularly stretches the teacher's patience, and so on. Class-centered teachers sense that they can use student characteristics to develop a sense of friendly intimacy within their class groups. Gradually, each class evolves its unique culture based on common knowledge of classroom personalities, shared understandings of how things are done, and an ongoing collective memory of classroom activities or events that have affirmed that a sense of camaraderie exists within the class. Gentle teasing is surprisingly common in language classes – although teachers must tread a careful line since intimacy can go too far, and some students may not take kindly to being the butt of class jokes. Other students, however, enjoy being the focal point of class attention and take pleasure in sustaining their reputations.

However strong their overall group spirit, the collective energy of classes can easily flag, either during lessons or as courses progress. Class-centered teachers know that there are many ways in which student interest can be reengaged – by restructuring an activity in a novel way, introducing an enlivening filler activity, giving the class a short break to re-charge its collective batteries and so on. There is always the danger, of course, that classroom atmospheres that appear cohesive are not as cohesive as their teachers believe them to be. For a discussion of this and other issues relating to the complex construct of class cohesion, see Senior 1999, 374–397 or Senior 2006a, 209–212.

CONCLUSION

In sum, class-centered teaching is based on the premise that the quality of the overall class group is related to the quality of the teaching and learning that occurs within it. It focuses teacher attention on group dynamics and on the ways in which their own classroom behavior impacts on the social evolution of their class groups. It encourages flexible teacher behavior so that group processes that enhance learning can be initiated and sustained within classrooms.

It should be noted that class-centered teaching is neither a teaching method nor an approach. Rather, it is a framework for understanding the nature of effective classroom teaching that enables professionally minded teachers to reflect on their practice and to adapt or modify their classroom behavior with a view to enhancing class solidarity and student engagement, thus making language teaching a more satisfying and rewarding endeavor.

Preliminary evidence suggests that the construct of class-centered teaching may be a useful means of enabling language teachers in a wider range of educational contexts to reflect upon their classroom decision making and their current teaching practices. See Senior (2010, 175–178) for a discussion of the possible relevance of the framework for locally trained teachers teaching in educational contexts within the Asian region.

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CHAPTER 5

:nce and Performance
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INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the knowledge, beliefs, and skills that language teachers make use of in their practice. The focus is on the understandings and practices of those teachers who would generally be regarded by their peers as exemplary language teaching professionals. Such teachers are easily recognized, but what distinguishes the way they understand and approach their work? In trying to answer this question 10 qualities or characteristics of exemplary language teachers will be examined in an attempt to conceptualize the nature of competence, expertise, and professionalism in language teaching. At the same time it is recognized that the nature of effectiveness in teaching is not always easy to define because conceptions of good teaching differ from culture to culture (Tsui 2009). In some cultures a good teacher is one who controls and directs learners and who maintains a respectful distance between the teacher and the learners. Teaching is viewed as a teacher-controlled and -directed process. In other cultures the teacher is viewed more as a facilitator. The ability to form close interpersonal relations with students is highly valued and there is a strong emphasis on individual learner creativity and independent learning. Notwithstanding the reality of culturally determined understandings of good teaching, this chapter focuses on those dimensions of teacher knowledge and skill that seem to be at the core of expert teacher competence and performance in language teaching, at least from the perspective of a "western" understanding of teaching.

1. THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY FACTOR

Most of the world's English teachers are not native speakers of English and it is not necessary to have a nativelike command of a language in order to teach it well (Canagarajah 1999).

The issue is, how much of a language does one need to know to be able to teach it effectively, and how does proficiency in a language interact with other aspects of teaching (Bailey, 2006; Kamhi-Stein 2009)? To answer these questions it is necessary to consider the language-specific competencies a language teacher needs in order to teach effectively. These include the ability to provide good language models, to maintain use of the target language in the classroom, to give correct feedback on learner language, and to provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty. Learning how to carry out these aspects of a lesson fluently in English is an important dimension of teacher learning for those whose mother tongue is not English. For these teachers as well as those who *are* native speakers of English, other discourse skills will also need to be acquired – skills that enable the teacher to manage classroom discourse so that it provides opportunities for language learning.

There appears to be a threshold language proficiency level a teacher needs to have reached in the target language in order to be able to teach effectively. In some countries education departments set benchmark standards for their nonnative English teachers to meet in order to be able to teach English. A teacher who has not reached a threshold level of proficiency in English will be more dependent on teaching resources (e.g., textbooks) and less likely to be able to engage in improvisational teaching (Medgyes 2001). Apart from the contribution to teaching skills that language proficiency makes, research has also shown that a language teacher's confidence is also dependent upon his or her own level of language proficiency, so a teacher who perceives herself to be weak in the target language will have reduced confidence in her teaching ability and an inadequate sense of professional legitimacy (Seidlhofer 1999). Hence, research into teachers' views of their needs for professional development have often identified the need for further language training as a high priority (Lavender 2002).

2. THE ROLE OF CONTENT KNOWLEDGE

A central issue in second language teacher-education concerns what the content knowledge or subject matter of language teaching is, and consequently the question of what it is that teachers need to know in order to reach their full potential as language teachers. Content knowledge refers to what teachers need to know about what they teach (rather than what they know about teaching itself) and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared with teachers of other subject areas. Traditionally the content knowledge of language teaching has been drawn from the discipline of applied linguistics, which generated the body of specialized academic knowledge and theory represented in the curricula of MA TESOL programs.

Two kinds of content knowledge need to be distinguished: *disciplinary knowledge* and *pedagogical content knowledge*. Disciplinary knowledge refers to a circumscribed body of knowledge that is considered to be essential to gaining membership of the language teaching profession. Disciplinary knowledge is part of professional education and does not translate into practical skills. When language teaching emerged as an academic discipline in the 1960s, this disciplinary knowledge was largely drawn from the field of linguistics, but today it encompasses a much broader range of content. For example, it could include the history of language teaching methods, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, phonology and syntax, discourse analysis, theories of language, critical applied linguistics, and so on.

Pedagogical content knowledge, on the other hand, refers to knowledge that provides a basis for language teaching. It is knowledge that is drawn from the study of language teaching and language learning itself and that can be applied in different ways to the resolution of practical issues in language teaching. It could include course work in areas, such as

curriculum planning, assessment, reflective teaching, classroom management, teaching children, teaching the four skills and so on. The *Teacher Knowledge Test* developed by Cambridge ESOL is an example of a recent attempt to provide a basis in relevant pedagogical content knowledge for entry-level teachers.

A sound grounding in relevant pedagogical content knowledge should prepare teachers to be able to understand learners' needs, diagnose learning problems, plan suitable instructional goals for lessons, select and design learning tasks, and evaluate and choose published materials. Teachers with relevant content knowledge should consequentially be able to make better and more appropriate decisions about teaching and learning and to arrive at more appropriate solutions to problems than a teacher without such knowledge.

3. TEACHING SKILLS

The initial challenge for novice teachers is to acquire the basic classroom skills needed to present and navigate their lessons. Teaching from this perspective is an act of performance, and teachers need a repertoire of techniques and routines, including routines and procedure and for such things as opening the lesson, introducing and explaining tasks, setting up learning arrangements, checking students' understanding, guiding student practice, making transitions from one task to another and ending the lesson. The term "teacher training" refers to instruction in basic classroom skills such as these, often linked to a specific teaching context. Training involves the development of a repertoire of teaching skills, acquired through observing experienced teachers and often through practice teaching in a controlled setting using activities such as microteaching or peer teaching. Over time, experience is said to lead to the development of routines that enable these kiuds of skills to be performed fluently, automatically and with less conscious thought and attention, enabling the teacher's to focus on other dimensions of the lesson (Tsui 2009; Borg 2006).

This view of the process of teaching has been extended through research on teacher cognition (Borg 2006, 2009). Concepts such as teacher decision making introduce a cognitive dimension to the notion of skills, since each "skill" involves the teacher in engaging in sophisticated processes of observation, reflection, and assessment, and making online decisions about which course of action to take from a range of alternatives that are available. As teachers accumulate experience and knowledge there is thus a move toward a degree of flexibility in teaching and the development of what is sometimes called "improvisational teaching."

So while learning to teach from the perspective of skill development can be thought of as the mastery of specific teaching competencies, at the same time these reflect complex levels of thinking and decision making, and it is these cognitive processes that also need to be the focus of teacher training.

4. CONTEXTUAL KNOWLEDGE

Language teachers teach in many different contexts and in order to function in those contexts need to acquire the appropriate contextual knowledge that will enable, for example, an Australian teacher to learn how to be an effective teacher in China or vice versa, or a Singapore teacher how to be an effective EFL teacher in Japan. Different contexts for teaching create different potentials for learning that the teacher must come to understand. Teaching involves understanding the dynamics and relationships within the classroom and the rules and behaviors specific to a particular setting. Learning to teach involves

understanding the dynamics and relationships within the classroom and the rules and behaviors specific to a particular setting. Schools have their own ways of doing things. In some schools, textbooks are the core of the curriculum and teachers follow a prescribed curriculum. In others, teachers work from course guidelines and implement them as they see fit. In some institutions there is a strong sense of professional commitment and teachers are encouraged to cooperate with each other. In others, teachers work in relative isolation. This is reflected in many different aspects of the way the school functions (Cooke and Simpson 2008).

The notion of "context" here is hence a very broad one, since it includes issues such as the school's goals and mission, its management style and "school culture," its physical resources, including classroom facilities, media, and other technological resources, the curriculum and course offerings, the role of textbooks and tests, as well as the characteristics of teaches and learners in the school.

Teaching in a school thus involves induction to a community of practice (see 9, below). Learning to teach involves becoming socialized into a professional culture with its own goals, shared values, and norms of conduct. This "hidden curriculum" is often more powerful than the school's prescribed curriculum and teacher-learning involves learning to teach within the constraints of the hidden curriculum.

5. THE LANGUAGE TEACHER'S IDENTITY

One of the things a person has to learn when he or she becomes a language teacher is what it *means* to be a language teacher. Identity refers to the differing social and cultural roles teacher-learners enact through their interactions with their students during the process of learning (Miller 2009). These roles are not static but emerge through the social processes of the classroom. Identity may be shaped by many factors, including personal biography, gender, culture, working conditions, age, and the school and classroom culture. The concept of identity thus reflects how individuals see themselves and how they enact their roles within different settings.

Native-speaker and nonnative-speaker teacher-learners may bring different identities to teacher learning and to teaching. For many ESL teachers their identity may partly reflect their wish to empower immigrants, refugees, and others for whom English is way out of their current circumstances (Cooke and Simpson 2008). Untrained native speakers teaching EFL overseas face a different identity issue: they are sometimes credited with an identity they are not really entitled to (the native-speaker-as-expert syndrome), finding that they have a status and credibility which they would not normally achieve in their own country. (In some parts of Asia high school graduates from the US can find jobs teaching English and are given the status of "experts," much to the chagrin of the experienced local teachers). Teacher learning thus involves not only discovering more about the skills and knowledge of language teaching but also what it means to be a language teacher.

6. LEARNER-FOCUSED TEACHING

While teaching can be viewed as a type of teacher performance, the goal of teaching is to facilitate student learning. The extent to which the focus of a lesson is teacher rather than learner focused is reflected in the extent to which input from learners directs the shape and direction of the lesson, the quantity of student participation and interaction that occurs, the ability of the teacher to present subject matter from a learner's perspective, and how the lesson reflects learners' needs and preferences. These different perspectives on teaching

are seen in how two teachers responded to the question, "What constitutes an effective language lesson from your perspective?"

> *Teacher A*
> I believe the best lesson is a well-planned lesson. I find it much easier to teach when I have a detailed plan to follow. I find that I am more likely to use the time efficiently in the classroom if I know exactly what I will do and what I expect students to do during the lesson.

> *Teacher B*
> A good lessou for me is one where students learn something. I believe every child in my class has got the capacity to learn, even if he or she is not aware of it. Every learner is a winner. I try to encourage each student to discover what he or she is good at and to help them be successful at it.

It is natural when teachers first start teaching for them to be preoccupied with their own performance, to try to communicate a sense of confidence, competence and skill, and to try to create lessons that reflect purpose, order, and planning. Hence studies of teachers in their first year of teaching have revealed a transition from a survival and mastery stage where the teacher's performance is a central concern, to a later stage where teachers become more focused on their students' learning and the impact of their teaching on learning (Farrell 2009). The challenge is to make sure that such a transition occurs and that the teacher's initial teaching experiences do not lead to a style of teaching that sticks, one that provides a comfort zone for the teacher but that fails to provide learners with the opportunity to achieve their full potential as learners (Tudor 1996; Benson 2001).

Learner-centeredness as a characteristic of expert teachers is seen in some of the research Borg reviews (Borg 2006), where the characteristics of expert teachers include:

- they are familiar with typical student behaviors;
- they use their knowledge of learners to make predictions about what might happeu in the classroom;
- they build their lessons around students' difficulties;
- they maintain active student involvement.

Senior (2006) suggests that a central aspect of learner-focused teaching is creating a classroom that functions as a community of learners.

> It is sometimes forgotten that language classes operate as communities, each with its own collection of shared understandings that have been built up over time. The overall character of each language class is created, developed, and maintained by everyone in the room. (p. 200).

Effective teachers use different strategies to develop a sense of community among their learners, including using group-based activities, by addressing common student interests and concerns, by regularly changing seating arrangements so that students experience working with different classmates, by using humor and other ways of creating a warm and friendly classroom atmosphere, and by recognizing that students have social as well as learning needs in the classroom.

7. PEDAGOGICAL REASONING SKILLS

An important dimension of teaching is the teacher's pedagogical reasoning skills. Shulman (1987) described this ability as a process of transformation iu which the teacher turns the subject matter of instruction into forms that are pedagogically powerful and that are appropriate to the level and ability of the students. These are the special skills that enable English teachers to do the following:

- Analyze potential lesson content (e.g., a piece of realia, a text, an advertisement, a poem, a photo, etc.) and identify ways in which it could be used as a teaching resource
- Identify specific linguistic goals (e.g., in the area of speaking, vocabulary, reading, writing, etc.) that could be developed from the chosen content
- Anticipate any problems that might occur and ways of resolving them
- Make appropriate decisions about time, sequencing, and grouping arrangements

Experienced teachers use these skills every day when they plan their lessons, when they decide how to adapt lessons from their course book, and when they search the Internet and other sources for materials and coutent that they can use in their classes. It is one of the most fundamental dimensions of teaching, one that is acquired through experience, through accessing content knowledge, and through knowing what learners need to know and how to help them acquire it. While experience is crucial in developing pedagogical reasoning skills, working with more experienced teachers through shared planning, team teaching, observation, and other forms of collaboration can also play an important role in helping less experienced teachers understand the thinking processes employed by other, more experienced teachers.

8. THEORIZING FROM PRACTICE

Teacher development involves developing a deeper understanding of what teaching is, and developing ideas, concepts, theories, and principles based on our experience of teaching (Borg 2006). The development of a personal system of knowledge, beliefs and understandings drawn from the practical experience of teaching is known as the *theorizing of practice*. The belief system and understanding built up in this way helps teachers make sense of experience and also serves as the source of the practical actions they take in the classroom. The *theorizing of practice* involves reflecting on teaching experiences in order to better understand the nature of language teaching and learning. The theorizing that results from these reflections may take several different forms. It may lead to explanations as to why things happen in the way they do, to generalizations about the nature of things, to principles that can form the basis of subsequent actions, and to the development of a personal teaching philosophy (Richards 1998). The following are examples of teachers' theorizing from practice and arriving at explanations and generalizations:

> *Children are much better language learners than adults because they are not worried about making mistakes and are much more prepared to take risks.*

When we begin learning a language it's better to follow the natural way, using imitation. But when you are more advanced, then you need to know more about the grammar.

The essential thing in language learning is knowing how to say what you want to say but not why you have to say it in a particular way.

Teacher learning also involves developing principles and a teaching philosophy, as in the following example where a teacher describes some of the beliefs aud principles she brings to her teaching:

I think it's important to be positive as a personality. I think the teacher has to be a positive person. I think you have to show a tremendous amount of patience. And I think if you have a good attitude you can project this to the students and hopefully establish a relaxed atmosphere in your classroom so that the students won't dread to come to class but have a good class. I feel that it's important to have a lesson plan of some sort. Because you need to know what you want to teach and how you are going to go from the beginning to the end. And also taking into consideration the students, what there ability is, what their background is, and so on. I have been in situations where I did not understand what was being taught or what was being said, and how frustrating it is, and so when I approach it I say: how can I make it the easiest way for them to understand what they need to learn? (Richards 1998, 52)

Activities in which teachers articulate their theories, beliefs, and principles are an important component of professional development, and journal writing, narratives, discussion, and critical reflection can all be used for this purpose.

9. MEMBERSHIP OF A COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

Teacher development involves capitalizing on the potential for learning and growth that comes from participating in a community of teachers having shared goals, values, and interests. The school or the teaching context becomes a learning community and its members constitute a community of practice. A community of practice has two characteristics:

1. It involves a group of people who have common interests and who relate and interact to achieve shared goals.
2. It focuses on exploring and resolving issues related to the workplace practices that members of the community take part in.

Membership in a community of practice in a school provides opportunities for teachers to work and learn together through participation in group-oriented activities with shared goals and responsibilities, involving joint problem solving. Collegiality creates new roles for teacher, such as team leader, teacher trainer, mentor, or critical friend (Richards and Farrell 2005).

This collaboration can take a number of different forms (Johnston 2009). For example:

Collaboration with fellow teachers. This often involves a focus on teaching issues and concerns, such as use of the textbook, development of tests, and course planning.

Collaboration with university colleagues. This may involve collaborative research or inquiry into issues of shared interest, such as exploring aspects of second language acquisition or learning strategies.

Collaboration with others in the school. This may involve workiug with administrators or supervisors on issues of concern to the school.

Many forms of professional development can help foster the sense of a community of practice, such as reading groups, action research, team teaching, peer observation, and peer coaching, however this may require a change in mindset for some teachers who do not see themselves as members of a team. For others, however, collaboration can be seen as a source of strength that can have valuable personal as well as practical benefits. Making the transition from seeing oneself as a self-contained independent individual to seeing oneself as a member of a community of practice is an important component of the shaping of teacher identity and an important milestone in professional development.

An example of how this kind of collaboration can happen is with the *Lesson Study Approach* that has been widely implemented in Japan (Lewis and Tsuchida 1999). As reported by Johnson (2009), teams of teachers coplan a lesson that focuses on a particular piece of content of unit of study. Throughout the planning process, they draw on outside resources, including textbooks, research, and teaching theories, and engage in extended conversations while focusing on student learning and the development of specific outcomes. Once the plan has been developed, one member of the team volunteers to teach it while the others observe. (Sometimes outsiders are also invited to observe). After the lesson, the group discusses its findings in a colloquium or panel discussion. Typically the teachers who planned the lesson focus on their rationale for how they planned the lesson and their evaluation of how it went, particularly focusing on student learning. The planning group then reconvenes to review the lesson, revise it, and a different teacher then teaches it to a different class.

The cycle culminates in the team publishing a report that includes lesson plans, observed student behavior, teacher reflections, and a summary of the group discussions. These are then made available to others.

10. PROFESSIONALISM

English language teaching is a profession, which means that it is seen as a career in a field of educational specialization, it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience, and it is a field of work where membership is based on entry requirements and standards. Becoming an English language teacher means becoming part of a worldwide community of professionals with shared goals, values, discourse, and practices. There are two different dimensions to professionalism (Leung 2009). The first can be called institutionally prescribed professionalism – a managerial approach to professionalism that represents the views of ministries of education, teaching organizations, regulatory bodies, school principals, and so on, which specify what teachers are expected to know and what quality teaching practices consist of. There are likely to be procedures for achieving accountability and processes in place to maintain quality teaching. Such specifications are likely to differ from country to country. This aspect of professionalism involves becoming familiar with the standards the profession sets for membership and a desire to attain those standards. Such standards involve acquiring the qualifications the profession recognizes as evidence of professional competence, as well as demonstrating a commitment to attaining high standards in our work, whether it be as classroom teachers, supervisors, administrators, or teacher trainers.

The second dimension to professionalism is what Leung calls independent professionalism, which refers to teachers' own views of teaching and the processes by which teachers engage in reflection on their own values, beliefs, and practices. A key to long-term professional development is the ability to be able to reflect consciously and systematically on one's teaching experiences.

There are many ways in which teachers can engage in critical and reflective review of their own practices throughout their teaching career (see Richards and Lockhart 1994, Richards and Farrell 2005), for instance through analyzing critical incidents, teacher support groups, journal writing, discussion groups, action research, and portfolios. Reflection involves both looking back at teaching experiences and looking forward and setting goals for new or changed directions.

CONCLUSION

Any attempt to characterize the nature of quality, expertise, professionalism, or effectiveness in language teaching is liable to the charge of different kinds of bias, since it is bound to reflect understandings that are shaped by culture, by context, by individual belief and preference, as well as by limitations in our present state of knowledge. These limitations however should not prevent us from reflecting on the beliefs and assumptions that shape the way we understand the nature of teacher knowledge and teacher development for language teachers. For when we do so we are in a better position to assess what the goals of teacher development for language teachers are, as well as the means by which we seek to achieve them.

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SECTION 2

LEARNER DIVERSITY AND CLASSROOM LEARNING

Section 2 contains chapters focusing on issues of central importance to the daily realities of language teaching – managing classrooms, enhancing learning through learning strategies, and motivating learners. In cousidering these important aspects of teaching, the teacher will also be highly cognizant of the type and mix of learners he or she is teaching. Thus, this section considers classrooms that coutain mixed-level learners as well as a pedagogical situation that is the norm for many teachers worldwide, that of large classes with diverse needs. Teachers also adapt their teaching approaches depending on whether they are teaching young learners, teenage learners, or adults, and each of these groups is considered in the final chapters making up this section.

In chapter 6, Wright argues that classroom management and pedagogy are in a unitary relationship with each other. He views classroom management as a fundamental aspect of providing positive (or otherwise) conditions for language learning. Teachers and learners are inevitably collaborative agents in the way classroom management, and therefore the opportunities for learning, eventuate in daily lessons. Regardless of the type and group of students withiu a class, it is the nature and processes of classroom management that mediate quality learniug. Beginning with these premises, Wright examines the complexities of classroom contexts and considers why and how they are bound up with changing pedagogical practices and teacher education.

The two chapters that follow consider more specific aspects of affordances for learning through classroom management. Goh, chapter 7, discusses learner / learning strategies, examining their meaning in relation to good pedagogy and the characteristics of strategies that make a difference to learning. She also considers the roles that teachers need to play in introducing learners to positive strategies for learning and in scaffolding learners'

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competence in using strategies productively. She raises issues in strategy training that relate not only to learning but also to communicating in a new language.

For teachers all over the world, motivation is a dimension seen as central to effective practice and classroom management. As Ushioda points out in chapter 8, it is frequently considered to be one of the major practical problems among language teachers. She draws on recent second-language motivation theory and research to highlight key practical concerns and offers readers a range of useful approaches aimed at promoting and enhancing student motivation. Rather than viewing motivation as the sole responsibility of learners, she also examines the roles that teachers need to adopt in fostering motivation among their students. Like Wright, she sees teacher and learner agency as mutually reinforcing in relation to motivation.

Another aspect of language classrooms that often challenges teachers is situations where learners have noticeably different levels of language ability, different backgrounds and skills, and different rates of progress. Bell's discussion in chapter 9 focuses on the various characteristics of mixed-level classes, the reasons why classrooms might reflect considerable learner diversity and variability, and what these factors might mean within pedagogy, management, and practice. She notes that while every classroom will contain some elements of such diversity, there are particular configurations and circumstances that exacerbate the situation. She outlines a number of factors that teachers should to take into consideration and offers practical guidelines for addressing the challenges of classrooms with highly mixed levels and abilities.

Shamim's discussion in chapter 10 draws attention to a classroom situation that tends not to be much highlighted in discussions of language pedagogy and practice. However, it is a critical one in numerous language-teaching contexts. For many language teachers worldwide, classes are not only mixed level but they are also large, sometimes containing 60 or more students. In such circumstances, language teachers are challenged on a daily basis in the planning and teaching of language activities that are meaningful and communicative and that provide real learning opportunities. Shamim examines the major characteristics and challenges of large classes and offers various realistic options that teachers of large classes can adopt to ensure that students' opportunities for interaction and communication are maximized.

The last three chapters in this section consider learners at different ages and stages in the learning process. In chapter 11, Pinter discusses effective principles for pedagogy and practice for young learners, a group of students for whom English-language instruction across the world has grown dramatically over the last decade and a half. She notes that the common assumption about language learning that "earlier is better" is not necessarily borne out by the research, which has in fact produced mixed results. She draws out some of the most recent theoretical perspectives about the age factor in language learning, and from this basis proposes key principles that could be applied in a range of contexts where young learners are taught.

Legutke's contribution, chapter 12, continues the discussion in relation to the next cohort of learners, those in their teenage years and located mainly in secondary school classrooms. As he points out, given that English is now the additional language of choice internationally, this group represents a major subpopulation of English learners across the globe. Acknowledging the complexities of the cognitive and emotional development of students within this population, he describes the major changes, trends, and challenges existing for teachers of this group when focusing on the development of communicative abilities in English. He argues that these dimensions need to be taken into account if teachers are to develop relevant programs for teenagers and offers practical strategies for teachers' consideration.

Adult learners are generally considered to be those of 18 years or over, thus constituting an extremely diverse and complex group of second-language students. Orem argues in chapter 13 that, as well as the diversity in motivation, background, and experience, in many countries adult learning is marginalized in comparison with that of formal schooling. Thus, teachers of adults must locate their pedagogical practices within numerous, unpredictable, and sometimes unorthodox, learning situations that require the ability to be flexible and responsive to local conditions. Orem highlights both the challenges and opportunities in teaching adult learners and suggests some useful principles and strategies that can serve to enhance learning experiences in adult classrooms.

CHAPTER 6

naging the Classroom

Wright

INTRODUCTION

Classroom learning environments are all but universal contexts for formal second-language learning. For the vast majority of second-language learners worldwide, at this moment in time, what happens – typically, "lessons" – in the classroom comprises their main encounter with a second language. It is a sine qua non of second language pedagogy that these events should be managed, but how they are managed and the extent to which participants themselves are believed to exert any agency in the processes of *managing* their classroom experiences are central concerns. The choices teachers make in managing classroom second-language learning, vested with the authority that they invariably have, are fundamental in shaping learning experience and influencing its quality.

Managing classrooms so that they provide conditions in which students can learn is the central challenge of teaching, at any level, with any group of students. The quality of classroom life influences and is influenced by the ways in which we manage classrooms. This is always a jointly managed task, a collective responsibility, despite being led by teachers. Managing classrooms is therefore most helpfully seen as an active, "doing and thinking" process.

This chapter argues that pedagogy and managing classroom life are in fact one and the same. I will begin with an account of the inherent complexity of managing classrooms and follow this with a brief resume of the main recent influences on second language classrooms. I will then examine some of the key contemporary issues in managing classrooms raised by these trends. These center primarily, but not exclusively around the notion of changing pedagogic practices. The implications of these issues for teacher education and professional development are also examined. The chapter closes with a look forward at practice and research.

BACKGROUND

MANAGING CLASSROOMS: A THINKING FRAMEWORK

Classroom management is typically associated with teachers' management of student behavior. Strong themes in this normative view of classroom management are class control and dealing with misbehavior and disciplining students. The goal of classroom management is the creation of conditions for students to work and listen to their teacher. We certainly need calm and control at certain times in classrooms, but we also need excitement and the expression of real feelings, especially in the second language classroom where developing a new identity as "speaker of [second language]" is a central goal. The idea of "classroom management" simply as a set of discipline and control strategies to make this happen is outmoded and ultimately unhelpful if we see managing classrooms as an unfolding set of practices that are intimately tied in with pedagogy.

Sociocultural theory and research (Lantolf 2000; Hall 2003; Johnson 2006) suggests that classroom management is locally constructed. Managing thus means both initiating and responding to ongoing events, with an awareness that all classroom participants have individual and collective sociocultural "history," as we work in a social group and create a new history and culture (Breen 2001). Classrooms are complex, and events multiply interrelated, hence the inappropriateness of a cause-and-effect view of classroom management (Tudor 2001). It may be more helpful to see classrooms as places where events interweave, as participants experience them.

In Wright (2005) I outline a thinking framework for classroom management drawing on these ideas and featuring four linked elements. Managing classrooms consists of managing two "givens" – **time** and **space**, both of which are institutionally and systemically constraining. The *time* which classroom groups spend together is limited and closely delineated; *space* is the realization of "class plus room," the location of learning and teaching, and imposes its own limitations. The third element is **engagement**, or the practices of managing the emotional domain. Classroom life a quintessentially human phenomenon, permeated with emotional response and mood. Most significant from the point of view of learning and teaching is **participation**, the utilization of learning opportunity. This is managed primarily through talk, as is engagement. The interrelationships between these four elements are complex and often hidden; teachers' and learners' classroom lives unfold as they manage these elements. This framework informs the discussion of recent trends and issues that follows.

MANAGING CLASSROOMS: INFLUENCES AND TRENDS

Two sets of influences have combined to shape classrooms and the practices of managing classrooms over the last 30 years.

I. INTERNATIONAL, REGIONAL, AND NATIONAL

The recent past has been characterized by an unprecedented global expansion of Second Language Learning of English as it has emerged as the leading global lingua franca (Graddol 2006). There is consequently greater demand to learn English, and thus greater material pressure on classroom space and time. Political and socioeconomic change have been powerful influences on education in general in every context, and also on second language teaching and learning. These influences govern broad educational policy, the financing of language learning, and the role and value of English. Teachers' and students' expectations have been to some extent influenced by the importance of a knowledge of English for one's career prospects. This influence finds its way into classroom learning

and is personified in more immediate ways by the teachers and learners who live classroom life. Research (Canagarajah 1999; Lin 2001) examines the effects of these "hidden" forces.

Demographic change has also had an effect on language teaching. Mass migration on a huge scale has contributed to complex diversity, as cultures and ethnicities mingle in language classrooms. Urban and rural add to the mix. Learners and teachers now find themselves managing classroom situations of such a complexity in many more contexts than previously. Finally, new technologies for information and communications technology (ICT) are being imported into formal second language education, and has had the effect for many participants of amplifying the challenges of classroom management.

2. INTELLECTUAL AND PROFESSIONAL

Second Language Teaching continues to evolve with a vigor possibly unmatched by any other curriculum area. Having experienced the communicative era, language teaching theorists now posit a postcommunicative and (even) postmethod era (Kumaravadivelu 2005), in which teachers and learners are liberated from the dogma of "methods" and in particular "communicative methodology." The second language classroom has become a major research site in its own right, revealing a richness and complexity hitherto unacknowledged. The view of classrooms that is emerging, as "cultures" and learning communities in their own right is beginning to influence thinking about pedagogy and has implications for practices of managing learning in classrooms. Broader trends in educational thinking, such as the notions of reflective practice, the "sociocultural turn" (Johnson 2006), and critical pedagogy (Norton and Toohey 2004), have also percolated into practice and theory in second language teaching and are becoming increasingly influential on classroom practice and teacher preparation. These have accompanied a perceptible shift in the driving force in the educational endeavor from a behavioral to a constructivist view of learning, and an increasing emphasis on learning rather than teaching as the driving force of pedagogy.

At the same time, the knowledge base of second language teacher education (Freeman 2009) has widened and deepened to include understanding of learning-to-teach, teacher cognitions (Borg 2006), teachers' cultures, and institutional cultures. Teacher preparation (Wright 2010) and professional development (Mann 2005) practices have changed in response to the new knowledge base and new focus of intellectual activity in second language teacher education (SLTE), and teachers trained in the practices of reflection have begun to make an impact professionally.

These trends have led to a greater degree of challenge in managing classrooms. The students' backgrounds and experiences are more varied than before. Second language teachers work under socioeconomic and managerial pressures arguably far greater than at any time in recent history. Pedagogy is in flux, and ICT begs for attention.

KEY ISSUES

CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN MANAGING LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

The central management tasks of any teacher include organizing learning activity within nonnegotiable time limits, utilizing the classroom space at their disposal to the best effect, managing the ever shifting emotional domain and longer-term "climate" of their classrooms, and ensuring each individual's participation in learning opportunity – the educational imperative. These four overarching tasks and associated subtasks, and their complex interactions, are the basis of managing classrooms. Assuming external conditions remained stable, they would still be demanding and problematical. In conditions of rapid and unpredictable change, they are even more so. There are five main issues for managing classrooms emerging from this.

1. DEALING WITH PEDAGOGIC CHANGE

Managing language classrooms would be demanding enough even if socioeconomic conditions were stable; the fact that the multiple social contexts in which they are nested are experiencing change only increases the level of complexity. Whatever the circumstances, the core work of classrooms continues to be learning and teaching. Coping with changes in pedagogy, and their ramifications for managing language classrooms, is arguably the most significant issue from the standpoint of teachers and students. All change is potentially disruptive and poses a challenge to the stability participants have worked hard to establish, perhaps over long periods of time. Apparently trivial methodological changes introduced into transmission-dominated classrooms, such as the introduction of pair work for oral practice, or initiation of group writing projects, have the effects of social revolution, or can be viewed as unwanted social engineering, and treated with suspicion by both teachers and students. A deeper shift of thinking from a concern with teaching to a concern with learning can be deeply unsettling. A teacher's "sense of plausibility" (Prabhu 1990) can be undermined with a temporary loss of mastery of core pedagogic activities, and the sheer effort of initiating with students a new conversation about how a new pedagogic activity works can be debilitating.

The postmethod classroom, perhaps contrary to expectation, is not a less complicated environment in which to live and work. Both teachers and learners have to become more skilled. A wider range of classroom activities and more ways of interacting demand enhanced organizational skills. Any teacher introducing new learning experiences also needs to persuade students of their value. In short, teachers have to incorporate change management into their core practices and the skills that they employ. These include ways of actively involving students in the process of introducing new activities, and sustaining a conversation with them about learning and how the new affects their learning. Maintaining a positive classroom climate, and a sense of order and calm in such circumstances is emotionally taxing. There is the additional hidden apprehension, too, that time is being "wasted" trying to initiate change.

2. WORKING WITH DIVERSE STUDENT POPULATIONS

Demographic change has several consequences for managing language classrooms. Mass migration has created more ethnically and linguistically diverse student populations. Migrants often arrive with well-established cultural views of learning and teaching which are in conflict with those of host populations. They may also find themselves in classrooms with other migrant groups with whom they may be in conflict. In the case of newly arrived migrant children, settling into a new environment includes the socialization of schooling. For adult migrants, identity conflicts may be a major issue, exacerbated by also having to learn a new language, and the potentially "face"-threatening nature of this task.

The social and emotional aspects of managing classrooms are priorities for teachers in such situations. It is up to teachers to create a sense of belonging to a group with a common learning purpose, to accommodate students' contribution to an evolving classroom culture, and at the same time deal with individuals' disorientation, social isolation, difficulties in understanding the behaviors of classmates, possible conflicts, and the ever-present possibility of disruption of learning activity. With relatively homogeneous groups of students (although there will always be a degree of social diversity and individual differences in any student group), working in their "home" contexts, these management tasks are still an essential part of a teacher's work, but perhaps less pressing than with diverse populations.

The skills and knowledge teachers require for effective group building in these circumstances need augmentation. Teachers also need support from colleagues and institutions in whose interest it is that they succeed in working with the learning potential of diverse groups.

3. ABSORBING TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

The current information revolution inevitably affects formal education. New data sources, new types of data and new ways of accessing them open up new possibilities for classroom lauguage learning. These new technologies do not simply exist, waiting neutrally to be used, either. Teachers often experience intense pressure to adopt technological solutions to learning problems, even when a case for adoption has not been made. Teachers are faced with the challenge of working with innovatory means of presenting and processing information, both practically (requiring new skills and knowledge to operate the equipment successfully, and to troubleshoot when it goes wrong), and pedagogically (incorporating it into well-established and productive classroom activities and novel ones). Working with unfamiliar equipment in already unpredictable classroom situations adds to the emotional intensity of working with innovations. This is exacerbated by the fact that a large number of students in many contexts are more likely to be "digital natives," having grown up with ICT in its various forms, whereas teachers are often "digital immigrants," and are potentially at a disadvantage.

Despite these apparent deficits, many teachers have successfully incorporated word processing and wikis (Mak and Coniam 2008), interactive whiteboards, MP3 recording, SMS messaging, e-mail, and more into their pedagogy. However, one suspects that they are either a minority who have already embraced a constructivist pedagogy and developed new ways of managing their classrooms to allow for multiple contributions from self-managing students or early adopters of ICT themselves. We cannot assume that all teachers will be able to replicate the unique conditions that enabled those practitioners to innovate successfully, in the same way that not every member of any population has the desire, the curiosity and the skills to exploit all aspects of ICT.

Learning online is presented as a means of solving such problems as access to second language education in remote or deprived areas of the world. It appears to promise that the problems of managing face-to-face classrooms will disappear in online environments. Some do, but new ones emerge to challenge teachers and learners, deprived, for example, of visual contact, or stymied by time delays, or having to adapt to the specific challenges of managing asynchronous communication, and even the basic issue of participation. Many students are enrolled in online language learning but only rarely participate actively. It is very difficult to have a conversation with these students about their engagement in the learning process that might encourage them to engage.

4. MANAGING THE PROFESSIONAL DOMAIN

Teachers in many contexts have become more accountable to authorities in institutions and beyond (at government levels) for their work in recent years. Increasingly, their work is controlled and regulated by rigid standardized curricula and assessment regimes in ways that constrain what they are able to do in the classroom. At the same time, the professional literature and teacher education programs are encouraging teachers to relinquish some control in their classrooms in order to allow more learning opportunities to emerge. Teachers in state systems have to work toward standardized tests while assisting their students in developing their capacities and their autonomy. Managing these conflicting messages inevitably produces dilemmas and conflicts in teachers' minds and practices, which students invariably experience and notice. Teachers' credibility is weakened by the struggle between these opposing forces, potentially to the detriment of student learning.

In addition to this struggle, teachers have to cope with the tendency toward prescriptivism in pedagogical literature and in professional development programs. Teachers are always open to suggestions as to how they might deal with difficulties in managing their classrooms, but far too often encounter advice framed with a certainty that quickly evaporates when exposed to the complexities of classroom life.

5. LEARNING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

It is widely acknowledged that the main learning priority for beginning teachers is how to manage the classroom context. This can only be done with regular access to opportunities to learn in classrooms through teaching and observation of other teachers. The process also has to be supported by sympathetic advisors. In second language teacher education (SLTE) programs "classroom management" is often presented as a separate component from teaching studies (which tend to focus on methodology) and presented as a body of discrete knowledge and skills. Learning "classroom control" (almost like clutch control in learning to drive) becomes a separate learning task, rather than integrated into the development of various other teaching skills. Once learned, it is then assumed that managing classrooms does not ueed to be revisited in professional development activities. The evidence from teachers' attempts to innovate or implement change (Hall and Hewings 2001) indicates that many of the difficulties they encounter have their origins in the practices of managing classrooms. Rare is the professional development or SLTE program that as well as introducing teachers to "new" teaching procedures also raises awareness and incorporates development strategies for managing innovation and change. Teachers bear the brunt of change and are too often blamed for failing to do something they have not been prepared for.

CONCLUSION

Managing classrooms is arguably more complex and problematical today than it ever has been. Faced with the multiple challenges of working with diverse student populations, against a background of socioeconomic and technological change; faced at the same time with pedagogical change and an increased awareness of the complexity of classroom life, teachers grapple daily with the realities of managing their classrooms. Increasingly, students are invited to participate directly in managing classrooms in collaboration with their teachers and each other as learning experiences, such as collaborative writing, sometimes using ICT, are used. Issues in managing change and innovation are pressing.

The issues and trends I have identified in this chapter are likely to continue into the foreseeable future, with the following potential developments:

1. The pace of change in language teaching may slow as the rate of innovation declines, accompanied by a degree of consolidation. This would give time and space for longer-term evaluations of the effectiveness of new pedagogy in language teaching in influencing student learning.

2. As ICT spreads worldwide and access increases, more language learners will encounter and learn the target language outside the classroom, bringing into question the value of the formal learning context. Perhaps we might thus envisage a day when the formal classroom becomes more like the (still radical) images suggested by Breen and Candlin (1980) – an observatory on language use in the world at large, a meeting place for language learners from that world, even a laboratory where the raw materials of language are brought, examined and reconfigured. Managing these encounters would require and stimulate new practices.

3. Student populations are likely to become more diverse as people disperse, and student groups become more ethnically and culturally varied. Soon, the group of teachers who themselves learned second languages in these conditions are likely to be in the majority in many contexts. It is likely therefore that our knowledge of managing diversity will become more attuned to the realities, informed as it will be by this generation's direct experience.

Research in and on classrooms will continue to inform our knowledge of practices for managing classrooms. The following four areas would be of particular interest:

1. It is hoped that there will be more research in language classrooms that contributes to understanding the nature of classroom talk (Mercer and Littleton 2007), and how this aspect of managing classroom language learning contributes to the quality of the learning experience.
2. Classroom climate and the affective domain are so important in classroom life, yet it is surprising that research in these areas is so sparse. The influence of long-term and short-term emotional responses to learning experience and the contribution of management practices to these is an example of what might be investigated.
3. We know relatively little about how students experience classroom life and their roles in managing language classrooms – their voices would make a welcome addition to our understanding.
4. Much has been said in this paper of the effect of planned change and innovation on the practices of classroom management. However, research in these areas tends to focus on broader issues of change rather than change and innovation as they are experienced in the classroom itself.

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CHAPTER 7

ner Strategies

ne C. M. Goh

INTRODUCTION

The terms *learning strategies* and *learner strategies* are not new to many teachers, yet the concept of strategy is not always clear because of the various ways in which strategies have been studied in research and presented in language teaching materials. A scan of the literature on strategies that learners use will show that there is no one single definition for these things that learners do which are called strategies. Strategies have been described by different scholars as "techniques, tactics, potentially conscious plans, consciously employed operations, learning skills, cognitive abilities, language processing strategies and problem-solving procedures" (Wenden 1987, p. 7), as well as "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills" (Oxford 1992, p. 18). One of the reasons for the variations is that different scholars have focused on different aspects of strategies in their writing and research. Thus, rather than offering another definition for strategies in this chapter, I will attempt to clarify this concept by focusing on eight characteristics of learner strategies that are compatible with the view of many strategy experts (Cohen 2007). This will be followed by suggestions on how teachers can introduce strategy instruction. I will also highlight some issues in strategy instruction and suggest ways in which these may be addressed. Throughout the chapter, I will use the term *learner strategies* to refer to strategies that language learners use to help them in learning a second language as well as communicating in that language.

BACKGROUND

WHY ARE LEARNER STRATEGIES USEFUL?

Many strategy experts believe that language learners could benefit from using strategies to make up for what they do not know or are as yet unable to perform in the second language.

In addition, by using strategies, language learners can achieve their learning potential and become individuals who could learn and use language flexibly and independently. Language learners use strategies to manage their overall learning of the language; perform tasks related to listening, speaking, reading and writing; solve specific problems during oral communication; learn vocabulary and grammar; and last but not least, make their efforts at learning and using a second language easier, more productive, and more enjoyable. Overall, by using strategies, language learners can become more self-regulated in their learning by making decisions about how and when to plan, monitor, and evaluate what they learn and the ways they learn. Learners also become more reflective about the way they use language and become more engaged in the process without having to rely constantly on the guidance of their teachers. Some recent studies have also suggested that strategy use can help learners increase their proficiency and performance directly.

KEY ISSUES

CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNER STRATEGIES

1. Strategies are conscious behaviors involving cognitive, social, and affective processes.

Strategies can take the form of covert mental activities that learners use to process and manage the flow of information in a second language. For example, learners can improve their comprehension of what they read or listen by employing such strategies as predicting, making inferences, and monitoring their comprehension. Some strategies are overt social behaviors, such as when learners ask questions to clarify what they do not understand or request speakers to repeat what they say in order to continue in an interaction. Strategies can also take the form of internal speech to manage negative emotions. For example, when some learners are anxious or feel discouraged, they "speak" to themselves in order to encourage themselves positively.

2. The use of strategies is managed by metacognition.

Cognitive, social, and affective strategies are controlled by a higher level of cognitive processes known as metacognitive processes. These processes enable individuals to manage the way they use strategies through planning, monitoring, and evaluation (Brown 1978). The control and regulation of strategy use often depends on learners' metacognitive knowledge (Flavell 1979; Wenden 1991): knowledge about themselves and others as learners, knowledge about the nature and demands of the task, and knowledge about strategies that can be used for achieving their goal in language use and learning, be it learning new vocabulary or grammar items, comprehending what they read or listen to, or expressing meaning through speaking and writing.

3. The amount of attention learners give to the strategies they employ may vary according to different factors.

Although the use of strategies requires attention on the part of the learners, not all tasks require the same amount of attention. For example, when they have to solve a comprehension problem while listening to a lecture with very little visual support, learners may have to heed the language input closely and use familiar content words to reconstruct the content of what they hear. On the other hand, if they are talking to someone face-to-face on a familiar topic, such as a movie they saw the night before, they may use the facial expressions of the speaker or their knowledge of the plot to draw quick inferences of words they do not understand.

4. Strategies may be employed individually or in an interactive and orchestrated manner to form a network of processes for achieving a better communication or learning outcome.

Language learning and communication are complex activities. When learners encounter problems, they may have to use not one but several strategies to enhance their performance and achieve their goals. This is because different strategies when applied together to a task can interact effectively with one another to achieve a unified learning or communication outcome. For example, when learners draw inferences of the meaning of what they hear in a listening text, they also need to monitor their interpretation by considering clues from the context or from the unfolding text. If they realize that they have made a mistake in their interpretation, they should use another strategy, such as wait for repetition or rephrasing of the information, and try again. A learner who only uses the strategy of guessing and ignores accompanying cues may miss valuable opportunities for arriving at an accurate or acceptable interpretation.

5. Some strategies can contribute to language development directly while others may not.

There are two types of strategies. The first type is used for improving the learning of a second language, such as strategies for remembering and producing new vocabulary items that can help increase learners' proficiency. The second type is used for managing a problem or enhancing communication during language use. This type of strategy may or may not lead to language development. A communication strategy may help to develop a learner's language further if it requires the learner to draw on his or her linguistic resources, no matter how limited it may be. For example, a learner may resort to paraphrasing or circumlocution to produce speech that is comprehensible to listeners when the learner cannot think of a word in the second language. On the other hand, another learner who experiences a similar problem may decide to use an avoidance strategy, such as using a word in the first language or keeping silent completely. Clearly, this strategy is not going to help the learner's language development.

6. The quality and the use of strategies by individual learners is influenced by internal and external factors.

Broadly speaking, whether or not learners use strategies or use strategies that are effective depends on three factors: the learners themselves, the tasks they have to complete, and the environment in which learning and use of the second language take place. Research indicates that high-proficiency learners use more metacognitive strategies than their low-proficiency counterparts. A possible explanation for this phenomenon is that high-proficiency learners are not hindered by low-level perception or production processes, such as word recognition (reading and listening) and word production (speaking and writing). As some of these processes may have become automatized, high-proficiency learners can therefore give more attention to monitoring and evaluating their comprehension. The nature of tasks, for example, reception (listening and reading) vs. production (speaking and writing), can also influence learners in the strategies they select. In cultural contexts where face-saving is important, learners may choose to use certain avoidance strategies so as not to lose face in front of others.

7. Strategies can be viewed at a macro level as a general strategic approach to a task and at the micro level as specific strategies for realizing that approach.

It is useful to make a distinction between the generality of broad global actions and the specificity of small actions or tactics that help to realize the general strategy. A general strategy can be viewed as a general approach that one takes to achieve a goal while a specific strategy, or tactic, is one of several ways in which that strategic approach can be

GENERAL STRATEGY	SPECIFIC STRATEGIES (Tactics)
Inferencing	• Use contextual clues to guess the meaning of unknown words • Use familiar content words to deduce the meaning of what is heard • Draw on knowledge of the world to guess the meaning of what is heard • Apply knowledge about the target language to guess the meaning of unknown words • Use visual clues to fill in meaning unavailable from the text

Table 7.1 Macro and micro strategies for drawing inferences of unknown words and missing information (adapted from Goh 2002)

realized. A general, or macro, strategy typically consists of a number of relevant specific strategies. Table 7.1 shows this generality–specificity distinction for the frequently used strategy of inferencing. This distinction of generality and specificity is particularly relevant for strategy instruction as it can help clarify how a strategic approach can be achieved through different techniques depending on the types of task and the context. Research provides some indication that although some strategies are used by both high- and low-proficiency learners, the high-proficiency ones tended to use a wider range of specific strategies or tactics flexibly to achieve comprehension.

8. Knowledge about and use of strategies may be jointly constructed and managed by learners working together.

The literature on learner strategies typically focuses on the way individual learners use strategies and the effects of individual characteristics, such as gender and language proficiency, which may be related to the effectiveness of their strategy use. Language learning and language use, however, are not activities that learners engage in on their own exclusively. Thus learners' knowledge about and use of strategies must also be understood in its interactional and sociocultural contexts. For example, training ESL writers to use peer review productively may be seen as a way in which learners jointly construct new metacognitive knowledge about the writing process and jointly develop strategies for improving their language production (Hu 2005), and getting learners to engage in collaborative dialogue as they experience listening strategy instruction enables them to develop new insights into strategy use that they may not have acquired had they worked on a listening task individually (Cross 2009). For example, when learning to apply a particular strategy, learners discuss the problem they have, the usefulness or relevance of the strategy, and how they plan to use it.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF LEARNER STRATEGIES

Teachers can instruct language learners on the use of strategies to enhance and facilitate their language learning and communication. To do this systematically and in a principled manner, strategy instruction can be based on one of the following strategy models. Teachers can choose the one which they feel their learners will easily understand and relate to.

O'MALLEY AND CHAMOT (1990)

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) adopted an information-processing theoretical model which contained an operative, or cognitive, processing function and an executive, or metacognitive,

function. In addition, they included social and affective dimensions to account for the influence of these processes on language learning. These are represented as follows:

- *Cognitive strategies* are mental operations that interact directly with incoming information. They facilitate comprehension and recall, and production. Examples include summarization, translation, and inferencing.
- *Metacognitive strategies* are mental operations that manage learning and cope with difficulties. They are used for planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning processes. Examples include selective attention and self-monitoring.
- *Social-affective strategies* are behaviors that involve others to assist one's learning and communication, and control one's emotions in order to complete a learning task. Examples include asking for repetition and clarification and positive self-talk.

OXFORD (1990)

Oxford's (1990) strategy system comprises two distinct but related groups of strategies:

- *Direct strategies* involve mainly mental processing of language to help learners store, retrieve and use language in spite of limitations in vocabulary and grammar. The three main sets of direct strategies are *memory strategies, cognitive strategies*, and *compensation strategies*. Within each set are more specific strategies and further subsets of these specific strategies, for example, creating mental linkages, analyzing and reasoning, and guessiug intelligently.
- *Indirect strategies* "support and manage language learning without (in many instances) directly involving the target language and work in tandem with the direct strategies" (p.135). The three main sets of indirect strategies are *metacognitive strategies, affective strategies*, and *social strategies*. Just like direct strategies, each set of strategies is further differentiated into more specific strategies, such as arranging and planning your learning, taking your emotional temperature, and asking questions respectively.

The two models share three similar characteristics. Firstly, they acknowledge the importance of metacognition, or thinking about one's thinking. Secondly, they acknowledge the role played by cognitive strategies that directly manipulate input through mental processes such as inferencing and prediction. Thirdly, the models are explicit about social-affective dimensions of learning. By acknowledging the conceptual and social affective bases for language learning, these frameworks are sufficiently comprehensive and therefore useful for preparing activities for strategy instruction.

TEACHING LEARNERS TO USE STRATEGIES

Teachers may notice that some students seem to have very little success with learning a second language even though they are motivated and conscientious. This can be very demoralizing for both student and teacher. The problem could be that the students are working hard, but not working smart. Using one of the strategy classifications as a framework, teachers can help students find out about the quality of their strategy use. Learners who are not using strategies adequately or are using inappropriate ones will benefit from further strategy training. The effectiveness of strategy instruction has been tested in some research studies and the encouraging results have been translated into more permanent teaching frameworks, for example, the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) by Chamot and O'Malley (1994).

Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins (1999) proposed the Metacognitive Model of Strategic Learning as a framework for their strategy training program. The model consists of four metacognitive processes – planning, monitoring, evaluation, and problem solving – where various strategies may be used. Learners are encouraged to work through each of these processes for learning tasks that they find challenging. The four processes are said to be not sequential and may be used flexibly to achieve the goals for different tasks.

The following are some popular techniques used for teaching learners about strategies:

a. *Teacher modeling*. Teachers demonstrate the mental, affective and social processes that they engage in when approaching and carrying out a task. They do this by verbalizing these thoughts in a procedure commonly referred to as "think aloud." For example, the teacher reads aloud a reading passage and stops at places where there is a "problem," then verbalizes aloud: "Se-ren-di-pity. Not sure what it means. Based on what I know so far, it could mean something nice has happened. OK, I'm just guessing here, but it's OK. It seems to make sense. I'll read on and see if I'm right."

b. *Awareness raising*. Teachers provide various opportunities for learners to think about the strategies they use and how other strategies might also be relevant to their learning and communication goals. This can be done through small-group sharing, teacher-led discussions, and learning diaries. Teachers also introduce the names of common and useful strategies. For example, students discuss in groups the topic "What I find most difficult about learning new vocabulary and how I think I can overcome this difficulty." After their discussions, the teacher elicits what the groups have learned from one another. She then elaborates on one or two strategies that can be used to help with the most common difficulties reported.

c. *Guided practice*. Teachers provide learners with a set of guidelines and activities on how to approach a task by planning which strategies to use, mouitoring the use of the strategies, and evaluating the effectiveness of the strategies. The practice may be integrated with a language-learning task. For example, the teacher asks the class to listen to a self-selected audio recording or watch a video recording. Every student is given a self-directed listening guide printed on a sheet of paper, with several guiding questions to work through when selecting and listening to / viewing the recorded text.

d. *Review and reuse*. Learners are asked to review and evaluate the way they use strategies. They identify those that they have used and those that they think could be useful but have never used. Teachers set new tasks for learners to reuse strategies that learners have found to be useful. For example, at the start of a lesson, students form pairs or groups to reflect on a task, such as the listening task mentioned in (c). In discussing with one another, they learn about new strategies that they may not have used. The teacher sets another similar listening task and asks the students to use the old and new strategies that they reviewed.

e. *Reflect and refocus*. Teachers invite learners to explain their purpose for using certain strategies. Many learners resort to some form of strategic behaviors to help them when they encounter a problem or when they want to become better at what they are doing. Not all, however, can say what exactly they are trying to achieve with those strategies. Getting learners to reflect on their goals for using strategies will help them to refocus on what they do and why they do it. It is also a time to learn the names for the strategies they have been using.

According to Rubin, Chamot, Harris, and Anderson (2007), strategy based instruction (SBI) should be guided by the following principles:

a. Directly relate to problems that learners are seeking to solve
b. Lead to immediate and recognizable success
c. Take cognizance of the cultural diversity and individual differences of learners
d. Include sufficient scaffolding, modeling, practice, and development of self-assessment
e. Recognize that it takes time for learners to develop their ability to use strategies

To carry out strategy instruction, special sessions can be planned within normal curriculum time. For example, every two weeks the teacher focuses on developing learners' strategy knowledge and use of one area of language learning or use using one or more of the techniques in the previous section. Using the same techniques, teachers can also integrate strategy instruction with language lessons. For example, in a reading lesson, the teacher guides students in selecting and applying appropriate strategies for engaging with the written text, as well as for managing and evaluating their own comprehension. The teacher models the use of appropriate strategies at different parts of the reading lessons to demonstrate how this is done according to the type of text and the demands of comprehension tasks. Both explicit instruction and integrated instruction have their benefits and can be used at different times to help learners become more aware of strategies and practice the use of selected ones.

ISSUES IN STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

The value of strategy use and strategy instruction has been frequently acknowledged. Despite this, strategy instruction has not yet become a key part of mainstream pedagogical recommendations and practices in language teaching because it has not had sufficient grounding in the broader field of second language acquisition research (Manchón 2008). Curriculum writers and teachers often do not see how teaching learners to use strategies can contribute to better language development. Another reason is that strategy instruction may be seen to use up precious curriculum time for language teaching. As McDonough and Archibald (2006) point out, strategy instruction is not actually the same as language teaching, so teachers who include strategy instruction often have to demonstrate that time taken away from direct language teaching is made up for by evidence of improvement in learners' proficiency. As explicit strategy instruction may create concern for some teachers, Grenfell (2007) recommended for some aspects of it to be integrated as part of a process-oriented approach to language teaching.

CONCLUSION

Strategies help learners take control of their learning process, thereby improving their confidence, motivation and even performance. It is important, therefore, that teachers and teachers-to-be become acquainted with theoretical and practical perspectives concerning learner strategies. However, there remains a gap in strategy instruction between theory and practice. Perhaps has this to do with the fact that much of the research in learner strategies has been undertaken by academics or teachers doing graduate studies. Many teachers are merely passive observers of these developments, not knowing how learner strategies can have an impact on teaching and learning. One way of strengthening the nexus is for more researchers to work directly with teachers to implement intervention projects.

Another way is for teachers themselves to undertake action research projects and share expertise and results within their communities of practice. In so doing, practitioners can better understand the concept of learner strategy and develop new techniques for strategy instruction that are contextually and culturally effective for their learners.

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CHAPTER 8

Motivation

Ema Ushioda

INTRODUCTION

Motivation is undoubtedly a key practical concern for language teachers, more often than not because it is regarded as a problem. The problem may be how to motivate students or keep them motivated, or how to deal with boredom, lack of interest, or demotivating influences such as exams, low grades, or uninspiring materials. Drawing on insights from L2 motivation theory and research, this chapter will address these practical concerns and discuss a range of approaches to promoting and enhancing student motivation in the second language classroom. A central argument will be that for effective and sustained engagement in the learning process to take place, motivation needs to be internally driven rather than externally regulated by teachers; however, teachers have a pivotal role to play in fostering the healthy internal growth and development of students' motivation.

The chapter will begin with a brief overview of principal trends in the field of L2 motivation theory and research, before going on to discuss key issues of pedagogy and practice.

BACKGROUND

L2 motivation has been a major field of study in second language acquisition (SLA) for over fifty years, ever since it became recognized as an important individual difference characteristic that can help explain why some people are more successful than others at learning languages. However, it is really only within the last fifteen years or so that this field of study has begun to have a significant bearing on issues of classroom pedagogy and practice.

Until the 1990s, L2 motivation research was dominated by a social-psychological perspective, following the pioneering work of Gardner and Lambert (1972) in Canada.

These researchers speculated that L2 motivation had important social and psychological dimensions which distinguished it from other forms of learning motivation, since learners are expected not simply to acquire knowledge of the language but to identify with the target language community and adopt their distinctive speech behaviors and styles. Individuals' attitudes toward target language speakers, as well as their ethnocentric orientation in general, were hypothesized to exert a directive influence on their L2 learning behavior. This led Gardner and Lambert to propose two kinds of motivational orientation in language learning: an *integrative* orientation "reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group"; and an *instrumental* orientation "reflecting the practical value and advantages of learning a new language" (p. 132). Much of the research and theoretical debate that ensued revolved around examining these two types of orientation, and their relative impact on motivation and success in language learning (for a meta-analysis of empirical studies, see Masgoret and Gardner 2003).

However, a major criticism of this social-psychological tradition was that it provided few genuinely useful insights for teachers, beyond highlighting the desirability of promoting students' positive attitudes to the target language culture and its people (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). Partly prompted by Crookes and Schmidt's provocative critique, the field of L2 motivation began to expand its scope through the 1990s, drawing on theoretical perspectives from mainstream educational psychology and giving more attention to the classroom context of language learning and to practical pedagogical issues such as how motivation can be developed and sustained. A number of books began to appear which brought together theory and classroom practice in relation to L2 motivation (e.g. Chambers 1999; Dörnyei 2001a, 2001b; Ushioda 1996).

More recently, the analysis of L2 motivation has been influenced by the growing critical debates within applied linguistics about migration, globalization, and the impact of English as an international language (see McKay, this volume) on educational policy, cultural identity and the learning of languages other than English. Shaped by these debates, current discussions of L2 motivation foreground concepts of self and identity (e.g., Dörnyei and Ushioda 2009), which have important practical implications for motivation and interaction in the social context of the classroom. These and other key issues of pedagogy and practice will be discussed in the next section.

KEY ISSUES

MOTIVATION AS AN UNSTABLE PROCESS

A common experience for many learners and teachers is that motivation, however strong to begin with, will ebb and flow through the learning process, subject to many internal and external influences over a course of study or even within the space of a single lesson. Research evidence shows that once the initial novelty of learning a new language wears off, motivation tends to decline steadily, particularly as the cognitive and linguistic demands of the learning process increase (e.g., Chambers 1999; Gardner et al. 2004). Thus a key issue for teachers is not simply how to spark students' initial interest and enthusiasm but, more importantly, how to sustain their motivation through the long and challenging process of learning a language. Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation represents the most elaborate attempt to define the temporal structure of L2 motivation, which it divides into preactional (choice motivation), actional (executive motivation), and postactional (evaluation) phases. Each phase is shaped by various internal and contextual influences which may enhance or inhibit motivation. Based on this process model,

Dörnyei (2001b) has developed a framework for motivational teaching practice structured according to these successive phases:

- *Creating the basic motivational conditions*, which involves establishing good social relations and a positive learning atmosphere
- *Generating initial motivation*, which involves building students' interest in and positive attitudes to learning the language
- *Maintaining and protecting motivation*, comprising pedagogical strategies for keeping students well motivated and involved during the learning process
- *Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation*, which entails enhancing students' self-perceptions of competence and success

Dörnyei's framework is elaborated as a taxonomy of 35 motivational strategies across these phases, with each strategy further broken down into a number of substrategies, as in the following "Strategy 18" example (p.77):

Strategy 18
Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks.

More specifically:

- Make tasks challenging.
- Make task content attractive by adapting it to the students' natural interests or by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements.
- Personalize learning tasks.
- Select tasks that yield tangible, finished products.

While Dörnyei makes clear that teachers should not think of integrating all 35 strategies into their practice but focus on a few well-chosen ones that meet their needs and context, his framework is valuable in outlining the possibilities for strategic intervention to enhance student motivation throughout the learning process. At the same time, however, the notion of strategic intervention raises an important pedagogical issue about negotiating the delicate balance between *socializing* versus *controlling* students' motivation. Before addressing this issue, I will first examine the distinctions between internal and external forms of motivation.

INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FORMS OF MOTIVATION

In contemporary motivational psychology, a classic distinction is made between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* forms of motivation (e.g., Ryan and Deci 2000). Intrinsic motivation means doing something as an end in itself, for its own self-sustaining pleasurable rewards of enjoyment, interest, challenge, or skill and knowledge development. In contrast, extrinsic motivation means doing something as a means to some separable outcome, such as gaining a qualification, getting a job, pleasing the teacher or avoiding punishment. In the educational field, intrinsic motivation is often regarded as representing the optimal kind of internally driven motivation. Research evidence suggests that intrinsic motivation promotes high-quality learning, since intrinsically motivated learners are deeply concerned to learn things well, in a manner that is intrinsically satisfying, and that arouses a sense of optimal challenge appropriate to their current level of skill and competence (e.g., see the collection of studies in

Deci and Ryan 2002). However, it seems unrealistic to expect language learners to achieve and maintain a steady state of high intrinsic motivation when faced with the pressures and demands of institutionalized language learning. Moreover, we should not underestimate the importance of certain forms of extrinsic motivation which are highly valued in most educational contexts, such as passing significant exams, obtaining a certification, getting into a good school, or achieving one's personal aspirations.

Rather, motivational factors intrinsic to the learning process (enjoyment, sense of challenge, skill development) and those extrinsic to the learning process (educational goals and personal aspirations) are best viewed as working in concert with another. Fundamentally, what is crucially important is not whether motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic, but whether it is *internalized* and self-determined (emanating from within the learner), or whether it is *externally* regulated by others (e.g., teachers, parents, curriculum, and institutional requirements) using a variety of extrinsic incentives or pressures (i.e., the carrot-and-stick approach to controlling behavior). As Deci and Flaste (1996) emphasize, all the research evidence indicates that "*self*-motivation, rather than external motivation, is at the heart of creativity, responsibility, healthy behavior, and lasting change" (p. 9; italics in original).

CONTROLLING VS. SOCIALIZING MOTIVATION

Thus, from a pedagogical perspective, the key issue is not so much whether teachers promote *intrinsic* or *extrinsic* forms of motivation, but how they can foster *internally regulated* forms of motivation or what Deci and Flaste (1996) call "motivation from within," and negotiate the delicate balance between *socializing* versus *controlling* their students' motivation. The balance is a delicate one because anything that teachers explicitly do to try to motivate their learners runs the risk of communicating the message that motivation is something which they as teachers control and regulate (by means of rewards and incentives, or threats and punishments), instead of enabling learners' own motivation from within to grow and develop. Moreover, research evidence shows that using rewards and incentives not only fosters teacher-dependent forms of extrinsic motivation, but can also damage any intrinsic motivation students may bring, since it undermines their perceptions of their own sense of personal control and agency (e.g., Eisenberger and Cameron, 1996; Lepper and Greene 1978). A further complication is that, as noted earlier, finding ways of sparking students' initial interest and enthusiasm is not enough, since motivation needs to be regulated and sustained through the long and arduous learning process. So what can teachers do?

The key lies in orchestrating the social learning environment and learning experiences in such a way that students will *want* to participate and want to learn (Ushioda 2003). In this connection, Riley (2003, 244) reminds us of that well-known episode in Mark Twain's novel *Tom Sawyer*, where Tom has been given the laborious task of painting his Aunt Polly's garden fence and faces the taunts of his friends who are out playing and enjoying themselves. Yet Tom cleverly engineers the situation so that his friends end up wanting to help him instead of taunting him, through the simple ploy of making the fence-painting task seem as attractive, worthwhile, and engaging as possible. Clearly, one would not want to take the Tom Sawyer analogy too far and suggest that teachers orchestrate things to serve their own ends. However, the point is that even a dull and tedious task can be turned into a motivating one if viewed from a different perspective. What is important is not the task itself but how the activity of engaging in the task is constructed through people's interactions. As Good and Brophy (1997) put it, interest resides in people rather than in topics or tasks, and motivation develops as a result of interactions among persons, tasks, and the larger environmental context (p. 238). In short, socializing students' motivation entails orchestrating the social learning environment in ways that invite interaction, participation and involvement, and thus motivation from within. This is qualitatively different from using

progressive attempts to control and regulate students' behavior from the outside. I will turn now to consider some principles for socializing motivation from within and then outline implications for classroom practice.

PRINCIPLES FOR SOCIALIZING LEARNING MOTIVATION FROM WITHIN

An important difference between formal learning in the classroom and developmental and experiential learning outside the classroom is that the latter is driven by personal goals, needs, and interests, supported and nurtured by the surrounding social environment. If learners' engagement in the classroom is to approach this level of personal involvement and intrinsic motivation, it is clear that they must be encouraged to develop their own reasons for learning, their own agenda, and their own goals (Ushioda 2003). Yet it is also clear that promoting motivation from within is not a matter of giving learners free rein to do what they want, but that there must be close alignment between curriculum goals and values and personal needs and interests. In other words, motivation for culturally constructed goals and values needs to be socialized and internalized. In everyday life, being motivated means participating in particular cultural systems of activity, and endorsing and internalizing their rules, goals, and values so that they become part of our own motivation and value system. For example, when we play tennis or chess, we do not simple make up our own rules at the expense of our opponent. Instead, we derive our pleasure and enjoyment from exercising our skills within the rules of the game in which we socially participate.

As I have described elsewhere (Ushioda 2007), one theoretical tradition in particular that can illuminate this process is Vygotskian sociocultural theory. Vygotsky (1978) developed a sociocultural theory of mind, and its central principle is that higher-order cognitive functions are internalized from social interaction with more competent others (pp. 52–57). For example, the child learns how to do jigsaw puzzles through the social experience of doing jigsaw puzzles with older siblings or parents. Learning is a socially mediated process. Bronson (2000) explains how this principle applies also to the socially constructed growth of motivation:

> [Vygotsky] assumed that individuals have innate motivation for self-regulation and independent action, but that motivation to control specific situations and reach specific goals is acquired from others who transmit knowledge about which values and goals are approved by the culture. To a great extent the child learns what to want. (p. 33)

Bronson's analysis points to an important distinction between the child's natural impetus to explore her environment, and the socialization of motivation for culturally constructed goals and activities. This process of socialization takes place through the child's participation in activities in a particular social setting. Thinking, wanting, and doing are shared and jointly constructed in the interactions between children and members of the surrounding culture, or we might say between learners and the social learning environment. Gradually, as Lantolf (1994) puts it, children (learners) internalize culturally valued patterns of planning, attending, thinking, and remembering (p. 419), and they also internalize culturally valued goals and intentions (Ushioda 2007).

IMPLICATIONS FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE

Socializing learning motivation in the classroom thus entails giving students plenty of opportunity to engage with new and different activities and materials and broadening the scope of their experience, since it is through participation in experience that individual

motivation will develop. It also entails encouraging peer interactions around tasks and activities, since it is through such interactions that motivation is dynamically constructed and socially distributed (Ushioda 2003). At the same time, promoting motivation from within entails enabling learners to make informed choices and decisions and set their own goals within a negotiated framework, so that they experience a sense of personal ownership and agency in relation to their learning. Research evidence suggests that learning how to set optimal challenges, working to achieve them and experiencing success and growth in competence and skill development can help cultivate intrinsic interest and motivation (Bandura and Schunk 1981).

Moreover, exercising choice and decision making is fundamental to promoting self-regulation of motivation rather than teacher-regulated motivation. If learners are given no say in what they want to do but are expected simply to do what the teacher tells them, their motivation is likely to be wholly dependent on and regulated by the teacher, and may quickly turn to resistance. Developing students' motivation from within is thus intimately connected with supporting their sense of autonomy (Ushioda 1996), as illustrated clearly by the work of Dam (1995), a leading classroom practitioner in the field of autonomy in language education. Dam reports that her engagement in classroom practices to promote autonomy came about through sheer desperation to find ways of dealing with unmotivated teenage students:

> In order to survive I felt I had to change my usual teacher role. I tried to involve the pupils – or rather I forced them to be involved – in the decisions concerning, for example, the choice of classroom activities and learning materials. I soon realized that giving the learners a share of responsibility for planning and conducting teaching-learning activities caused them to be actively involved and led to better learning. (p. 2)

Dam identifies an important link here between making choices and decisions and taking responsibility. As Deci and Flaste (1996) emphasize, giving people choice not only engenders willingness, but also instills a sense of responsibility since people become responsible for the choices they make and their consequences. Promoting a sense of responsibility is a critical factor in fostering the internal regulation of motivation. Put simply, an important aspect of motivational self-regulation is our willingness to deal with things we would rather not have to do but which are nevertheless necessary and important in regulating our lives, such as paying taxes or going to the dentist. In essence, we need to take responsibility for accepting and internalizing these less attractive facets of life, if we also want the freedom to enjoy life's pleasures. In the educational field, there is considerable research evidence to suggest that students' readiness to internalize curricular goals and values depends to a large extent on the degree to which the social learning environment supports their sense of autonomy, and involves them in some of the decision-making processes that shape their learning (Ryan, Connell, and Grolnick 1992). Supporting students' sense of autonomy thus helps foster their willingness to take responsibility for regulating their motivation and learning behavior in line with inevitable constraints and demands, and to align their motivation with the broader goals and values of the educational process.

The practical implications discussed so far – promoting participation, social interaction, personal goal-setting, decision making, responsibility, autonomy – apply of course to socializing learning motivation in relation to any subject area, whether mathematics, history, science, or language. However, where language learning is concerned, there is an important added dimension. Language is a medium for self-expression, communication, and accessing information and resources. A foreign language is not simply something to add to our repertoire of skills, but a personalized tool that enables us to expand and express our identity or sense of self in new and interesting ways; to participate in a more diverse range of contexts and broaden our horizons; and to access and share new and alternative sources of information, entertainment, or material that we need, value or enjoy. Socializing language learners' motivation from within thus entails encouraging them to view the language as a means of self-expression and self-development. This means that in their interactions with students, teachers need to promote a sense of continuity between what they learn and do in the classroom, and who they are and what they are interested in doing in their lives outside the classroom, now and in the future, so that as Little (2004) puts it, "what they learn becomes part of what they are" (p. 106). In addition, teachers need to engage students in using the target language to express their own personal meanings, interests and identities, rather than treating them as language "learners" who are merely practicing or demonstrating knowledge of the language.

CONCLUSION

As noted earlier, this focus on how L2 learning connects with and expands our sense of self and identity is central to current discussions of L2 motivation theory and clearly resonates with the central argument in this chapter, which is that motivation needs to be internally driven rather than externally regulated by teachers. In many ways, this argument will hardly seem new to many classroom practitioners. The notion of engaging students' personal interests and identities is something that many experienced language teachers have intuitively recognized as important, and is a principle that has often found its way into the language teacher training literature in the shape of buzzwords like *learner-centered teaching, authentic communication,* or *personalization.* However, surprisingly perhaps, it is only relatively recently that these longstanding principles of effective practice have begun to be informed by, or perhaps to inform, theoretical analyses of L2 motivation. As I have argued elsewhere (Ushioda 2009), the field of L2 motivation research has tended to preoccupy itself with abstract constructs and with learners as theoretical bundles of variables, rather than with language learners and teachers as people who bring uniquely individual identities, histories, goals, and intentions, and who inhabit complex and dynamic social realities.

A clear challenge and direction for the future will be to promote much closer integration between research and practice in relation to L2 motivation, with more in the way of theorizing from practice and analysis of teachers' classroom experience through various forms of classroom-focused practitioner research such as action research (e.g., Edge 2001; Wallace 1998) or exploratory practice (Allwright 2003; Allwright and Hanks 2008); and the inclusion of language learners' own voices and perspectives (e.g., Lim 2002) to illuminate our understanding of how motivation from within develops and evolves in interaction with individual experience and the social environment.

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CHAPTER 9

hing Mixed Level Classes

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INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss the challenges that the teacher faces with a class where the students have significantly different levels of language skill. It will explore the different ways in which student background can affect classroom performance and offer some guidelines for the best way to address these challenges.

BACKGROUND

As most teachers have discovered, every class demonstrates a mix of ability to some extent. Even in a school setting where children from similar backgrounds are being introduced simultaneously to a new language, within a short period of time some children will demonstrate control of the introduced material while others struggle. Perhaps the stronger students have spent a vacation in the target language environment and picked up a sense of the sound system. They may spend time on-line in the target language, or enjoy listening to foreign music. Their uaturally preferred learning style may be reflected in the approach demonstrated by the teacher. Or, they may simply be better students with greater interest in language learning and a solid attendance record. Whatever the reason, the teacher will soon find that there is significant variation in student performance even within a group of learners who seem to be matched for age, native language, and ability.

These differences are minor, however, compared to those displayed in many programs where learners from widely different personal backgrounds may be grouped together. Most commonly this happens when there is a small population of learners and economic factors preclude the possibility of different classes for each level of language skill, though there may be other reasons. For example, in countries that welcome immigrants, many schools put all new arrivals into a reception class, in order to offer orientation and carry out assessment, and the range of skills and needs may be very large. Adult classes are also places where enormous variation in level can be encountered as such programs commonly have a policy of accepting everyone who wishes to attend. Such classes may attract highly qualified persons looking to polish their skills prior to enrolling in higher education, as well as new arrivals with no English and very little education in the mother tongue.

There is no doubt that the teacher faces many challenges in attempting to address the needs of all students in such a class and the level of language ability is only one of the issues to be considered (Ellis 1994; Skehan 1991; Chamot 2005). In a very varied class, such as those described above, the teacher needs to take a number of other critical parameters into account in planning lessons as well. In addition to the individual differences in learning style mentioned above, we need to consider factors pertaining to the students' previous experience with education, the country and culture of origin, and the students' current situation.

A student's previous experience with education will have a major impact on progress (Spolsky 1989). Those with many years of schooling in their own country may not speak the target language, but they have learned valuable study skills, and have literacy skills in their first language that allow them to record and review their acquisition of the new language (Lee and Schallert 1997). Those with little or no schooling have to learn very much more than the target language, and their progress will typically be very slow (Pica 1983). The specific linguistic and cultural background will also make a difference (Clément 1986; Connor 1996; Odlin 1989; Selinker 1992). Learners whose native tongue is closely related to the target language, for example French speakers learning Italian, will find similarities of sound system, vocabulary, structure, and script, all of which make learning easier. Chinese speakers in the same Italian class however, would face considerably greater challenges. Clearly the languages are very different, and they are written in a different script. But another less obvious challenge would be the cultural expectations around appropriate classroom behavior (Atkinson 1999; Bax 2003; Oxford 1996; Prodromou 1992). Italian classrooms are less likely to make use of the strong memorization skills that the Chinese students would have developed and might expect them to take more initiative than the students feel comfortable with.

As mentioned above, individual students will vary in terms of such personal qualities as learning style, study skills, and motivation (Chastain 1975; Schumann 1976; Gardner and MacIntyre 1993; Clement, Baker, and MacIntyre 2003). They may face challenges regarding the possible shift in identity that the new language suggests (Bell 1997, 2002; Pavlenko and Lantolf 2000; Kramsch 2000). Their performance will also be affected by factors outside of the classroom, such as other time commitments or access to speakers of the target language (Collentine and Freed 2004; Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey 2004). Particularly for adult learners, the out-of-school environment can be crucial, with some students making regular use of the target language in the workplace or in social interactions while others are able to fulfill all their obligations using the native tongue.

For all the above reasons, students arrive with varied expectations, abilities, and needs (Ehrman and Oxford 1995; Gardner and MacIntyre 1992) and every teacher to some extent must face the challenges of designing a program that addresses the concerns and interests of students of different abilities. The challenges are of course significant. We need to design a curriculum that can engage students of widely different skill levels and allow for each student to make the maximum possible progress. We need teaching methodologies that engage beginners without boring advanced students. We need good assessment techniques, even though no known test might cover the range of levels our classes include. We also have to be conscious of the social dynamics and find ways to ensure that the class does not split itself into two separate groups, or that weaker students are not made to feel inferior or denied participation opportunities (Lave and Wenger 1991). And we need to recognize

that our preparation time is limited, and it simply isn't feasible to design individualized learning materials on a daily basis.

KEY ISSUES

ASSESSMENT

The first significant issue for the teacher of the mixed level class to bear in mind is the importance of assessing the needs and abilities of individual students. We cannot simply teach to the middle of the group and hope that all students will take from our lessons exactly what they need (Boyd and Boyd 1989; Wrigley and Guth 1992). Finding suitable assessment instruments to use in a very mixed level class is a real challenge, and some teachers may feel that in those situations where there is no choice of placement, or there are no other classes to graduate to, there is little point in formal assessment. However, it is very easy in a multilevel class for students to coast along without making much progress. Because student performance is so varied, the teacher may not notice the lack of progress until a considerable amount of time has been wasted. It is critical therefore that we find out where each student sits iu terms of language and literacy skills. Only in this way can we develop appropriate materials, and monitor progress.

It is important to remember that the various aspects of language skill do not necessarily develop in tandem. Sometimes, for example, we assume that the silent student doesn't understand when in fact the listening skills may be quite strong. Similarly, confident speech may mask very limited literacy skills. Our assessments have to be fairly detailed therefore to decide the level of functioning in all the major skill areas. For teachers in programs with formal assessment requirements, the placement tests should provide the information required. In very mixed, open-entry classes, with a range of literacy levels, language backgrounds, and educational backgrounds, however, it is unlikely that formal instruments will be available that cover the range of abilities. Classes that meet for only a few hours per week cannot afford to spend the time working through a wide range of formal assessment procedures. In such situations, the most efficient way to get at least some preliminary information about all students is to present the needs assessment procedures as the activities for some of the first lessons. The use of a tape recorder left running throughout the activity will give the teacher a chance to process some of the information at a later time, especially if students are eucouraged to give their name before they speak.

There are many activities that can be helpful as preliminary assessment tools, but all will have certain priuciples in common. They will begin with very easy material and rapidly become increasingly difficult, so that the amount of material covered will give an indication of student level. They will address student needs and interests. Finally, the choseu activity will encourage students to work without teacher input, so that the teacher is free to observe and make notes as to the speed and strategies with which tasks are approached.

One example might be "Tell me about yourself" – a written, one-page sheet that has three or four literacy tasks of increasing complexity. The first item might be a very simple form asking for basic personal information. After this might be three or four questions requiring only a *yes* or *no* response (e.g., Are you married?), followed by another set of questions requiring a short answer (e.g., How long have you been in this country?), and finally, an open-ended, written task (e.g., Tell me about your previous educational experience).

Such a sheet is by no means the perfect assessment instrument, but it will quickly give the teacher a sense of the student's literacy skills. Even with no English, students literate in their own language will pick up on the form layout of the first section and guess that it asks for their name. The smoothness of the student's writing and the amount of time taken to complete the questions will provide other clues as to the first language literacy skills. The *yes / no* format of the next section will offer an easy way to demonstrate comprehension, without being called on to generate much English, while the short answer questions of the third part allow for confident students to elaborate a little on their answers. Finally of course, not all students will attempt the open-ended last section, but those who do will provide the teacher with a writing sample that will help to determine needs and abilities. Used in conjunction with a recorded, talk-based activity to assess oral skills, this document can act as a baseline for comparison throughout the course and enable to the teacher to both measure and demonstrate progress.

DESIGNING THE CURRICULUM

Once we have identified the needs and abilities of our mixed-level class, our next major challenge is designing the curriculum (Burns and Hood 1995; Yogman and Kaylani 1996). What can we teach that is relevant to widely different students and that allows for everyone to work at their own level? Hierarchical approaches to curriculum design will not usually be suitable for the mixed-level class, as they assume control of early items in the presentatiou of new items. Typically, the best approach is to go with a theme-based curriculum (Bell 2004) in which an area of interest to most of the class is chosen to provide coherence to a set of activities that can be completed at different levels of complexity. Suitable topics will be determined by the broad parameters of class make-up, if possible taking student input into account. Popular music, social networking sites such as Facebook, Web page design, or sports might be of interest to a group of teenagers. Younger studeuts might enjoy a unit on animals, and older ones might welcome orientation information on their new city or about healthcare. Whatever the topic chosen, it should allow for exploration in many aspects and be neither too large to cover appropriately nor too small to provide challenge for some weeks of work.

Most topics will naturally incorporate language at different levels of complexity. Popular music for example might offer very simple repetitive language in certain lyrics, but provide for more complex use in writing fan letters, or staging mock interviews of celebrities. Activities that centre around the content of the topic will typically encourage flueucy, as the focus will be on finding and expressing meaning. If the topic can incorporate some element of publication, the opportunity will arise for a natural focus on accuracy, to cover both important aspects of the language curriculum. This can be print publication – sharing the materials via posting ou bulletin boards in the corridor, or producing a small class newspaper or recipe book or similar. Or the material can be published online via the class Web site or as a blog. Most forms of publication incorporate a range of tasks that demand different skill levels, from copyediting to photography, allowing for all students to be involved.

Theme-based approaches will allow for all the students to be involved, but on their own they do not guarantee that a well-planned curriculum is being offered. Students need to be given opportunities to improve in all skills, literate and oral, productive and receptive, so the selection of activities has to provide a balance in these areas (Mitchell and Myles 2001). If students are writing a blog, for example, they will obviously be practicing their writing skills. If in order to write the blog they are required to do some research, they will have an opportunity to develop their reading skills, too. But the blog alone is not likely to improve their oral skills, so the teacher needs to find a way to either balance this with an oral activity in the next class, or to adapt the blog activity to bring an oral component into it. Two students of different language backgrounds might write a blog together, forcing them to orally negotiate content, or the blog might report on interviews or incorporate a

YouTube presentation. In ways like these, the teacher can ensure that all skills are being incorporated iuto the lesson plans.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION IN THE CLASSROOM

There are other parameters that teachers of mixed-level classes have to juggle. Students in a mixed-level class will not get the teacher's nndivided attention and have to learn to take some responsibility for their own learning. Nonetheless, it is important that each student should feel like a valued class member who is assured of the teacher's attention at some part of the session. While group work is a valuable tool for mixed-level teachers, it needs to be done within the context of a whole class which works together in different ways. Splitting the class up into two or three permanent divisions based on ability is not a successful strategy in the long run, as people will outgrow their placements, but be relnctant to move into nnfamiliar territory. Such groups also ignore the fact that students vary in terms of their skill level in different areas.

Ideally in each lesson, the teacher will have some activity that the whole class can do together, to encourage the sense of being a group. There will be some time when students of similar abilities work together, and some time when students of different abilities work together. And there will be some opportunity for students to work on their own. Each of these patterns offers a particular advantage for a specific type or types of language-based activity, so the teacher should choose the grouping pattern based on the purpose of the chosen activity (Bell 2004; Shank and Terrill 1995).

In general, accuracy work is best covered in homogeneons groups – that is, small groups of students of similar linguistic ability. These students will have similar syntactic or pragmatic needs (in the particnlar area under discussion), so it is possible for the teacher to do a targeted presentation on, for example, a grammar point. Such students can help each other with the practice exercises and can usefully check each other's work and learn from that process. Mixed-level or heterogeneous groups are much more useful for fluency work. The lower-level students are exposed to the richer vocabnlary and wider syntax of the stronger students and get useful practice at listenimg without being snbjected to the often overwhelming fluency of the native speaker. The more advanced speakers get an opportunity to talk a little more than their peers would allow, and depending on the activity, they may be also challenged to express themselves in different ways to encourage listener comprehension and be called upon to explain their own understandings, which makes an excellent form of review. Obviously, the teacher will want to ensure that the activity reqnires input from all participants, which can be easily done if the lower level students control the knowledge, as is the case in a personal interview or an activity based on a story that only the weaker students have read.

If the class is very varied, gronps will only address some of a student's needs, and the appropriate opportunity needs to be available for the strong writer whose pronunciation needs work, or the fluent speaker whose grasp of basic syntax is very poor. To address problems like these, the use of self-access materials is very valuable. The teacher builds up a set of activities that the students can select for themselves and work on individually. Some teachers, (usually teachers of adults) run their entire curriculum in this way, but most teachers prefer to have a specified period of time for such work – perhaps 30 minutes once a week. Ideally, a wide range of materials will be available, including activities that focus on reading, writing, speaking, listening, pronunciation, and if relevant, orientation. The materials will usually include the correct responses so that students can mark their own work, as it is important that the teacher be free to observe progress, guide students toward appropriate selections, and so on.

The choice of items provided will vary with the age of the class, and the setting in which the target language is being taught. Many teachers make use of laminated exercises to be written on in washable marker and cleaned off after use. The activity might originate in a tom-apart workbook, or be a blank birthday card, application form, or telephone message. A range of reading material drawn from newspapers, flyers, comics, books, or magazines might be included along with some comprehension questions. Conversations on cassette or disc would offer listening practice, or pronunciation work. Computer-based work will also be available, ranging from access to language teaching software to treasure hunt Web searches and the like. It is very easy to address special interests in such material, including articles on sports, fashion, cookery, or mechanics to reflect the passions of class members.

Useful though these varying forms of group and individual work are, it is important to remember the affective factors at work (Gardner and MacIntyre 1993) and the importance of maintaiming class cohesion. Ensuring that each class either begins or ends with a whole group activity helps the students feel comfortable and able to work with all class members. There are a number of ways in which this can be usefully arranged. There are situations such as social chitchat at the beginning of class where people are greeted and complimented, perhaps with some comment on weather or major news items. Beginners may contribute very little, but they are learning important patterns of social interaction in the target language and are always free to offer a remark when they feel ready to do so. Another useful starter activity is the introduction of material via a visual source, which the class can all look at together but which will be followed by a range of different activities. The starter might be a YonTnbe clip, a short TV excerpt, a demonstration by a guest, or even just a discussion of a large poster or piece of artwork. Following the presentation and some brief discussion in which certain key vocabulary items are raised, students can be asked to work on different exercises according to their level.

Interview qnestionnaires are another useful activity that encourages interaction of all class members. Students are given a list of class members along with some basic questions that they must find the answer to. Typically the first question is very easy and can be answered with *yes* or *no*, e.g., "Do you walk to class?" Later questions will be more complicated, such as "How long does it take you?" or "Which route do you take?" If beginners only cover one question, they have still had the chance to interact with every class member, find ont their name and record the response. More advanced students will try to cover all the material in the same time frame, but they will require the assistance of the beginners to do so.

The third basic approach to getting the whole class to work together is to choose a task that allows everyone to contribnte to the same finished product, but doing different tasks of varying complexity. Planning a party, producing a play, publishing a newsletter, creating a class Web site are all activities that will involve a host of tasks, from easy to demanding. Working together in this way involves students in meaningful language use as well as bnilding a positive affective atmosphere.

CONCLUSION

In summary, there are ways of making the mixed-level class a satisfactory learning experience for all concerned, but they do make demands on the teacher. It simply is not possible to work from a textbook in this situation, and the teacher needs to be willing to think more creatively about the focus of the lessons and the balance of activities to ensure that all students are working on relevant and useful material and making reasonable progress. It is very important too that the teacher encourage the students to take responsibility for their

own learning. Students should be making sensible selections during the self-access period to address their weaknesses, not demonstrate their strengths. They should be encouraged regularly to carry out self-assessment activities, sharing with the teacher their view of individual progress. They should be maintaining a portfolio of best work to support such a review and to make them conscious of areas of strength and weakness. By involving the students in such tasks, teachers of mixed-level classes do more than merely minimize the demands on themselves, useful though such help can be. They help their students to develop the habit of self-reflection as a learner, which ultimately contributes to greater learning.

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CHAPTER 10

Teaching Large Classes

Fauzia Shamim

INTRODUCTION

Teachers have for a long time felt a sense of discomfort in teaching large classes. While there is growing evidence of the benefits of smaller classes, particularly for minority and high-risk students in early grades (Word et al. 1990; Nye, Hedges, and Konstantopoulos 1999; Blatchford 2003), class size reduction is a very expensive educational reform (AERA 2003). Thus creating smaller classes may not be a viable option for the majority of governments in the developing world. Hence, it seems pertinent to shift focus from arguing that "smaller is better" to exploring ways of improving teaching-learning in large classes (Shamim 2010). This is what this chapter aims to do. The chapter will begin with a brief overview of teaching-learning in large classes. Some key issues in large-class teaching will then be identified and their implications for effective practice discussed.

BACKGROUND

OVERVIEW OF TEACHING-LEARNING IN LARGE CLASSES

Before any discussion on teaching large classes can take place, it is first essential to discuss what is meant by a large class. There is no single definition of a large class. What is defined as a large class in one context may be considered a small class in another context – or even at different levels of education in the same context (Coleman 1989a). This lack of a shared definition is due to the fact that learner numbers alone are not sufficient for defining a large class. A number of other variables influence teachers' and learners' perceptions of class size, these include: physical space in the classroom, teachers' and learners' current and prior experience of class size, and teachers' preferred methodology and teaching style (Shamim 1993). In this chapter, large classes are considered to comprise 50 or more students in an under-resourced classroom or educational setting.

Teachers consider teaching large classes both problematic and burdensome (Jimakorn and Singhasiir 2006; Shamim 1994). Specific problems noted in large class teaching include: low levels of student involvement, issues in classroom management, assessment and feedback, limited resources and physical discomfort (Coleman 1989b; Coleman 1991; Shamim 1993; Shamim et al. 2007). Additionally, in several countries, such as Pakistan, Ethiopia, Egypt, and Tanzania, large classes are often accompanied by other difficult circumstances, such as pressure to complete the syllabus and teachers' lack of training in English language teaching (see for example, Shamim et al. 2008).

Although the research on teaching large classes is limited, a small number of publications do offer teachers practical ideas for coping with large classes. These include regional publications, such as *SPELT Quarterly* (a journal of the Society of Pakistan English Language Teachers; see e.g., Waqar and Mahmood 2009), and reports and training manuals published by donor agencies working in Asia and Africa (e.g., Benbow et al. 2007; Valerien 1991). Strategies for handling large classes can also be found in teachers' handbooks (e.g., Hess 2001).

CURRICULUM MODELS AND MATERIALS

In English language teaching, developing countries are often influenced by curriculum models and materials developed for use mainly in small classes in the West, for example, the communicative language-teaching approach with its focus on learning through interaction in the classroom (Holliday 1994a). However, the dynamics of large classes have been found to be different from those of smaller classes (Holliday 1996; Shamim 1996). This situation calls for the development of different and more important, contextually appropriate, curriculum models and materials for large-class teaching (cf. Holliday 1994b).

KEY ISSUES

APPROACHES TO LARGE CLASS TEACHING

Two broad approaches to large-class teaching were identified by Shamim (1993). These are: (i) small-class approach; (ii) problems-solutions approach.

SMALL-CLASS APPROACH

In the small-class approach, teachers attempt to transfer the methodology developed for well-resourced small classes, such as the communicative approach to teaching grammar, to large classes in educational settings often characterized by limited resources and other difficult circumstances. Successful adaptation and use of these approaches may lead to strengthening teachers' beliefs in the efficacy of these approaches (Azer 1990; Touba n.d.). Alternatively, the large size of the class may eventually lead teachers to abandoning the innovative strategy and reverting to "survival strategies," such as dictating essays or writing essays on the board for students to copy and learn by rote (Shamim 1993).

PROBLEM-SOLUTION APPROACH

In this approach, teachers and teacher educators use their initiative and creativity to find solutions. For example, Holliday (1991) developed a methodology for large-class teaching based on the principles of "distance methodology." This methodology, informed by an ethnographic study of classroom culture, involved designing group tasks with clearly written instructions to address the specific constraints of large classes in that context, i.e., the physical distance between the teacher and the learner, poor acoustics, and related problems. The success of this methodology depended on students' ability to work independently in groups, something they were observed as doing even when traditional methodology was being used in their large classes.

PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES

Several instructional techniques, largely developed in response to problems faced in large class teaching, have been suggested for teaching English in large classes more effectively. These include ideas for applying student-centered teaching in large classes with limited resources (Long 1977; Renaud, Tannenbaum, and Stantial 2007; Shamim et al. 2007; Wilhelm 2006), and using innovative methodology for teaching language skills, such as the process approach for teaching of writing skills in a large class (Collins 1991).

Management of large classes has been identified as a major problem (Coleman 1989a). Accordingly a number of strategies has been suggested to address this issue. Coleman (1989c, 23) classified the approaches to management of large classes, found in the literature, into three categories as follows: (i) plenary approaches; (ii) interactive approaches; (iii) compromise approaches (see Long 1987 and Coleman 1987 in the following section on teacher research and classroom experiments). According to Coleman, unlike the plenary approaches of teacher-fronted "lecture" and choral drilling, both the interactive and compromise approaches require that learners should be given more responsibility. However, in compromise approaches, the classroom is seen only as a place for organizing learning and giving feedback and advice for learning that essentially is to take place outside the classroom.

Small-group work has long been recommended as a strategy for managing large classes. Among others, Littlejohn (1987) and Renaud, Tannenbaum, and Stantial (2007) have offered practical ways of organizing learning in groups in large classes. Littlejohn recommends dividing the class into three or four proficiency levels, or bands, and then subdividing them into smaller groups of six or seven students; each band of students can be given exercises of different difficulty level (defined as *closed*, *guided*, or *free*). Renaud, Tannenbaum, and Stantial on the other hand, emphasize the need for training learners to work collaboratively in groups. This includes talking to students about the need for using language for communication and planning short and simple activities for introducing pair and group work. Additionally, setting classroom rules, establishing routines, and creating a seating chart can help deal with discipline problems in a large class. Touba's (n.d.) account of using groups in content-based large classes of adult students in Egypt also highlights the importance of careful planning of tasks and procedures for organizing learning in groups in large classes.

Individualization and monitoring of student learning, and evaluation of their written work have been noted as other major problems in large-class teaching (Coleman 1989a). Difficulties in identifying individual students and monitoring their progress in large groups led Duppenthaler (2000) to develop photo roll cards for "identifying, monitoring, recording, and responding to students" (p.1). More generally, peer assessment and feedback are recommended as ways of encouraging learner responsibility and developing skills for critical evaluation of their work (see for example, Shamim et al. 2007). This also helps in reducing teacher workload.

The pedagogical practices found in the literature mainly follow the problem-solution approach. As such they address discrete problems faced in large-class teaching in different contexts. Hence, they remain, at best, a plethora of techniques rather than a holistic approach toward large-class teaching.

TEACHER RESEARCH AND CLASSROOM EXPERIMENTS IN LARGE-CLASS TEACHING

Large classes do not always lead to ineffective teaching. In fact, sometimes they can become a stimulus for teacher research and for developing innovative curricular and instructional approaches. However, this reorientation requires a shift in teachers' attitude toward large classes. When teachers identify the constraints of teaching and learning in different large-class contexts, they begin to see large classes as beneficial. For example, the issue of learner heterogeneity in large classes stimulated a small group of teachers in Bangalore, India, to undertake classroom research on ways of addressing the diverse needs of their learners. This experience of collaborative research, in turn led to group members' personal and professional development (Naidu et al. 1992).

Large classes have sometimes led individual teachers to develop innovative strategies and undertake small-scale research on their effectiveness in the context of their own classrooms. For example, Sarwar (2001) developed, at a college in Karachi, Pakistan, contextually appropriate strategies for developing learner autonomy amongst her learners. For this purpose she defined learner autonomy in two ways: (i) individualizing learning tasks; and (ii) individualization in class. The former included self-study and self-help tasks based on radio news and tapes with songs and stories. For the latter, a range of strategies were devised to get to know the learners individually, such as name tags and learner profile cards. The use of various individualized activities helped to make teaching-learning more meaningful both for the teacher and the learners. In addition, it allowed Sarwar to address other issues in her context, i.e., dependent learners and their lack of exposure to real-world English. Similarly, Long (1987) devised new ways of teaching writing to a group of 120 students at the Hong Kong Polytechnic. Based on the principles of learner autonomy and cooperative learning in small groups, Long introduced a project called SHOP, a self-study English language writing course. By redistributing the time and resources available, he was able to play a greater range of administrative and supportive roles, such as counselor and social event manager.

Large classes have also been instrumental in initiating change beyond the individual teacher or classroom. Coleman (1987) introduced a task-based approach to change the "ritual" of a teacher-centered mode of interaction in large classes at Hasannuddin University in Indonesia. The Risking Fun project involved 25 lecturers and 2,500 students. A task typically comprised a series of activities, each with a problem to be solved through learner-learner interaction. These purposeful activities facilitated learners and teachers in taking on new roles: "all participants were equally active throughout the event" (p.103).

Burgess (1989) was faced with a situation in which a large number of students with varied backgrounds and ability levels were learning English at the University of La Laguna, Tenerife, in Spain. Two major issues identified were: (i) traditional teacher-learner roles, and (ii) selection and sequencing of syllabus content. Burgess began with the assumption that anything that could be done with 15 students could be done in a class of 100 students. She negotiated with the learners to bring about a change in the syllabus content; a learner-training component was also added to the course. This, in turn, facilitated her in restructuring teaching-learning inside and outside the classroom, by reducing contact time with the large group, creating smaller groups for tutorial sessions and introducing a system of "revolving roles" of teacher, materials selector / designer, the observer, and learner participant, to be shared equally in small groups. The success of this experiment was owed largely to ongoing negotiation with students and evaluating their responses to the changes made.

The above examples indicate the possibility of introducing effective strategies through creative thinking, teacher initiative and teacher-led research, and a more positive attitude toward large-class teaching. Changing teachers' attitudes toward large-class teaching could therefore be one of the major goals of teacher education.

TRAINING TEACHERS FOR LARGE-CLASS TEACHING

Gardner (1985) proposed that second-language learning should be viewed as a social psychological phenomenon. As such, "it is important to carefully consider the conditions under which it [second-language learning] takes place" (p. 4). Similarly, Locastro (2001) identifies class size as, "part of a collection of essentially sociocultural variables that underlie a culture's educational system" (p. 495). Class size, as a feature of the social context of the classroom, can have a major influence on classroom interaction patterns and teachers' instructional practices (Shamim 1996). Thus, teachers of large classes need training in how to manage a "crowd" of learners among whom there will be great diversity if learners are to be provided with effective opportunities for learning.

Some of the studies discussed above show also that large classes do not, in and of themselves lead to more or less effective teaching (see also Nakabugo et al., n.d.). Hence teachers need to be trained in using the large-class context to their advantage, for example, by using students as a resource in environments that may have limited resources for teaching-learning.

Though the need for training teachers in large-class teaching is fairly well established, even a cursory look at the TEFL / TESL courses in developed countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom reveals that large-class teaching is not considered an area that should be included in the curriculum. (An exception is the Learning and Teaching in Large Classes module developed and taught by Hywel Coleman for some years in the 1990s in the M.Ed. TESOL program at the University of Leeds in the U.K. This module could not be sustained after Coleman left the department). Presently, the focus in language teacher education programs is on methodological approaches developed in, and mainly appropriate for, teaching in small-class settings (Holliday 1994a; 1994b). Unsurprisingly, large-class teachers find it difficult to implement these instructional approaches and strategies in their educational contexts (cf. Nolasco and Arthur 1990).

CONCLUSION

The need to focus on teaching large classes effectively cannot be overemphasized. However, a number of issues characterize large-class teaching. There are virtually no curriculum models or materials or pedagogical approaches designed especially for large-class teaching. As a result, teachers devise coping strategies to keep their heads up, as it were, in the sea of faces in a crowded classroom. However, if teachers have a positive attitude toward large-class teaching, they can use their large class context as a catalyst for rethinking teaching-learning in their large classes. This includes a shift in teacher-learner roles, with students taking more responsibility for their own and each others' learning both inside and outside the classroom. Teacher-led classroom research, grounded in the contextual reality of their large classes, may lead to implementing innovative pedagogical approaches and strategies more effectively.

The above discussion also points to the need for training teachers in adapting as well as developing contextually appropriate methodology for large-class teaching. The role of technology (see Levy this volume, chap. 29; Reinders this volume, chap. 30) in overcoming some of the issues identified in large-class teaching, such as learners' limited opportunities for interaction with the teacher and their peers (cf. Keyuravong and Maneekhao 2006),

could be explored at the institutional level. The issue of large-class teaching should also be brought more into center stage in programs developed for teacher education internationally. Finally, large-class teachers need to heed to Coleman's advice (1989a): "Be realistic" and "give more responsibility to the learners" (pp. 6–7).

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CHAPTER 11

Teaching Young Learners

Annamaria Pinter

INTRODUCTION

The majority of children in the world grow up in bilingual or multilingual coutexts, and as a result, they are exposed to different languages, often both formally and informally, throughout their childhood. Some children learn two or more languages in their family, while others have the opportunity to learn some primary school subjects (e.g., math or science) in a second language. By contrast, children in monolingual contexts come across foreign languages only rather "superficially," often in just one timetabled lesson per week at school.

Although these learning contexts vary a great deal, I believe that some general principles for good practice can be drawn from research into child Second Language Acquisition (SLA), The debate about whether it is better to start learning a second or foreign language in childhood, and if *yes*, at what age, has led to a large amount of research activity with rather mixed results. This chapter will attempt to outline some receut thinking about the age factor and then suggest some key principles for good classroom practice broadly applicable to a range of learning contexts.

BACKGROUND

In this section I propose to look at the definition of the "child learner" and consider some debates within child SLA, such as the mixed evidence regarding the existence of the Critical Period Hypothesis, the differences between younger and older learners in terms of the language acquisition processes, and the debate about the benefits of starting a language early in life in different second and foreign language contexts. The rationale for this brief overview of key issues is to help teachers contextualize their classroom practices and engage critically with the research literature by drawing on research that seems meaningful and relevant in their contexts.

How do we define "child learners" or "young learners" and what age brackets can be included in the definition? Nicholas and Lightbown (2008) suggest that balanced infant bilingualism is associated with exposure to two languages during the first two years of life. When a second language is introduced after age 2, we can define that process as child SLA because these children can already build on a reasonably well-established L1 system. Taking a broad educational definition of childhood, the upper age limit can be defined at around the age of 12, when children complete their primary / elementary education.

A great deal of interest has surrounded language learning in childhood because of the ongoing debate about the age factor and the so-called Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) (Lenneberg 1967). The Critical Period Hypothesis was proposed as a neurological explanation of the success of immigrant children as language learners (as compared with their parents). It is a concept borrowed from biology and it postulates that there is a defined period in a child's life (roughly between birth and adolescence) when the brain's plasticity allows for effortless language acquisition that leads to nativelike competence. However, as the brain gradually loses this plasticity with lateralization, this innate capacity to acquire languages weakens. In L1 acquisition, research shows that children who are not exposed to language at all early in life (e.g., deaf children or those who were abandoned or grew up in isolation) have indeed great difficulty in acquiring their L1 after puberty and cannot achieve normal competence (e.g., Mayberry and Lock 2003). However, studies related to the CPH in L2 learning have produced more mixed results. In the context of researching age effects in SLA, some studies explored how similar or different children's acquisition patterns are at different ages, while others explored whether younger children achieve better results than older learners, in order to tease out younger children's characteristics as language learners and their specific advantages.

It is clear that there are some universal developmental patterns of acquisition shared between L1 and L2 children, and in addition, L2 English acquisition processes are also similar across a variety of L1 backgrounds among child subjects. Similarities were identified in the area of morphosyntax in particular (e.g., Dulay and Burt 1974). At the same time, research also shows that L1 transfer is detectable in L2 children's output (e.g., Whong-Barr and Schwartz 2002) not just at the beginning of the acquisition process but over a much longer period of time. In fact, longitudinal studies have began to show that even after five years of acquisition in the target country, L2 children show distinctly nonnative features in their output. In Jia and Fuse's (2007) study it was reported that the age of arrival in the new country was not as important a factor as the children's social environment in terms of their progress in L2. Those who had more varied and richer opportunities to use their L2 progressed further regardless of their age of entry.

While the social influences on the L2 acquisition process cannot be denied, it is still the case that there are differences detectable between younger and older children's L2 acquisition processes. For example, a study by Dimroth (2008) that explored two untutored Russian beginners' acquisition of German as an L2 clearly showed that the younger learner (age 8) acquired some grammatical features in German in a different order compared with the older sister (age 14). There was evidence that the older learner's acquisition pattern was more similar to adult patterns, and there was also evidence that she analyzed grammatical structures more than the younger child, who seemed to assimilate the input without much analysis. Neurological experiments (using MRI scans of brain activity) also point to differences between younger and older L2 learners' L2 processing (e.g., Kim et al. 1997).

Studies that explored age differences in relation to the speed of L2 acquisition clearly show that older learners have an advantage as they progress faster in all areas of learning (e.g., Snow and Höfnagel-Höhle 1978), and in fact, this is the case in all types of contexts including foreign language contexts (e.g., Muñoz 2006). This is due to older learners' superior cognitive skills. However, over time, younger children often overtake their older counterparts. A whole range of studies have documented that in terms of their ultimate attainment in an L2, younger beginners in naturalistic contexts at least, often achieve more nativelike levels of competence (e.g., Flege, Yeni-Komshian, and Liu 1999; Johnson and Newport 1989) than older beginners. At the same time, we must be reminded that highly motivated adults who begin their L2 studies after puberty and learn their L2 in favorable circumstances can also achieve near-nativelike or even nativelike levels of L2 competence (e.g., Bongaerts 1999; Moyer 2004).

It is difficult to synthesize all the age-related research, not least because of the huge variation in the methodology applied and the different angles of interests. Regarding the CPH, the overall conclusion is that instead of a sensitive or critical period, "there is evidence of a gradual decline in L2 learning capacity throughout adulthood" (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 214) and this general decline describes L2 acquisition processes best. There has also been a major shift toward recognizing the importance of the social context and the uniqueness of individual learner trajectories. It seems that from the language educator's point of view it is more important to consider favorable circumstances for learning (e.g., plenty of opportunities for practice, access to good-quality teaching, supportive learning environment) rather than debating what might be the best age for starting to learn an L2 (Marinova Todd, Marshall, and Snow 2000).

It must be noted that the majority of the research concerning the age factor has been conducted in second language contexts where children are exposed to a great deal of comprehensible input, have opportunities to practice both at school and outside school (e.g., in immersion contexts), and have a strong motivation to fit in (e.g., immigrant children). Fewer studies have targeted foreign language contexts, but one well-known series of studies, the Barcelona Age Project (Muñoz 2006) has clearly confirmed that in foreign language contexts, too, older learners have an advantage over younger learners. Over time younger children do begin to catch up but they cannot overtake the older beginners. Some smaller studies have shown some modest advantage for children who started younger in foreign language contexts. For example, a research study in Slovakia suggests that children who started earlier and had six years of German outperformed those who started later and had only four years of German instruction (Garajová 2001). Doyé and Hurrell (1997) also reported that early learners of English could become superior to pupils who started later if the teaching was appropriate, if teachers were fully qualified, and if there was continuity between primary and secondary provision. When linguistic outcomes are not considered as the main measures of success, foreign language learning in primary schools can also be beneficial simply because it helps children to learn about other cultures, develop positive attitudes about languages, and promote language awareness.

When L2 competence is the goal, Marinova Todd, Marshall, and Snow (2000) remind us that that early formal language learning is beneficial, but

> only if teachers are themselves native or nativelike speakers and well-trained
> in the needs of younger learners; if the early learning opportunities are built
> upon with consistent, well-planned, ongoing instruction in the higher grades;
> and if the learners are given some opportunities for authentic communicative
> experiences in the target language. (p. 28)

Despite this clear message about favorable circumstances and the general lack of evidence about younger learners' advantage in formal contexts, many governments all over the world introduce a second / foreign language as a compulsory subject in primary school (e.g., Nikolov and Curtain 2000; Enever 2009).

KEY ISSUES

TEACHERS' ROLE: TOWARD CREATING FAVORABLE CIRCUMSTANCES

Whatever their contexts, teachers can make the biggest difference and have the biggest influence on children's L2 development. By analyzing and understanding their context and making the most of it, despite some obvious restrictions and even in difficult circumstances, teachers can promote positive attitudes and appropriate learning strategies, and they can find ways to encourage children to take risks in a positive, supportive learning environment. Whatever their circumstances, teachers can also take account of the children's needs and interests and carefully build on their L1 competence when planning instructional procedures and materials. It may also be possible to make some links between the rest of the curriculum and the L2 lesson so that some authentic opportunities for learning and practice can be created.

Teachers act as powerful role models. Marinova Todd, Marshall, and Snow and her colleagues (2000) suggest that language teachers of children need to be nativelike in their competence, and while this is unrealistic, it is important that teachers continue to take every opportunity to develop their own competence in the L2. An interesting study by Butler (2004) suggests that many primary English language teachers in Taiwan, Japan, and Korea, for example, do not feel they are well equipped to teach English in the primary school and would need to improve their language skills urgently. Teachers who take steps to develop their own competence in the L2 and seek out opportunities for development and practice set excellent examples for their students.

One of the most important tasks of the teacher in the primary school is to cultivate early opportunities for independent learning (e.g., Dam 1995). This is important in any learning context but especially important in contexts where the learning opportunities are limited. For example, in contexts where children learn an L2 as a timetabled subject for just one hour a week, it is crucial that teachers find ways for children to continue practicing the second / foreign language after school. This may involve "virtual" practice (e.g., making use of the Internet as a reading resource or communicating with other children after setting up links with schools from other countries). Teachers can build bridges between home learning and school learning by establishing lines of communication with parents and encouraging regular self-study at home.

BREAKING DOWN THE UMBRELLA TERM *YOUNG LEARNERS*

In order to tailor teaching procedures and materials to children's needs, it is important to break down the umbrella term *young learners* and consider the changing needs of children as they mature. Experience as well as empirical research show (e.g., Nicholas and Lightbown 2008) that there are important differences between younger children, typically below the age of 7 (2 to 7) and those above 7 (8 to 12) in terms of language learning. Although these differences are best seen on a coutinuum, as children's abilities and skills gradually evolve, the Table 11.1 indicates binary distinctions for convenience.

Younger children learn L2 languages without analyzing the input by simply absorbing what they hear. They remember new language in "chunks" and may show no interest in decoding how different words and grammatical structures function inside those chunks, whereas older children gradually develop an ability as well as an interest to tackle language analysis. In younger learners' classrooms effective L2 input / talk plays a crucial role. Such talk incorporates language modifications, repetitions and good models of pronunciation and intonation, and it is delivered with the help of effective gestures and other meaningful prompts. Teacher language is the main source of input for many children and the importance of the quality of the teacher talk cannot be exaggerated (e.g., Peñate Cabrera and Bazo

Characteristics of younger children (between the ages of 2 and 7)	Characteristics of older children (between the ages of 8 and 12)
Rely on memory	Rely on analysis
More focus on speaking / listening	More focus on reading and writing
Focus on one aspect of a task only	Focus on multiple aspects of tasks
Limited ability to reflect on one's learning or progress and assess one's performance	Better ability to reflect on one's progress and assess one's performance
Friendship patterns are random and based on proximity	Friendships are about trust and support, based on similar interests
Limited control of emotions	Better control of emotions
High motivation	Decreasing levels of motivation
Self-image is generally positive, learning optimism	Self-image is more sophisticated, more comparative and less positive
Less awareness about how language works and lower competence in L1	More awareness about how language works and growing competence in L1

Table 11.1 Contrasting younger and older children

Martínez 2001; Gibbons 2002). Teachers will be relying on speaking and listening skills with younger children whereas L2 literacy is likely to be incorporated into teaching materials for the older age groups. Older children are more curious about reading and writing and have usually established their L1 literacy, which allows them to transfer some useful strategies. Younger children require well-established routines including simple tasks that can be repeated to reinforce new language (such as listening to and responding to stories, playing simple games) whereas older learners can cope with more complex tasks that require sustained concentration, evaluation, analysis and collaboration with peers (e.g., Cameron 2001). Children also learn to evaluate their own abilities better as they grow older, and research shows that children above the age of 10 are reliable in assessing their own L2 performances (Butler and Lee 2006). Teachers with older children can successfully explore activities that encourage more independeut types of learning, leadiug to activities that foster learner autonomy (Dam 1995). Emotional and affective variables are important with all groups but younger learners especially require emotional support and constant reassurance from their teachers. Younger children seem to have more positive self-image and higher levels of intrinsic motivation (Nikolov 1999), whereas older learners gradually develop a less positive self-image and lose some of their early enthusiasm. It is therefore particularly important for teachers to foster positive motivational strategies (Ushioda this volume, chap. 10) with all age groups. While group work and pair work can be organized at a very basic level with younger children for games, older children's ability to take account of their peers' contributions makes it possible for teachers to use a wide variety of communication games and tasks (e.g., Pinter 2007). Children's developing L1 competence is also an important factor. Younger children are less able and less interested iu comparing their L1 and the

target language, whereas older children can rely on their L1 knowledge and skills, for example, by drawing comparisons, translating messages, and using dictionaries to look up words.

CHILDREN'S AGENCY

The field of SLA has been traditionally dominated by studies that explored children's second language performances from an adult perspective, using tests and tasks without involving the children more actively in the process of research. While this research has been enlightening and it needs to continue, there is also a need to learn about second / foreign language learning from the children's point of view. Following the declaration of childreu's rights by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations 1989) there has been a much wider recognition that whenever children are studied, they should be given more active roles and they should be more fully informed about the research processes. As Woodhead and Faulkner (2008, 34) emphasize, "significant knowledge gains result when children's active participation in the research process is deliberately solicited and when their perspectives, views and feelings are accepted as genuine, valid evidence." Traditional questionnaires and interviews to explore children's views and opinions are not always well suited to their needs, especially to youuger children's needs. Recently, more innovative ways of exploring children's views and opinions have been proposed. For example, "participatory methods" that may include working with drawings, maps, diagrams, drama, or stories (e.g., O'Kane 2000) have been experimented with. For example, Nagy (2009) used a simple participatory method to elicit children's views about their English classes, and according to the author, the drawings and the joint writing tasks allowed the children to construct their views collaboratively and opeuly in an enjoyable way. Other innovative methods might include so-called "visual methods" which can successfully elicit insights from children of all ages (e.g., Johnson 2008). The special strength of using visual methods is that they allow children with limited linguistic abilities to express themselves. Kellett (2005) suggests that older children can be taught basic techniques and thinking skills to become researchers to investigate issues that are important to them. While this is a truly exciting idea, it is probably not feasible in many classroom language-learning contexts. Nonetheless, the core message of giving children more agency during both the teaching / learning process and the research process can be embraced in any context.

CONCLUSION

Research in the area of child L2 learning and related pedagogy continues on many fronts, bringing together studies with a wide variety of methods, both quantitative and qualitative, those with a psycholinguistic, a cognitive, or a social focus. As a result of the fact that most research has targeted immersion contexts and second-language learning contexts, we know less about processes of language learning in foreign-language contexts. We also know less about multilingual classrooms and L2 contexts where languages other than English are learned. Most of the research that is published and disseminated is conducted by academics and there is a real need to publicize more teacher-led research so that good practice among teachers can be shared. It is hard to follow learners for longer periods of time, but longitudinal research is extremely valuable in uncovering the complexities of unique learner trajectories of different age groups in all kinds of contexts. Finally, there is also much more scope for children themselves to take a more active role in their own learning and the research that targets them as language learners and users.

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CHAPTER 12

hing Teenagers

el K. Legutke

INTRODUCTION

Teenagers constitute by far the largest subpopulation of English language learners in the world, since the foreign language requirement of most secondary educational systems has been met by introducing English as the first foreign language of choice. Whatever the cultural differences that divide them, teenagers share the experience of transiting from childhood to adulthood via the phases of puberty and adolescence. Teenagers are funda-mentally "heterochronous subjects" (Lemke 2003, 81), because they are both at the same time, the children they were and the adults they will become. Challenged to (re)construct themselves and find their identity they resort to a wide range of expressive styles, music preferences, commitment to sports and social activities; all of which contribute to what is generally referred to as youth culture (Hebdige 1979; Diller et al. 2000; Blossfeld et al. 2006). The emotional turmoil of the teen years – coming to grips with insecurity and vul-nerability and at the same time finding appropriate ways of expressing their new selves – is played out in secondary school. For these crucial years the classroom becomes a focal point where the creativity unleashed by puberty and adolescence can inspire learning, but where also the ambiguities and the turbulence of these phases can render learning quite difficult or even problematic.

This chapter starts off with a summary of major trends and changes that have impacted the EFL classroom since the communicative turn in language pedagogy. It goes on to identify how these changes need to be taken into consideration when working with teenagers. This will be followed by a set of questions and proposals that should help teachers in accommodating teenagers' needs.

BACKGROUND

THE COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM REVISITED: CHANGES, TRENDS, AND ISSUES

The communicative turn in language teaching has moved the language classroom, with its dynamic nature, into the center of pedagogical interests following the basic assumption that learners will only be communicatively competent outside the classroom if communication has been experienced in the classroom itself with the L2 as the main means through which the classroom's culture is managed (Breen and Candlin 1980; Breen 1985; Legutke and Thomas 1999). The following trends have substantial consequences for the language classroom and call for its reconceptualization:

Although the classroom has never been the only space for encounters with English, no past generation has had such wide *out-of-school exposure to English*. Three main sources have been identified: media, personal networks (family and friends), and intercultural contacts through traveling (Berns, de Bot, and Hasbrink 2007; Leppänen 2007). This exposure to the target language in their free time could provide a rich source of learning, which, however, seems to be widely neglected by mainstream language pedagogy. On the basis of a large scale study of ninth-grade learners and their teachers in Germany, Grau comes to the conclusion that "many teachers do not seem to take their students' free-time involvement with English language texts seriously, neither as a potential context for learning English nor as a relevant activity they could contribute to by providing students with listening and viewing strategies in class" (Grau 2009, 171). For this reason the classroom needs to be redefined as an arena where these different contexts for language exposure and language use are linked in a meaningful way.

In many parts of the world teenagers qualify as "digital natives" who have grown up with computers and multimedia cell phone technology (Palfrey and Grasser 2008 Rosen 2007). These teenagers have not only learned to expand their social relations in the real world to virtual communities maintaining friendships through online networks, but also succeeded in recreating their real selves through multiple representations on the Net (e.g. in Facebook or Myspace communities). Digital natives can easily both access vast amounts of multimodel texts and construct them by collating written with visual and audiovisual text elements. The most popular activities in the Myspace environment in 2006 were concerned with posting photographs and videos (Rosen 2007, 78). Even if such digital skills are not equally distributed in a specific classroom, they will increasingly be available among learners. This raises two questions: How can the EFL classroom profit most effectively from such skills? Secondly, what pedagogical guidance do teenagers need, so that they learn to use the affordances of the digital world responsibly and critically for the growth of their communicative competence?

Since the 1980s the *cultural dimension of foreign language learning* has continuously gained prominence in second and foreign language education. Communicative compe-tence, the traditional goal of language teaching which was oriented toward native speaker norms of English-speaking cultures, has been broadened to the concept of *intercultural* communicative competence (Byram 1997; Risager 2007). In the current age of globaliza-tion, worldwide migration, and mobility, the education of the interculturally competent citizen has become a key goal of language learning to which the secondary school needs to contribute. Whereas in the past the assumption was that teenagers learn to communicate with native speakers of English, the notion of the intercultural speaker pertains to young people who have learned to communicate appropriately with English speakers from diverse cultural backgrounds. This competence includes the ability to change one's perspective and understand others, but also the ability to reflect on their own views and attitudes, and thus understand themselves. This fundamental change in pedagogical orientation does also

justice to the fact that English has become a lingua franca. In fact, teenagers in many parts of the world are much more likely to use English as a main means of communication with peers who also learn English as a foreign language rather than with native speakers (Grau 2009). What then are the features of the EFL classroom committed to the education of the intercultural speaker?

Closely related to the previous issue is the radical change of the classroom's inhabitants. Whereas a few decades ago EFL classrooms were predominately monolingual and monocultural, teachers now have to face a growing number of *multilingual learners* and language users. What Kramsch (2009) found when analyzing testimonies and language learning memories of American college language learners is more than relevant for secondary education. Kramsch argues that language education has to transform the established notions of monolingual native speakers, of homogeneous target cultures and functional criteria of success, because these notions "have all become problematic in a world that is increasingly multilingual and multicultural" (p. 190). To prepare learners adequately for the complexities of a multilingual world she calls for a new language classroom which not only takes the language learning histories of the learners seriously, but also allows for exploratory ventures into meaningful forms of (self-)expression engaging the whole personality of the learners; for they apprehend and create the foreign language and create meaning "with all their senses: the sounds, the shapes, the tastes of words, and other symbolic forms" (p. 203). Becoming multilingual not only means that learners explore alternative ways of representing themselves, and thus broadening their identities, but also becoming aware – through a critical reflection of these representations – of the preconceived notions they bring to the classroom.

One final trend with far reaching implications needs to be mentioned here. By the year 2010, *almost all European countries had mandated foreign language education in the primary schools*, thus making it a core element of basic education. With very few exceptions, the language of choice is English, a trend which is in keeping with worldwide developments (Legutke, Müller-Hartmann, and Schocker-v. Ditfurth 2009). With the introduction of primary EFL programs, teachers in the secondary school have not only lost a chance to participate in a highly rewarding experience in their professional lives: opening the world of a new language and culture to children, but also are confronted with new challenges. When children arrive at secondary school today they have already gone through this exciting phase of initial contact with the new language with a different teacher. Therefore, they expect that their experiences will be recognized and appreciated. The situation, however, is far from easy, because articulation between primary and secondary school is lacking, standards seem to differ and teachers' professional competence varies considerably. Again, the traditional secondary EFL classroom requires rethinking, because its inhabitants have changed dramatically: How can the primary children's need for continuity be recognized in the secondary school, i.e., how can their learning history, their achievements and needs for continuous support be taken seriously?

In view of these trends with their potential and challenges the question is what teachers can do to accommodate teenagers' needs. The following set of principles, questions and strategies could guide teachers' decision making.

KEY ISSUES

ACCOMMODATING TEENAGERS' NEEDS

In many countries teenagers will enter secondary school in the crucial phase of puberty when their achievements in the primary school need to be appreciated to maintain and build their confidence. At the same time, however, effort and perseverance need to be stimulated through new and interesting challenges (Scheidecker and Freeman 1999). Since most secondary English teachers have to follow a school or state curriculum, often materialized in a particular textbook, accommodating teenagers' needs has to start from this premise. The key question therefore is whether the textbook provides enough content for language use that engages teenagers in their multiple quests for meaning and provides appropriate opportunities for their creative expression and experimentation with the target language. The critical analysis of current textbooks will consist of (1) a search for topics, tasks, and texts, (2) a search for authentic encounters and (3) a search for appropriate methodology. The concrete answers to the analysis may result in only minor changes of the textbook, in the replacement of texts within a particular topic, or lead to the supplementation of whole units.

SEARCH FOR APPROPRIATE TOPICS, TASKS, AND TEXTS

The first critical question for the teacher is whether the topics engage both the teenagers who are about to leave their childhood behind and the adults they might become. Do the topics really engage the "heterochronous subjects"? But topics alone do not suffice, because they need to be connected to appropriate tasks that stimulate the exploration of the topic and shape the space for learners for alternative and creative ways of expression. Do the tasks of the textbook really promote such expression? Do the learners find a way to speak, write, and act as themselves? What changes need to be implemented? Quite often, a more personalized task at the end of a sequence or a unit can open new perspectives. Teachers can draw on a number of resource books that offer ways of personalizing the course book (Lewis 2007; Lindstromberg 2004; Puchta and Schratz 1998; Rinvolucri 2002).

The same critical question needs to be addressed to the texts and genres the learners are confronted with. Do they have the power to engage the learners' interest? Many textbooks ignore poetic and narrative texts. Since the former play a major role in the life of teenagers, learners could certainly help in supplementing the textbook with songs and lyrics for appreciation and discussion. Also, narratives constitute an integral part of teenage life. Dramatic events, critical incidents, diverse perspective, and interesting plots represented in narratives do not only challenge the learners as human beings but also allow for the staging of multiple discourse events in the classroom (role playing, simulations, reader's theater, talk shows, and poster sessions). A particularly rich source of stimulating and intriguing narratives for all groups of teenagers with different degrees of language competence can be found in the genre and multifarious subgenres of teenage fiction and young adult literature (Bushman and Parks 2006; Hesse 2009). Working with these texts in conjunction with films and video clips can serve a triple function: (1) by trying to make sense of characters' – their conflicts and hopes – learners can explore their own lives in an indirect and nonthreatening way; (2) through empathizing with and distancing themselves from the characters, they can acquire fundamental skills for understanding other people, an important step toward developing intercultural competence; (3) in articulating their reading experiences and expressing their views by means of spoken and written texts, they can participate in the discourse on what it means to grow up in present society.

SUPPORTING THE PRODUCTION OF LEARNER TEXTS

Appropriate topics, stimulating tasks and intriguing texts need to be supplemented by a wide range of spoken and written learner texts. Again the critical question for the textbook is: Are learners encouraged to experiment with the many resources they have available to create meaning? The notion of the learner text needs serious reconsideration. As an integral part of classroom discourse, learner texts are something positive and contributory, something to be displayed or staged in the classroom, the subject of collective engagement,

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CHAPTER 13

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INTRODUCTION

Adult English language learners represent significant and diverse populations of English language learners throughout the world. Their very diversity makes it difficult to easily define what we mean by adults in contrast to children. It should be clear to anyone who has taught adults that this diversity of age, as well as the diversity of motivations and backgrounds they bring to the task of learning, is manifested in the challenges to effective instruction. These challenges are particularly experienced by the significant portion of adult English language learners who lack high levels of formal education in their home languages, and who frequently work in low-paying jobs due to minimal literacy skills, or are unable to transfer professional level skills from their native countries due to insufficient English language skills.

In many countries adults are marginalized in formal education compared to children and adolescents. Resources go first to the education of children and youth. What is left over is then distributed to adult education programs. This marginal status has negatively impacted funding for research and the preparation of skilled teachers of these adult learners. The purpose of this chapter is to give the reader a sense of who these adult learners are, some of the challenges they face in learning English, and several strategies that have emerged in response to their unique characteristics.

BACKGROUND

Given the global movement of adult immigrants and refugees, the challenges facing adult educators in a number of English-speaking countries are remarkably similar. More successful responses to the needs of adult learners have resulted from an understanding of how adults are different from children in the teaching-learning transaction. Governments of major English-speaking nations have responded to the growing numbers of adult immigrants and refugees in their countries by developing programs that attempt to enhance the adaptation and assimilation of these adult populations into the mainstream of these countries.

Anyone interested in working with adult English language learners should be aware of several key issues. One key issue is knowledge of characteristics that differentiate adults from children in the teaching-learning transaction. Another key issue is knowledge of some of the program models in which instruction is delivered to adult learners. A third key issue is a familiarity with instructional strategies that recognize and build on those unique characteristics of adult learners.

KEY ISSUES

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADULT LEARNERS

We have come to understand adult learners as more than just grown-up children. Adult English language learners represent a wide variety of backgrounds and goals. Although the term *andragogy* had been used since the early part of the twentieth century in Europe, Knowles (1984) was the first adult educator in the United States to use the term to identify a set of unique characteristics of adult learners. According to Knowles' concept of andragogy, adults learn best when instruction takes advantage of their lived experience. Adults learn best when instruction is problem-based. This also implies that adult learners are motivated by an immediate need to know something. Mature adult learners tend to be more self-directed and less dependent than younger learners. Adults tend to come to the learning transaction with a readiness to learn based on their social role. Whereas children and adolescents tend more often to find themselves in a learning transaction determined by others and directed more toward academic goals and credentials, adults tend to find themselves in a learning transaction based on internal factors, a strong desire to learn for purposes of vocation, or personal need.

Adult English language learners in major English-speaking countries reflect a diverse set of characteristics. Many are immigrants or refugees and are permanently displaced from their homeland and need English for social survival. Many others may be professionally trained and are only temporarily living in their new setting. However, they may need English for professional reasons. In the United States, many adult English language learners who are immigrants or refugees are enrolled in federally funded, adult basic education programs and share more specific characteristics (National Center for ESL Literacy Education 2003; US Department of Education 2007): they tend to be between the ages of 20 and 45; they tend to have less than a high school education in their home country; they need ESL for job-related goals, either to be qualified for specific work or to be eligible for promotion within a job. Many others express a need to learn English in order to be able to help their children succeed at school (Wrigley and Guth 1992).

NATIONAL STANDARDS

More recently, standards have been introduced in several major English-speaking countries as a framework for determining curriculum and assessment. The Canadian government launched the Canadian Language Benchmarks in 1996, which were later revised in 2000 (Pettis 2007). The Canadian Benchmarks were informed by earlier work done by language educators in Australia to introduce literacy benchmarks into schools (Burns and de Silva Joyce 2007).

The standards movement in education in the United States began with the convening in 1989 of an education summit by the president with the governors of all 50 U.S. states. This body established, with the approval of the U.S. Congress, the National Education Goals Panel, which went on to establish eight national goals for education. Goal 6, the only goal that mentioned adult learners, stated, "By the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship" (National Education Goals Panel 1999, 20).

By 1994 federal legislation in the United States codified the work of the panel and established a National Education Standards and Improvement Council (NESIC) charged with reviewing and certifying voluntary state and national education standards. Out of this emerged the Equipped for the Future project in 1997, the national, standards-based, educational improvement initiative for adult basic education and English language learning (see eff.cls.utk.edu/), an attempt to establish a national standards-based curriculum for adult ESL and adult basic-education programs (Marshall 2002).

The professional organization TESOL has been an active leader in the development of standards for both K–12 and adult contexts. In 2003 TESOL published *Standards for Adult Education ESL Programs*, a first attempt to describe a quality program for teaching adult English language learners. This document was followed in 2008 by *Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults*, which attempts to answer the central question of what qualifies for effective teaching of adult English language learners. Both of these documents are important resources for adult educators, for those students in teacher preparation programs with the goal of teaching adults, and for administrators of programs for adult English language learners, especially those in English-speaking countries.

PROGRAM DELIVERY MODELS

Where does instruction of adult English language learners commonly take place? To answer this question we will examine various program models commonly found in adult education. These program models can be found in traditional higher education contexts such as community colleges, or intensive English programs in colleges and universities; workplace environments, community centers, such as libraries and churches, or informal tutorial settings in homes or elsewhere. They can also be found in correctional institutions and nonprofit organizations. When examining the contexts for instruction of adult English language learners in major English-speaking countries, it is worth noting that Australia, Canada, and the United Kingdom have more centralized educational systems and a longer history of public support for language instruction of adult learners (Murray 2005). Such is not the case in the United States where educational systems are more decentralized.

In the United States, the major source of funding for teaching adult English language learners is the Adult Education and Family Literacy Act, Title II of the Workforce Investment Act of 1998. As the name implies, a major requirement of the Workforce Investment Act calls for measuring effectiveness of local programs by how many students find employment as a result of their enrollment in a program funded by this legislation. This parallels the emphasis on job training in Canada, Australia, and the United Kingdom.

Given the variety of providers of adult ESL, it is not surprising that there is also great variety in the types of adult ESL programs. The great majority of programs providing adult ESL instruction are those that provide general instruction in basic skills, including conversation (aural and oral skills) and literacy (reading and writing). Not only do these programs focus on language development, they also provide help with life skills, such as accessing health care, employment, and housing (McKay and Tom 1999; Parrish 2004; Snow and Kamhi-Stein 2006).

Another common type of program for adult English language learners is found under the rubric of family literacy. What is unique about this program is that the family is treated holistically. Children are part of the learning unit. The major objective is how to use language to be more effective parents, helping children with school, and showing children how important education is through modeling. Family literacy programs recognize the important role of parents in the education of children.

A third type of program is one that focuses on helping the immigrant or refugee gain the permanent status of citizen of their new host country. The curriculum focuses on the structure and history of the host country's government and the responsibilities of citizenship within a democratic society, with the specific objective of enabling the adult learner to pass the citizenship exam.

Yet another type of program is more specifically job related. Known as vocational ESL, these programs offer specific instruction in skills required for specific occupations. The content of instruction is closely linked to the vocabulary and language necessary to obtain and keep employment in such technical areas as auto mechanics, computer applications, or cosmetology. Sometimes these programs are supported by an employer. Instruction offered at a work site and supported by an employer is known as *workplace ESL*. Workplace ESL is characterized by a curriculum that focuses on language and communication skills needed for success at the work site and has been developed with the approval of the employer.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

What are the challenges to instruction of adult English language learners? Often instructors will say that the reason why they so enjoy working with adult English language learners is because these learners tend to be highly motivated. For many teachers who may have been originally trained to work with children and adolescents, this motivation could provide a welcome relief to the challenges found among younger learners. However, there are challenges in the adult ESL context as well.

BASIC LITERACY

One challenge is presented by adults who come to the ESL class with low literacy skills in their first language (Wrigley and Guth 1992). Another challenge may come from students whose first language is a language not closely related to English or not written in the Roman alphabet. But this is not as difficult to overcome as the challenge represented by a lack of L1 literacy skills. Research among both younger and older English-language learners suggests that learners who lack comparable formal education in their first language offer some of the most significant challenges to successful learning of a second language.

Some programs have attempted to teach adult English language learners literacy skills in the native language before teaching English. Unfortunately, there is little research that has examined this challenge with adults. Offering native language support works as long as you have teachers who are knowledgeable in that language. In communities where the student population is all of one language background, it makes more sense to examine the role of native language in the instruction of the adult learners. More frequently, however, classes are made up of speakers of multiple native languages.

In the case of adult learners with minimal literacy skills in their native language, several techniques have been found to hold promise. In the absence of any knowledge of oral language in English, instruction needs to start with visuals, realia, and a more kinesthetic approach to oral skills development. The Total Physical Response approach (Asher 2003) offers some promise for introducing oral language in very concrete steps. *Realia* is a term that refers to actual items being brought into the classroom. Effective adult educators are well known for bringing in actual foods, representations of food, clothing, tools, toys, and

whatever else is necessary for getting meaning across to the learner. Finally, in the absence of realia, visual representations of content can be used. However, it is important that visuals be clear and comprehensible to the learner.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE

When the semiliterate adult learner brings some oral knowledge of English to the class, another strategy that offers promise for effective instruction is the language experience approach (Taylor 1992). Although the language experience approach (LEA) was originally developed as a reading strategy for native–English-speaking children, it has been widely used as an effective strategy in adult ESL programs. It is based on the simple premise that what you can think, you can say; what you can say, you can write; and what you can write, you can read. So LEA uses the student's own available oral language as a start for further instruction in English literacy. The instructor can have the learner dictate words or phrases, which are then written down as the speaker utters them. These written words are, in turn, used as the basis for literacy lessons. The skilled instructor can scaffold language gradually starting with the simple vocabulary and syntax already known by the learner, gradually building into more advanced vocabulary and complex syntax.

The challenge of the nonliterate learner is perhaps the greatest challenge to the adult educator. In this case, it is important to understand the concept of reading readiness and to break down the steps required for successful reading to the most basic building blocks. This may mean first determining if the learner can distinguish similarity and difference of basic shapes and objects. The adult educator may also need to learn as much as possible about the learner's personal history. What events occurred in this person's life to prevent them from acquiring literacy at a normal stage of development? Does this learner speak a language with no written form? Has this learner been assessed for any type of learning disability?

CRITICAL PEDAGOGY

Another approach to literacy that attracted much interest by adult educators in North America in the 1970s was an approach that came to be known as *critical pedagogy*. A major philosophical force for critical pedagogy was a Brazilian-born educator named Paulo Freire (1972). What distinguishes critical pedagogy from other approaches is its focus on the political dimension of education and a focus on the need for education to lead to social change. What has resulted from this focus on the political dimension of education is an examination of the social and political contexts of programs designed for adult learners (Auerbach 1992, 2001). This has led some adult educators to question the very nature of programs designed for adult learners. Has literacy instruction for adults simply forced them into low paying, dead-end jobs? Does the emphasis on job skills and training for the workforce keep adult learners from using literacy and from examining the factors that keep them in low-income housing and their children in underperforming schools?

Critical pedagogy, in contrast to standards-based instruction, encourages adult learners to use language to tackle these difficult life issues. Language is no longer the end of instruction but rather a means to understanding the relationships that exist between worker and employer, between tenant and landlord, between consumer and producer. Considered by many a radical approach to education, programs that employ critical pedagogy are usually only found in urban centers and in programs which do not depend on state or federal funding. The curricula for such programs are designed not by third parties, but by the learners themselves. The goals for such programs are political or social action that leads to a positive change in the lived experiences of the learners. These goals may be met by learning how to advocate for better housing, writing letters to elected officials, or analyzing funding patterns which disadvantage low-performing schools in low-income neighborhoods.

Dialogue

One strategy commonly used in programs following this approach would be the strategy of dialogue (Vella 2002). Freire (1970) emphasized the importance of dialogue in his earliest iterations of his approach to adult literacy back in the 1960s. For Freire dialogue is an important part of the process of problem posing, or learning about those issues which impact the lives of the adult learner. It is through dialogue that learner and teacher (or in the language of critical pedagogy, colearners) identify or pose problems that lead, through reflection, to social action.

Dialogue as an instructional strategy is also effective in other contexts, from more conventional adult ESL programs to teacher education programs (Orem 2001). Dialogue journals are useful for promoting reflective learning by students. Peyton and Reed (1990) define a dialogue journal simply as "a conversation between a teacher and an individual student" (p. 3). But whereas most conversation is oral, dialogue journals are written. As such, they are a more permanent record of the developing language of the learner.

CONCLUSION

The discussion in this chapter has focused on some of the more unique aspects of teaching adult English language learners. What often distinguishes adult learners from other types of learners is the very context for instruction. For purposes of this discussion, adult learners are most often found in formal and nonformal programs. Although adult learners may be found in school and college classrooms, their goal is not necessarily academic in nature. Instead of seeking a credential or diploma, adult learners are more often engaged in learning English for purposes of solving immediate problems and meeting immediate needs.

The delivery of instruction to adult English language learners varies in its detail from country to country. However, given the nature of the major populations of English language learners representing immigrants and refugees in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States, there are similarities across these major English-speaking countries. Most programs tend to follow a limited number of models including general language development, family literacy, or vocational training / preparation. In addition to these various program models for adult English language learners, there is the ongoing problem of funding for these programs to meet the needs of the growing target population.

Among the challenges found in teaching adult English language learners, one of the most difficult ones is the challenge presented by learners who are semi- or nonliterate in their L1. This challenge is made even more difficult by the lack of research that demonstrates effective approaches with this population, and by a general lack of highly qualified teachers who are trained not only in the field of second language acquisition, but also in the field of adult literacy development. This would suggest that a continuing need for the field is quality preparation of teachers who are aware not only of second language acquisition processes, but of the variety of learning challenges faced by adults with limited formal schooling in their L1, including an awareness of the political nature of educating adult English language learners who are by definition most often marginalized from the mainstream of society.

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SECTION 3

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES AND PRACTICES

This section turns attention to recent developments in teaching approaches and practices that have informed the teaching of English as a second language. Contributors to this section focus on major methodological concepts and processes that have emerged from research and have informed language teaching policies and curriculum developments over the last 15 years. Many of these approaches now inform key syllabus documents in the teaching and learning of English in classrooms worldwide.

Task-based learning has emerged from significant advances in second language acquisition theory and research and has become a major influence in curriculum and syllabus development as well as in pedagogical practices. Van den Branden's discussion in chapter 14 draws attention to a major underlying premise of task-based learning and teaching (TBLT) – that learners should be enabled to carry out the holistic functional tasks of daily life through meaningful language use. Having laid out the major principles of TBLT and the reasons it is advocated in current language teaching practice, he goes on to discuss major task features that need to be taken into consideration. He also describes the role of the teacher in a TBLT approach and the implications of this approach for the assessment of language skills.

Complementing the discussion of task-based learning, in chapter 15 Burns outlines the concepts of text-based teaching, a socioculturally mediated approach to teaching and learning that places the social purpose of texts in use as the starting point for pedagogical practices. She outlines the basic principles underlining a text-based approach and argues that when implementing this approach teachers need to keep in mind several key issues: using authentic models of language, explaining differences in the linguistic features of spoken

and written language, using scaffolded learning and teaching sequences, and building assessment and needs diagnosis into pedagogic processes.

Chapter 16 focuses on content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL). Crandall notes that the integration of content and language, especially in bilingual and immersion programs, is now a major approach to instruction that has grown over the last 30 years for every learner group, from elementary to tertiary levels. In addition the nature and diversity of integrated programs continues to expand. Her chapter provides a synthesis of the essential features and common characteristics of these programs and describes various program models. Crandall ends by discussing some of the challenges to effective implementation of integrated programs and pointing to further directions.

A major change that has permeated second-language teaching internationally for almost two decades is a shift to notions of outcomes-based pedagogy. Part of this movement has emerged from demands from policy makers and program administrators for educational accountability in relation to funded programs. As Leung points out in chapter 17, outcomes are integrally bound up with other accountability markers, such as benchmarking and standards, and are directed at measuring student achievement and performance. Leung provides a critical examination of the core concepts underpinning outcomes-based teaching before setting them against wider educational agendas. The questions he poses in the second half of the chapter are significant, as they can assist teachers to take a critically informed and professional stance when evaluating the demands of outcomes-based programs.

The period since the early 1990s has seen major growth in two important areas of second-language teaching – developing English competence for academic study and for vocational and specific purposes respectively. The two chapters that follow address these areas. Brick outlines the demands in academic pedagogy and practice in chapter 18. She relates the rise of major developments in research and practice in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) to the rapid growth in and demand for international study, much of which is now conducted through the medium of English. She highlights the importance of discourse studies to EAP pedagogical practice and shows how analysis of academic discourse has contributed to curriculum and materials development and to particular teaching approaches in this field. She sees a major role for EAP teachers in raising learners' consciousness about the types and features of texts they are engaged in and the academic assumptions that underpin these texts.

Paltridge's contribution in chapter 19 complements the perspective taken in Brick's discussion. Like Brick he points to rapid developments, this time in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). He notes that this is a broad term that may encompass other specific areas, including that of EAP. The major factor binding these various areas is the focus on targeted and specific learner needs, whether for business, academic, vocational, or other purposes. He outlines the skills, backgrounds, and age groups that generally constitute ESP learners. The major part of his chapter draws attention to the central issues that teachers of ESP must consider, including learner needs, genre and language needs, their own teacher knowledge, and assessment and evaluation.

In most English language teaching contexts learners' literacy abilities play a major role. Language classrooms are full of written texts that are used, either consciously or unconsciously, with the intention of enabling language development. However, where literacy abilities, either in the first or additional language are lacking, major adjustments need to be made in pedagogical practices. Moreover, second language literacy classes in some countries often overlap with or complement ESL classes. Kern, in chapter 20, draws attention to the relationships between literacy and language teaching and learning.

After offering a detailed overview addressing the critical question, *What is literacy?* he emphasizes the major considerations that language teachers need to bear in mind when considering what it means to adopt a literacy-based approach to language teaching and learning. His discussion highlights the importance of not making assumptions about the literacy skills and abilities available in second-language classrooms.

CHAPTER 14

-Based Language Education

n den Branden

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the main principles behind "task-based language teaching" (TBLT) will be highlighted. First, the main reasons why task-based language teaching is believed to foster language learning will be discussed. The chapter then moves on to a description of the main features of tasks and of the kind of interaction that task-based language teaching is supposed to give rise to. This part of the chapter will include a description of the role of the teacher in task-based language teaching. The chapter will end with a discussion of the implications of TBLT for the assessment of language skills.

BACKGROUND

TASK-BASED LANGUAGE EDUCATION: MAIN PRINCIPLES

Most scholars, curriculum developers, and language teachers will agree that the basic aim of second/foreign language teaching is to enable students to use the target language for functional purposes. Most students, especially adult students, will only make the effort to follow a language course (and pay for it), study hard, and take exams because they feel the new language can be of use for them: learning the language will, for instance, allow them to find a new job or meet new friends, travel around, communicate with the municipal services of the town they have moved to, help their children with their schoolwork, or simply enjoy themselves. Already in the late 1970s, this view was duly acknowledged in the seminal writings underpinning Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), emphasizing the importance of teaching language for communicative purposes. Today, the urge to take communicative purpose as a starting point for the design of curricula and programs for language teaching underlies approaches such as outcome-based teaching (see Leung this volume, chap. 17) and competency-based education.

However, task-based language teaching takes the centrality of communicative, functional language use one step further: It also places communication at the heart of teaching procedures. So, task-based language teaching starts from the basic principle that people learn a language not only *in order to* use the target language for functional purposes, but also *by doing so*. In TBLT, students do not first acquire elaborate knowledge about language then face the daunting challenge to translate all the acquired knowledge into spontaneous and natural language use. In a task-based approach, students are confronted with approximations and simulations of the kinds of tasks that they are supposed to be able to perform outside the classroom and learn about relevant forms of language while trying to understand and produce the language that these communicative tasks involve. If students, for instance, need to be able to comprehend official documents issued by the municipal board, they will be invited to work with these kinds of documents in the language course; if students need to develop the ability to write short reports of observations they have made, they will be confronted with this kind of task in the classroom. In other words, task-based syllabuses do not chop up language into small pieces, but take holistic, functional tasks as the basic unit for the design of educational activity. This is further illustrated in the following example.

Example: Ten tips to save energy

The students are invited to exchange ideas and information on different ways to save energy in their houses (and in this way to save a lot of money and save the planet). In an introductory brainstorm session, the teacher and the students exchange the ideas they already have on saving energy in their own houses and lives. The teacher writes down the students' ideas and questions (e.g., How much money and energy can be saved by switching off the TV at night?) on the blackboard.

In a second phase, the students are divided in groups of four. Each of the groups is given one part of a brochure issued by the local government called, *Act Now! 100 Tips to Save Energy*. These "expert" groups are asked to read their part of the brochure on a poster and to rank the tips they can find from most powerful and practicable to least powerful and practicable.

In a next stage, new groups are formed: Each group now consists of one member of each expert group (of the previous stage). The group members exchange their information and try to reach consensus on an ultimate list of 10 tips, which they write down on a poster and which they will have to defend in front of the other students. Before presenting their poster two days later, the students are allowed to make a phone call or write an e-mail to the local government service that issued the brochure to find out more about some of the tips they have in mind. Finally, the groups prepare and deliver their presentation together.

The teacher supports the students during the whole lesson cycle: discussing the meanings of difficult words and sentences in the brochure, supporting students' production of output, providing feedback on their ideas for their presentation, and focusing on form when particular grammar rules are task essential.

Performing such communicative tasks in real life calls for a complex interplay of phonological, morphogrammatical, semantic, sociopragmatic, and other aspects of language use. As the example shows, different skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) will often be integrated in the same activity. Furthermore, in real life this interplay is intentionally driven, in the sense that people use language in order to reach (predominantly nonlinguistic) goals. Chopping up the language and presenting / practicing these different linguistic aspects in isolation may well lead to the development of isolated skills, but will

put a heavy load on the students' shoulders (and cognitive abilities) in terms of integrating all these isolated skills into goal-oriented language behavior.

KEY ISSUES

TASKS: MAIN FEATURES

From the above, a number of key features of the tasks that constitute a task-based syllabus can be deduced.

1. TASKS ARE RELEVANT TO LEARNERS' NEEDS

The design of a task-based syllabus preferably starts with an analysis of the students' needs: What do these students need to be able to do with the target language? What are the tasks they are supposed to perform outside the classroom? Using different sources and different methods (such as interviews, observations, and surveys), a concrete description of the kinds of tasks that students will face in the real world is drawn up. This description, then, serves as the basis for the design and sequencing of tasks in the syllabus (Long, 2005). All this implies that students with different needs (for instance students aiming to attend a master program at a university abroad versus newcomers aiming to integrate into a new society) follow different courses: the contents of task-based courses are adapted to the learners' needs.

2. TASKS ARE MOTIVATING

When tasks in the syllabus are derived from an analysis of learners' needs, students will probably be strongly motivated to perform tasks in the language classroom and try and comprehend the input, and produce the output that task performance involves. Students, in other words, will build up the feeling that what they learn in class will be useful, and directly applicable, in the outside world. For instance, adult students who aim to acquire a language to integrate in a new society or for touristic purposes, may be strongly motivated when they are confronted with tasks challenging them to understand or give route instructions, interpret brochures or leaflets about public transport, or write a letter filing a complaint about a purchase they made. In his process-oriented view on language learning motivation, Dörnyei (2002) has emphasized that students will be more motivated to launch into activity in the classroom if they can connect the tasks they are invited to engage in with personal intentions they find meaningful. Furthermore, students' motivation will be higher when they perceive the task as a bridgeable challenge, i.e., a task that contains new elements and so that they can learn from it, but that they will still be able to accomplish. In Dörnyei's view, language learning motivation is not static. Instead, it is highly dynamic, showing wide variance across situations (involving different interlocutors). Motivation can, therefore, be influenced and enhanced by the students themselves, and by those who support them in the language learning process.

3. TASKS ARE CHALLENGING

The above-mentioned feature of tasks being perceived by the student as a bridgeable challenge ties up with the basic idea that the input and output demands of tasks should be slightly above the current learners' level of proficiency: If there is no gap between the learners' current interlanguage system and task demands, there will be little to learn. However, if the gap becomes too wide, students may become frustrated or demotivated. This implies that as students' language development progresses, tasks should gradually become more complex. In essence, task sequencing is a matter of creating a coherent scale of increasingly complex approximations to the real-world target tasks: the manipulation of a wide range of task parameters (such as text length, complexity of grammar and vocabulary, cognitive processing demands and task demands with regard to accuracy and complexity) has been mentioned in the literature in this respect (e.g., Robinson 2001; Bygate, Skehan, and Swain 2001). In the different stages of their learning trajectory, then, students should be confronted with new input and new output demands. However, they should not be left to their own devices when this happens: It is through interaction with peers (and particularly more knowledgeable peers) and with their teachers that students can meet the challenges the task introduces and learn new language by bridging the gaps they were confronted with.

4. TASK PERFORMANCE ELICITS ACTION AND INTERACTION

In task-based language education, the student is perceived as a highly active participant, who is assigned a fair share of autonomy in giving shape to the actual performance of the task in the classroom. In other words, tasks that are designed by the syllabus developer are not blueprints for activity (Breen 1987; Berben, Van den Branden, and Van Gorp 2007; Carless 2002). Tasks open "learning spaces" in which the students can move about, exploring the form-function relationships they are ready to learn, focusing their attention on specific linguistic features of the input, and producing the kind of output that their interlanguage resources currently allow them to do (Van den Branden 2009). This students will do while trying to interact with the other participants in the classroom: Tasks are designed to elicit intensive interaction, resembling true communication, between peers and between the students and the teacher. Students are asked to exchange information, to have discussions about challenging topics, to try and unravel the information in written or oral texts together, to describe objects, pictures and events to other group members, to write truly communicative messages or give feedback about the messages produced by other students. In a secondary classroom, for instance, pairs of students can be asked to write out instructions to perform a scientific experiment. After the pairs have written their first draft, they hand over their instructions to another pair of students who do not know the experiment and have to try to perform the experiment guided by the written instructions: the "authors" are allowed to watch the "performers" in action; the latter are allowed to ask clarification questions if they fail to understand the instructions. On the basis of this tryout, the authors are asked to revise their written instructions. As the example shows, interaction in the task-based classroom serves multiple functions, among them allowing students the chance to practice their target language skills for authentic purposes and creating situations in which students will likely receive feedback and interactional support that is finely tuned to their learning needs.

5. TASKS PERFORMANCE INVOLVES COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE USE AND METALINGUISTIC REFLECTION

Task-based classroom activity starts from, and builds upon, students' attempts to develop communicative behavior. This, however, does not mean that TBLT should be equated with a "meaning-only" approach. While the students are trying to cope with the input they are confronted with and the output demands of tasks, they will be facing the challenge to comprehend and construct adequate, increasingly complex, and increasingly accurate messages. This implies that the student activity elicited by task-based work will spontaneously give rise to all kinds of interludes in which formal features of language can be focused upon in an explicit way. *Form* should be defined broadly in this respect, ranging from attention paid to morphogrammatical aspects of the language system to a focus on sociopragmatic issues, the meaning of words or a metalinguistic discussion of appropriate writing, speaking, or listening strategies. Formal interludes ("focus on form") may be inserted in task-based work, using different methodological formats and at different moments in the task performance

cycle (before, during, and after task performance). Typically, highly relevant formal features will be dealt with when a student asks for this or when many students performing the same task run into the same formal problems. In the latter case, certain formal features may prove to be task-essential. Paying attention to formal linguistic features at these moments may increase the chance that students find the explicit form-focus relevant to their personal needs, and will be able to apply the new explicit knowledge to actual language use almost immediately.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

From the above, it can be inferred that the teacher is a crucial participant in stimulating, guiding, and supporting the students' language learning. In TBLT, teachers are expected to do the following:

- Motivate the students to invest intensive mental euergy in task performance, and to support their level of motivation throughout the various phases of a task-based activity.
- Efficiently organize the task-based activity, for instance by giving clear instructions and preparing the students for task performance, guiding the formation of groups (for group work), making sure that students have all the material necessary for task completion or are informed about the ways they can obtain these materials.
- Interactionally support the students while they are performing the task, and differentiating between students (or students groups) while doing so.

With regard to the third core action that teachers are expected to take, a number of interactional moves have been suggested to be particularly fruitful in terms of promoting language learning. For instance, through recasting, the teacher can offer the students richer versions of what they were trying to say, but are not yet able to put into (adequate or accurate) words. Likewise, through the negotiation of meaning, teachers can help their students to unravel the meaning of new words and expressions. By asking clarification and confirmation questions, or giving feedback, the teacher can "push" the students into producing more complex output. Finally, by joining the conversation and checking students' comprehension, the teacher will be able to offer input of the kind that is suited to the students' needs, and raise the chance that the input will turn into intake. Many of these interactional moves are also expected to occur in group work – so among students – especially when task formats, such as opinion-gap and information-gap tasks, challenge the learner to convey information that the other students do not have. In sociocultural views on language learning (e.g., Lantolf 2006), the co-construction of new knowledge and skills that occurs in interaction between teachers and learners, and among learners, actually constitutes the core of learning activity. In this perspective, interaction *is* learning, rather than one of a long list of useful devices that foster the restructuring of cognitive systems that scientists usually refer to as learning.

For many teachers, task-based language teaching represents a major shift away from their traditional classroom practice. For instance, teachers who have been working with a PPP (present, practice, produce) syllabus for a long time may find it hard to systematically adopt functional tasks as the basic unit of educational activity in their classrooms. Similarly, the assertiveness and intensive processes of peer interaction that tasks are expected to give rise to may clash with firmly established, more hierarchical teacher-student relations in certain cultures. So, even though TBLT is propagated as a very promising language teaching pedagogy in governmentally issued educational policy documents around the world, the actual implementation of task-based language teaching in authentic classrooms shows far

more erratic patterns and wide variation between teachers, countries, continents, and educational systems. Along the way, different shades of "task-basedness" have emerged. Skehan (1998) distinguishes "strong" and "weak" forms of TBLT, while Ellis (2003), in a similar vein, subsumes different types of TBLT under headings like "task-supported language teaching" versus "task-referenced language teaching." As can be expected, these terms are intended to cover virtually all the points on the continuum between a strongly teacher-dominated, discrete-point, form-focused approach in which tasks are merely inserted to allow students an incidental chance to practice specific forms for semiauthentic purposes on the one hand, to full-blown, learner-centered, holistic, functional approaches in which the performance of authentic tasks forms the core business of educational activity, and a focus of form is only inserted when necessary to construct more adequate meaning. Iu the latter case, there is a strong tendency to leave the traditional physical setting of the classroom and integrate language learning with communication in real-life situations (for instance, stimulating language development as the students are trying to communicate with their real-life partner on the work floor or over the Internet).

TASK-BASED ASSESSMENT

In TBLT, tasks are used not only as a basic unit for the description of goals and for the organization of educational activity in the classroom, but also for the assessment of students' language skills and the progress they are making. For this purpose, learners will be periodically asked to perform tasks that replicate authentic language use and strougly resemble the kinds of tasks that students are expected to perform outside the classroom; in other words, task-based syllabi of the strong form are characterized by a strong coherence with regard to the selection of target tasks (goals), classroom tasks (education), and assessment tasks (evaluation).

The students' performances of these tasks will preferably be rated according to the criteria that reflect the norms of task accomplishment in the target discourse communities (Norris, Bygate, and Van den Branden, 2009; Norris et al. 1998). The rating thus primarily focuses on the extent to which the student can perform tasks to criterion as established by insiders or experts in the field, rather than on the students' ability to complete discrete-point grammar items. For productive tests, assessment grids accompany the assessment tasks, carefully describing what items are required to meet the preset quality standards, and what formal demands need to be met.

Assessment directly feeds back into educational activity. Assessment not only informs the students about the progress they have made or the current interlanguage level they have acquired but also provides teachers and headteachers with rich information about the effectiveness of the educational support they have offered to individual learners, and the gaps in the students' current interlanguage system that require more intensive treatment. To enhance the integration of assessment, teaching and learning, recent developments with regard to task-based assessment include the introduction of portfolios (in which, among other things, the students collect samples of tasks they have performed), peer interaction (inviting students to rate and evaluate each others task performances) and dynamic assessment (in which, for instance, teachers assess the extent to which they need to interactionally support classroom performance of semiauthentic tasks by individual stndents).

CONCLUSION

Task-based language education fully acknowledges the basic insight that language learning is a highly complex endeavor. Developing language skills, involving the integrated use

of various subskills, requires ample opportunities for students to learn in real operating conditions. In task-based language education, therefore, relatively straight lines are drawn between the authentic tasks that learners need to be able to perform outside the classroom (target tasks), the tasks that constitute the backbone of educational activity (classroom activities), and the tasks that are used to ascertain the progress the learners are making (assessment tasks). This does not, however, imply that task-based language education is a straightforward enterprise for teachers: since learners are bound to differ in terms of the speed with which they make progress, the task motivation they show, the level of language proficiency they have already acquired, and many other features, they are bound to react to the input and output demands of classroom tasks in many different ways. In order to create order in this human chaos, the *main essence* of the task provides a crucial guiding line for teachers: if 25 students are trying to write a report about an observation they have made, the main questions remain (irrespective of which student the teacher is supporting): What elements should a good report contain? Which message has the student produced until now? What kind of support could take this student a bit further on the road toward the accomplishment of a better report than the one he or she has produced so far? Ultimately, the main essence of language use remains the same: making social meaning for a purpose, and using linguistic forms to do so in an adequate way.

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CHAPTER 15

-Based Teaching

Burns

INTRODUCTION

Text-based teaching has emerged over the past two decades from the growing interest in how English language learners can develop the knowledge and skills needed to engage in extended texts used in different social contexts. A basic concept in text-based teaching is that in daily life, speakers and writers of a language will engage in many different types of communication involving a flow of language, or discourse, that operates in the particular culture – from exchanging greetings, to listening to news items, reading novels, participating in business meetings, engaging in social chit-chat, writing course assignments, sending text messages, and so on. In acquiring a new language, learners need to be able to understand the structures and language patterns that make up these extended forms of communication, especially where they may differ culturally from those with which they are familiar.

In this chapter, first the development and the essential features of text-based teaching are explained briefly, then key issues that need to be considered in developing a text-based teaching approach are discussed. The chapter concludes by considering the contributions of text-based teaching to language pedagogy and practice.

BACKGROUND

A text-based approach takes the concept of text as the starting point for developing tasks and activities, and for assessing learning. It is concerned with what language learners do with language and what they need to know about how language functions in context. Feez (1998, p. 4) defines *text* as "any stretch of language which is held together cohesively through meaning." She goes on to say,

> Whether a stretch of language is a text or not has nothing to do with its size or form. It has to do with the meanings of the stretch of language working together as a unified whole. The single word *Stop* on a road sign and Tolstoy's novel *War and Peace* are both texts because they are unified wholes. (p. 4)

Text-based teaching arose from the developments, in the latter half of the twentieth century, in discourse analysis, a field of language analysis that has numerous origins, including sociology, sociolinguistics, philosophy, linguistics and artificial intelligence (see McCarthy 1991; McCarthy, Matthiessen, and Slade 2010 for more detailed discussion). What essentially unites various discourse analysis approaches is the analysis of spoken and written language as they are used in their social contexts. Discourse analysts are interested in what a flow of language, spoken or written, *means* in its particular context. The kind of questions that are important to discourse analysts include: Who are the participants involved in this exchange? What are the roles and relationships of the speakers / writers? What are they communicating? What are their social or personal purposes in communicating? How does the context influence what is communicated? How does the context influence the kind of language used in communicating? What meanings are the participants attempting to exchange? How successful are they in exchanging these meanings?

Traditionally, the knowledge and skills about language employed in language teaching relied on traditional or structural grammars that emerged from written language analyzed at the level of the individual sentence. Building on the foundations of discourse analysis, more recently grammars of both spoken and written language (e.g., Biber et al. 1999; Carter and McCarthy 2006) have been developed which have been helpful in informing language teaching from a text-based approach. With the development of technology for collecting and analyzing large bodies of spoken and written language (a collection of texts stored on a computer is known as a corpus, see O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter, 2007; O'Keeffe this volume, chap. 25), discourse analysts have also been able to track the way certain kinds of language patterns and words are typically used in certain kinds of texts. Drawing on these developments, therefore, the key aspect of text-based teaching is authentic language as it is used by speakers and writers in the various contexts of everyday life.

In contrast to a task-based approach (see Van den Branden this volume, chap. 14) a text-based approach takes texts as the main starting point for developing the syllabus. In devising activities to help learners achieve success in using various texts, the teacher can incorporate elements of many other types of syllabi (e.g., situational, topic based, notional-functional, task based), depending on learner needs and the contexts outside the classroom where they wish to communicate. The role of the teacher in a text-based syllabus is to diagnose to what extent learners have control of the language features and patterns of various texts and to assist them to gain more independence in their ability to participate successfully in these texts (Hammond et al. 1992; Feez 1998). Therefore, in developing the content for a text-based approach, teachers aim to draw holistically on their repertoire of teaching skills and knowledge, including in particular their knowledge of the language patterns in a text.

Text-based approaches are now widely used in a number of contexts, including the national English language teaching syllabus in Singapore (see Chew 2005) and state and national curriculum frameworks in Australia (see Christie 2003; Feez 2001). They have also influenced the development of Language Benchmarks for adult learners in Canada (see Pettis 2007) and program development in New Zealand (see Roach and Roskvist 2007). There is now considerable interest in text-based approaches in European countries, such as Sweden (see for example Olofsson 2010) in primary, secondary, and adult education.

KEY ISSUES

There are a number of key issues that need to be taken into account iu usiug a text-based teaching approach. These include understanding the concepts of text and genre, offeriug learners authentic samples of language, highlighting differences between spoken and written language, adopting au explicit and scaffolded teaching approach, and building in assessment processes to diagnose ongoing needs. This section will close with a brief discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of using a text-based approach.

MODELS BASED ON AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE USE

In text-based language teaching the texts used are based as far as possible on authentic discourse. The notion of genre has been helpful in identifying different types of texts; genres are a little different from text types in that they *typify* the way people use whole stretches of language that have a common function or purpose in different cultures "to get things done" (Paltridge 2006, 84). For example, a doctor's consultation genre will have typical beginning, middle, and end in which various grammar features and patterns of language will be used at different stages of the interaction. The genre of a consultation may vary among different cultures and over time, but members of that culture will generally have a shared knowledge of how things typically proceed. What actually gets said during any one consultation is the specific text that emerges on that occasion.

Understanding of various genres, or text types, and their typical structures and language features can be usefully applied in language teaching. Fictional and nonfictional texts that occur frequently in writing (Macken-Horarik 2002) are

- *narrative*, or story, where there is an *orientation* to the events, places, and people, a *complication*, where a problem arises, and a *resolution* of the problem;
- *recount*, or retelling of events, where there is an *orientation* to events and a *sequence* of events that occurred;
- *procedure*, or instructions, which provides the *goal* of making or doing something, the *materials* needed, and the *steps* that complete the procedure;
- *argument*, or exposition, involving taking a position and justifying it, where the *issue or position* is highlighted, the *arguments* are put forward, and *recommendations or conclusions* are stated;
- *discussion*, which involves providing different positions on an issue, where the *issue* is presented and *arguments for and against* the issue are put forward, followed by a *conclusion*;
- *information report documents*, which organize and present factual information on a topic, where a *general classification* of the topic is presented, followed by *description* of appearance, behavior, characteristics, or properties;
- *explanation*, which gives accounts of how or why things develop or work, through a *statement* of the phenomenon under discussion and sequenced *explanation* of how the processes occur.

Spoken texts commonly produced in casual conversation (Thornbury and Slade 2006; Thornbury this volume, chap. 21) are narratives and recounts as above, but also *anecdotes*:

- *anecdote*, or telling about something unusual that happened to the main speaker, where there is an *orientation* to people and events, outlining of the *remarkable event*, and the *reaction* of the speakers.

In order to illustrate further how the structure of a text typically relates to the purpose of the text and to its broad language patterns, below is an analysis of a recount, a text that occurs in both speech and writing.

Text type: Recount
Social Function: To record events in sequeuce for the purpose of informing

Text Structure (Stages)	Purpose of Stage	Typical Language Features
Orientation	Provides information about the context of the recount Orients the reader / listener to places, events, circumstances, and people involved (who, what, why, where, when)	Focuses on specific participants (e.g., *I, Mary, a man*) Sometimes includes writer's / speaker's evaluation of the situation (e.g., *unbelievable, wonderful*) Usually includes expressions of time (e.g., *last Monday, yesterday*)
Record of events in sequence	Outlines the events in sequence (who, what, why, where, when)	Focuses on specific people and things (e.g., *Mary's mother, the traffic*) Employs mainly past tense verbs of action (e.g., *drove, ran, went, came out*) Uses time expressions (e.g., *afterwards, the next day*) to link events May include evaluations of each event (e.g., *unexpectedly, brilliant*)
(Reorientation) An optional stage, not found in all recounts	Brings the sequence of events to a close	Focuses on specific people and things (e.g., *Mary, we, the car*) Uses past tense verbs Usually includes time expressions to indicate closure (e.g., *finally, at last*)
(Coda) An optional stage, not found in all recounts	Comments on / evaluates the events as a whole from speaker's / writer's viewpoint	Uses past tense verbs Employs evaluative expressions (e.g., *memorable, disappointing*)

Figure 15.1: Example of typical text structure and language patterns (adapted from Hammond et al., 1992, p. 88)

One criticism of texts traditionally presented in language teaching materials is that they are "introspected," in other words they draw on the writer's intuitions about what might be said or written in a particular situation (see Gilmore 2004). They usually reflect artificial language use; for example, dialogues may emphasize a particular grammar point with unnatural frequency, speakers may say about the same amount and have very distinct turns with no hesitations or overlaps, there are none of the features that are typical in real speech (e.g., *um, yeah, aha*) which listeners use to show they are on track, and there are few of the reduced or contracted language features which are used when speakers share background knowledge (Burns, Joyce, and Gollin 1996). Introspected examples may be useful for some

types of teaching (e.g., when a teacher wants learners to rehearse a grammar point) or learners (e.g., beginner learners needing structured teaching), but they are highly limited as a regular diet of language use if learners are to be able to cope with real communication demands outside the classroom (Carter 1997).

DIFFERENCES IN SPOKEN AND WRITTEN LANGUAGE

The developments in discourse analysis have allowed for important differences between spoken and written language to be identified for language teaching purposes (Biber et al. 1999; Carter and McCarthy 2006; Halliday 1989). Spoken language is produced spontaneously and is jointly constructed as a flow of interaction, with listeners giving feedback to show they are following (*yeah, mm, right*). Speech often accompanies actions or behaviors, so that speakers make implicit use of the shared context for speaking by not naming things directly (*it, that thing, over there*). Speakers tend to use verbs and personal pronouns to express ideas and they join ideas using conjunctions such as *and, but*, or *so*. They do not speak in sentences but produce utterances that are intricately woven together to maintain the talk, sometimes involving overlaps, fillers, interruptions, or pauses as speakers choose their words and find opportunities to take turns to speak.

Written language, on the other hand, communicates across time, space, and distance and has to recreate the context explicitly for the reader. It is usually produced by one person removed from his or her audience, and unlike speech, can be rehearsed and redrafted many times. Writing typically relies more on content words (nouns and noun groups) to carry the meaning of the text and uses a process whereby concepts which would usually be expressed as verbs in speech become nouns in writing (e.g., *Jenny* completed *the document*. vs. *The* completion *of the document was the team leader's responsibility*).

Taking a text-based approach to teaching spoken or written language allows for some of these important differences to be highlighted for learners. For example, common interaction features and strategies used in conversational talk which are not routinely included in textbooks can be practiced by learners. Teachers can also take learners' spoken versions of ideas and content and show them how they can shift the way these ideas are expressed into more formal written versions.

EXPLICIT AND SCAFFOLDED TEACHING OF LANGUAGE

Another aspect of adopting a text-based approach involves taking a "visible" or "explicit" perspective on pedagogy (Bernstein 1990). This approach views the teacher as the "expert" who has the skills to monitor and diagnose learner progress and to guide learners systematically toward the aspects of language they need to practice at various points as their skills develop. Some versions of communicative and progressive language teaching have been criticized for encouraging a teaching approach where, rather than deliberately intervening to teach learners at the point of need, teachers hold back in the interest of facilitating so-called naturalistic and self-expressive processes of learning (e.g., Bourne 2004). Advocates of explicit pedagogy argue that this approach leads to learners' lack of knowledge or clarity about what it is expected of them and about what language skills they are actually meant to be learning (Feez 1998; Gibbons 2006). In a text-based approach the teacher is seen as the knowledgeable mentor who provides the "scaffolding" (Wood, Bruner, and Ross 1976) necessary for learners to successfully achieve learning goals. As Maybin, Mercer, and Steirer (1992) put it,

> Scaffolding is not just any assistance which helps a learner accomplish a task. It is help which will enable a learner to accomplish a task which they would not have been quite able to manage on their own, and it is help which is intended to bring the learner closer to a state of competence which will enable them to complete such a task on their own. (p. 187)

Thus, scaffolding involves temporary, and gradually withdrawn support, where learning is assisted in two ways (Hammond and Gibbons 2001); *designed-in* scaffolding (the content, strategies and learning experiences the teacher plans to build into the syllabus) and *contingent* scaffolding (the moment-by-moment classroom interactions that support learners at the point of need). One way in which scaffolded learning is sometimes realized in a text-based approach is through a teaching-learning cycle (Callaghan and Rothery 1988; Derewianka 1990; Hammond et al. 1992; Hammond and Derewianka, 2001; Feez 1998) involving (i) the teacher and learners exploring the cultural context and existing knowledge about the topic or the text, (ii) the teacher modeling the text to initiate learners into the main structures and patterns, (iii) learners jointly constructing a similar text for peer and teacher feedback, followed by (iv) learners independently constructing the text to practice the language learned.

SEQUENCED AND LINKED UNITS OF WORK

Based on the concepts of scaffolding and support built up over time, it follows that the texts and tasks presented to learners need to be logically sequenced with both short-term and long-term learning goals in mind. Teachers will have in mind the "macroframework" of what they want learners to achieve by the end of the course, as well as the "microframework" of how a specific lesson focusing on a specific text contributes to the larger plan. They can also consider what kinds of spoken and written texts logically relate and connect in authentic communicative situations. For example, other texts related to the doctor's consultation might include making an appointment over the telephone, checking in with the receptionist, filling in a form with personal information, going to the pharmacy, discussing medication with the pharmacist, reading instructions about medication and so on. Some useful mechanisms for planning a sequenced program include compiling a communication network (and placing the social situation at the centre, then mind-mapping the texts related to that situation), identifying a learning topic or situation (and mapping the related texts) or selecting a text type, such as recount (and identifying related spoken or written texts) (see Burns, Joyce, and Gollen 1996; Feez 1998). Feez (1998, pp. 28–31), for instance, describes a five-stage sequence and various activities that could cover several lessons:

1. **Building the context:** introducing learners to an authentic model text and exploring learners' familiarity with the text and where / how / why it is used culturally and socially (e.g., identifying the context and the speakers using pictures, realia, excursions, field-trips)

2. **Modeling and deconstructing the text:** investigating with learners the patterns of the text structure and language features and comparing the model with other examples of this text type (e.g., sorting, matching, labeling parts of the text, identifying grammatical points, practicing pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling)

3. **Joint construction of the text:** constructing a text of this type with the learners, on the board (e.g., question and answer sessions, skeleton texts, cloze exercises, dictogloss, jigsaw, and information gap activities)

4. **Independent construction of the text:** getting learners to develop a text independently (e.g., listening / comprehension activities, such as performing a task, sequencing

pictures, numbering or checking off items on a worksheet, role plays, writing a short text)

5. **Linking to related texts:** investigating with learners what texts could be linked to this text type (e.g., identifying other contexts where this text type might be used, comparing spoken and written texts, role-playing how texts might change according to people's roles and relationships)

BUILT-IN ASSESSMENT

In a text-based approach, assessment and diagnosis of learning development underpin the entire learning and teaching process. From classroom placement to needs analysis to the ongoing diagnosis of learning needs, learners' abilities to approximate to the texts they are aiming to acquire can be analyzed as they practice performing those texts. Teachers can assess learner performance against criteria that highlight the particular features and patterns that characterize the text (see for example, those outlined for recount above). Where difficulties exist they can then reenter the teaching cycle at a point the teacher considers relevant, for example, additional practice of particular text structures through modeling, or further support with production of texts independently.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF TEXT-BASED TEACHING

Text-based language teaching has been criticized for its over-emphasis on "static" texts usually biased toward native or Standard English speaker models. Critics would argue that the analysis of authentic text can be a difficult undertaking for many teachers, that a text-based approach can result in using trivial examples of daily "survival" communication in contrast to more complex, hybrid, or ideologically charged texts (for example workplace, employment-seeking texts; "gate-keeping" texts, where second-language speakers may have limited power) and that teaching is reduced to "recipelike" or reproductive processes that stultify creativity. Nevertheless, the discourse-based research that has been conducted in recent years has given teachers much greater access to examples of real language as it is used in real communicative contexts. Materials (see Tomlinson this volume, chap. 28) can also be evaluated to see whether they mainly reflect artificial and introspected dialogues or the features of more authentic texts. As Roberts and Cooke (2009, p. 639) point out, research-based materials that reflect the realities and challenges of authentic language "are relevant in ways that inveuted examples or simplifications that flatten out interactional complexity canuot be." This orientation is fundamental to the socially contextualized and meaning-based principles of text-based teaching.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has set out briefly some of the fundamental tenets and teaching approaches in text-based teaching. A text-based approach provides the basis for coherent syllabus design drawing on tasks that are based on understandings about how people actually communicate in a wide range of social situations. It is an approach where teachers can incorporate many of the resources and activities they already use within the broader framework of assisting learners to gain greater knowledge of relevant texts. While it would be naive to suggest that simply learning about textual structures and grammatical patterns will automatically lead to successful communicative interactions outside the classroom, for many learners a text-based approach has the potential to help them to understand the ways in which social, community, and institutioual discourses unfold in real-life encounters.

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CHAPTER 16

Content-Based Instruction and Content and Language Integrated Learning

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INTRODUCTION

Content-based instruction (CBI) – also referred to as content-based language learning, content-centered learning, or more recently, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) – has become a major approach to instruction in second- and foreign-language programs, immersion programs, bilingual programs, and heritage language programs from elementary through tertiary levels. Each decade since the 1980s has seen dramatic growth in CBI in second and foreign language contexts globally, with a concomitant growth in diversity of the contexts, purposes, and manner in which CBI is implemented (Snow 1998; Stoller 2004; Crandall 1993). More than 200 types of CLIL programs have been identified by Grin (2005; cited by Coyle 2007), with variables such as age, language level, intensity, or duration of instruction. However, a number of key areas of commonality exist across the various program models. There are also a number of challenges to providing effective CBI instruction.

This chapter defines CBI, describes some program models, explains the rationale for this approach, identifies some characteristics of effective CBI, and then discusses some of the challenges to effective implementation.

BACKGROUND

DEFINITION AND MODELS OF CBI

Content-based instruction (CBI) is an approach to language teaching that organizes instruction around meaningful content or subject matter, rather than the more traditional focus on grammar or skills or more recently, on tasks (Richards and Rodgers 2001; Krahnke 1987). Instruction may focus on one content area (for example, history or sociology for university students) or on several (for example, a unit on endangered species that integrates content

from science and social studies for elementary students). It may involve the introduction of academic topics and texts into a foreign language classroom or result in a total adaptation of a content course to enable second language learners to participate while still learning the language of instruction (Crandall 1999). Depending on the context and purpose, CBI can involve a language teacher, a subject matter teacher, or both.

Some CBI programs or curricula are more "content driven" (Met 1999) or "subject led" (Clegg 2003). In these, the focus is on learning an academic subject through another language, as in partial or full immersion programs, foreign language across the curriculum (FLAC) courses, or sheltered-content instruction. Subject matter teachers draw on the texts, tasks, and tests of the content area, but adapt or modify instruction, for example, through the use of visuals, demonstrations, adapted or supplementary materials, cooperative or small group activities, or increased attention to vocabulary. The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model, which has been developed for both elementary and secondary levels, offers a comprehensive approach to sheltered instruction, including 8 components and 30 features of lesson planning, from identifying content and language objectives and appropriate content and materials, to providing appropriate activities for delivering, reviewing, and assessing instruction (Echevarria, Vogt, and Short 2008).

CBI programs that are more "language-driven" or "language-led" draw upon the texts, tasks, and concepts from other disciplines in teaching language, identifying "themes" around which to structure the curriculum (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche 1989; Brinton 2001), with varying degrees of commitment to content-learning objectives (Davison and Williams 2001). Topics for theme-based or thematic courses or programs may be drawn from the regular curriculum and serve as a bridge to that curriculum, often including instruction in academic skills or learning strategies. For example, a secondary school unit on urbanization may have objectives from courses in environmental science, geography, world history, economics, and algebra (Echevarria, Vogt, and Short 2010). However, any topic or issue "of interest and importance to the learners" (Genesee 1994, 3) or that promotes critical thinking and language development (such as "intercultural communication" or "global warming") can be selected. The theme may serve as the basis for a short period of instruction or for as long as an entire term, in what has been referred to as "sustained content instruction" (Pally 2000; Murphy and Stoller 2001). An example of a sustained content course that draws from history, politics, literature, science, and the environment is the 25 hour per week, semester-long course, "Water World" developed by Lyle, in the City University of New York Language Immersion Program (see clip.cuny.edu/Public/html/3CourseDescriptions.htm). While theme-based courses are usually designed and taught by language teachers, they may be co-designed or even co-taught (see Davies 2003). One strength of theme-based instruction is that it can be designed for low levels of language proficiency, while more content-driven models are typically reserved for learners who are more proficient (Klee and Tedick 1997).

Somewhere in the middle of the continuum between content- and language-driven programs are what are referred to as adjunct courses, in which a language support course is paired (as an adjunct) to a regular subject-matter course to enable those who are still learning the language of instruction to participate in classes with those who speak it natively or more proficiently (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche 1989; Snow and Brinton 1988). Adjunct classes run concurrently with subject matter classes, drawing upon the texts and tasks from those classes as the basis for discussion and written work, but also adding more accessible materials and activities to promote academic language learning. Adjunct courses are usually taught at the tertiary level, with the adjunct language class focused on developing reading or writing skills related to the assignments in a subject matter class.

There are a number of adaptations to the adjunct model. These include a "simulated adjunct" approach (Brinton and Jensen 2002), where content and tasks from one subject

area are integrated into a language course to simulate a content course, though the course is not paired with a subject-matter course; a "modified adjunct" approach in which a subject matter course is paired with a study group co-taught by a language instructor and peer group leader (Snow and Kahmi-Stein 2002) or study-group sessions taught by undergraduate peers who have been trained to assist second language learners (Ronesi 2001). A particularly innovative approach is a university bridge program described by Iancu (2002), in which a content course is linked with four language skills courses.

Another way to consider the continuum of CBI is to consider who is doing the teaching: the language teacher (theme-based or adjunct); the content or regular classroom teacher (sheltered); or both (bilingual, dual-language immersion, team-teaching). While team-teaching approaches are more common at the elementary or secondary level, Stewart, Sagliano, and Sagliano (2002, 29) describe a sheltered immersion program at a small Japanese liberal arts college in which students "develop their English as they study humanities and social science topics" taught by pairs of language and content teachers.

RATIONALE FOR CBI

Support for CBI can be found in theories and research on second language acquisition. In CBI, learners are exposed to meaningful and comprehensible input in context, through reading and listening to content-related texts (Krashen 1982; 1985). They are also afforded opportunities to negotiate meaning and notice form-content relationships through efforts to produce comprehensible output in oral and written discourse (Swain 1985, 1998). In CBI, teachers can draw on a range of relevant, meaningful, and engaging activities that increase student motivation and support learning in a more natural manner, activities that involve cooperative, task-based, experiential, and project-based learning (Grabe and Stoller 1997; Crandall 1993). Common to these activities is the opportunity for students to use language to perform different tasks and construct and reflect upon new meaning expressed through oral or written discourse (Sherris 2008). These activities help learners to move beyond conversational uses of the language to increasingly appropriate academic language such as that required to analyze historical events, discuss the solution of mathematical problems, or write scientific reports (Cummins 1981, 1992; Short 1993). CBI also provides contexts for teaching learning strategies and critical thinking skills across a number of content areas, increasing the likelihood that these strategies will be applied in contexts outside the CBI classroom (Met 1999; Chamot and O'Malley 1987). Further support for CBI comes from more recent sociocultural theories of second language learning based on the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky 1978) through which learners are engaged in increasingly complex tasks with the support of teachers and more proficient peers until they can perform these without support (Lantolf 1994; Lantolf and Appel 1994). CBI also lends itself to being implemented in classrooms with learners of different abilities and interests (Grabe and Stoller 1997).

Research into the effectiveness of CBI is somewhat limited, especially in empirical studies, but it is growing and there is increasing evidence of its effectiveness. Pica (2002) believes that assessment and evaluation studies provide substantial evidence that CBI promotes second-language proficiency and academic skill development. Research on immersion, dual-immersion, and bilingual programs in Canada and the United States also points to the benefits of these approaches in developing proficiency in another language, and in overall academic achievement in both languages when sustained over a number of grades (Thomas and Collier 2002; Howard, Christian, and Genesee 2003; Howard et al. 2007; Fortune and Tedick 2008; Swain 1984; Wesche 1993, 2000). Recent studies from a number of U.S. states also find that second language learners provided with opportunities to learn academic language and participate in sheltered courses perform as well or better

on examination and graduation rates than other second-language learners or students as a whole (Echevarri, Vogt, and Short 2010). (See Grabe and Stoller 1997 for a review of CBI research; Stoller 2004 for a review of case studies in CBI; Coyle 2007 for a research agenda for CLIL; and Dalton-Puffer 2008 for a review of current CLIL research in Europe.) In addition to studies focused on second and foreign languages other than English, research related to assessment in all languages is especially needed, since it is difficult to determine whether students' difficulties in demonstrating knowledge, especially in sheltered programs, is due to lack of content knowledge or the language to express that knowledge, or both (Short 1993; Crandall and Tucker 1990).

KEY ISSUES

FEATURES OF EFFECTIVE CBI INSTRUCTION

Within the range of CBI programs offered in second- and foreign-language contexts at all levels of education are a number of features of effective CBI instruction.

1. FOCUS ON MEANINGFUL, RELEVANT CONTENT

CBI is contextualized learning, where the focus is on academic content and the use of the language outside the language classroom (Crandall 1994). In CBI classrooms, the emphasis is on learning about something that is meaningful and relevant to the learners, rather than learning about language (Davies 2003). Subject-matter content forms "the basis for the curriculum organization" (Leaver and Stryker 1989, 271), and classroom tasks or activities focus on that content, while also allowing learners to draw upon their own experiences and knowledge (Grabe and Stoller 1997).

2. FOCUS ON LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

While content learning is a major focus of CBI (or CLIL), "at the same time there must be langnage-related goals . . . alongside the content-subject related ones or else what would be the point of doing CLIL at all?" (Dalton-Puffer 2007, 10). Language is both the medium and a goal of CBI instruction (Coyle 2007). Language objectives can be drawn from vocabulary, skills, genres, or registers of the subject matter, or more broadly, from academic vocabulary (Coxhead 2000), skills or genres that are relevant to a number of disciplines, which can lead to development of reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills within one or more content areas (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche 1989; Sherris 2008), with the development of written language skills required for producing academic genres such as definitions, paraphrases, summaries, and academic reports particularly important (Crandall 1999; Schleppegrell and Achugar 2003).

3. USE OF RELEVANT AND APPROPRIATE AUTHENTIC AND ADAPTED TEXTS AND TESTS

Materials for developing the curriculum and planning CBI lessons include the use of both authentic and adapted oral and written subject matter materials (textbooks, audio and visual materials, and other learning materials) that are motivating and appropriate to the cognitive and language proficiency level of the learners or that can be made accessible through bridging activities (Stoller and Grabe 1997; Crandall 1994, 1999; Leaver and Stryker 1989). These bridging activities decrease the complexity of the content information and increase the sources of that information, so that learners do not have to rely only on a text. These activities include the use of demonstrations, visuals, charts, graphic organizers, and outlines, breaking down information into smaller chunks, preteaching vocabulary, and establishing background information, (Crandall 1999; Stoller 2004). In place of traditional paper and pencil tests, assessment measures are also adapted to enable students to convey their understanding through other means such as demonstrations or oral summaries (Short 1993).

4. PARTICIPATION IN ENGAGING TASKS THAT PROMOTE LEARNING OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE

In addition to opportunities to read or listen to content-related texts in context (to receive comprehensible input [Krashen 1982, 1985]), learners in CBI classes engage in cooperative activities, information gap activities, projects, or other tasks that promote interaction and negotiation of meaning using the language (comprehensible output [Swain 1985, 1988, 1996, 1998]). These activities cause them to grapple with meaning and to produce both oral and written discourse that reflects their content understanding and results in using the language related to that content. In their attempts to use appropriate, content-related language, learners can become aware of gaps in their own language proficiency. Swain (1999) has suggested that activities such as jigsaw reading, dictogloss (Wajnryb 1990), and story reconstruction are especially appropriate for helping learners to notice content-form connections. Experiential, project-based, task-based, and cooperative learning activities can all be engaging tasks that permit not only the integration of language and content learning, but also provide scaffolding and support from peers and enable peers of different linguistic and skill levels to work together (Crandall 1993; Short and Echevarria 2004).

5. DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNING STRATEGIES AND ACADEMIC SKILLS

Since CBI is focused on developing language and content knowledge and skills as they relate to specific or a range of content areas, it offers a natural context for developing learning strategies and academic skills. Through the use of relevant and motivating content, learners can be provided with opportunities to develop note-taking, paraphrasing, summarizing, predicting, and confirming / disconfirming skills. They can also become more conscious of the ways in which they learn (to develop metacognitive skills to monitor and evaluate their own learning) (Coyle 2007; Crandall 1999; Leaver and Stryker 1989; Chamot and O'Malley 1987).

CHALLENGES TO EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF CBI

Teachers face a number of challenges in implementing CBI related to their roles and responsibilities, previous training, access to appropriate materials, and institutional support.

1. ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF LANGUAGE AND CONTENT TEACHERS

Although collaboration is important in successful CBI (Gilzow and Brannaman 2000), achieving effective collaboration among language and content teachers represents a challenge, since they bring different disciplinary views and goals, especially as these relate to their roles and responsibilities (Crandall 1998; Davison and Williams 2001). Language teachers may feel unqualified to integrate substantive subject matter content into language classes or view this as undermining the respect for language teaching, reducing the language teacher's role to being the "handmaid" of the content teacher and class, especially in adjunct programs (Benesch 1992). Creese (2002), in her study of content- and language-teacher partnerships in London schools, fouud that even second language learners viewed language teachers' knowledge and skills as of lesser importance. Language teachers who are used to a skills-based class may also find it difficult to shift to a more content-based class and to keep the language instruction at an appropriate proficiency level or even to provide sufficient attention to language, with academic coutent and tasks taking priority. In her research on Canadian Freuch immersion programs, Swain notes that correction of

content takes precedence over language (especially form) and that the correction that does occur is inconsistent (Swain 1998).

Subject matter teachers, especially at secondary and tertiary levels, may feel unqualified or not responsible for addressing language issues or even adapting instruction to make it accessible to those lacking proficiency in the language of instruction. Even if they are familiar with the kinds of adaptations identified by Cummins (1981) and Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2008) they may view these as "watering down" the curriculum (Short 2002; Crandall 1998). Their view of the language may also be limited to discipline-specific or unfamiliar vocabulary that native speakers also find difficult.

This presents a dilemma because "students cannot develop academic knowledge and skills without access to the language in which that knowledge is embedded, discussed, constructed, or evaluated. Nor can they acquire academic language skills in a context devoid of content" (Crandall 1994, 256).

2. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Part of the problem is that few teachers have had specific preparation for these expanded roles, though the situation is changing, at least in the United States, as teaching standards for content areas address communication and language and language-teaching standards focus on content-area academic language (cf. the TESOL PreK–12 proficiency standards). Some teacher education and professional development programs for elementary and secondary teachers have addressed this issue in a number of innovative ways, pairing classes of prospective language and science teachers (Kaufman and Brooks 1996; Kaufman 2000), pairing individual language and content teachers (Arkoudis 2005) or providing professional development through curriculum teams comprised of language and teachers across the curriculum (Crandall 1994, 1998), effectively bringing the skills and knowledge of both to the task of developing effective curricula and instruction.

A greater challenge exists at the tertiary level, since university instructors usually do not focus on pedagogy in their graduate education and do not necessarily participate in professional development in this area. One example, however, of ways in which university faculty can become more focused on and find appropriate ways to address the language issues of their students is provided by Project LEAP, a professional-development program offered across universities to assist subject-matter teachers in teaching second-language learners (Snow 1997; Snow and Kahmi-Stein 2002).

3. CURRICULUM AND MATERIALS

Wesche and Skehan (2002, 225) have identified the interface of language and content as "the most important pedagogical issue for CBI at all program levels." A number of case studies of CBI reflect the difficulties in identifying appropriate, engaging content and materials, sequencing that content, identifying language objectives at the appropriate proficiency level to integrate with the content, and developing appropriate activities and assessments (Stoller 2004).

There have been a number of efforts to systematically integrate language and content. One of these is Mohan's Knowledge Framework (Mohan 1986, 2001) drawn from systemic functional linguistics, as well as Coyle's 4Cs conceptual framework of CLIL (content, communication, cognition, and culture) (Coyle, 1999). Others are the comprehensive 6Ts (themes, texts, topics, threads, tasks, and transitions) approach to CBI (Stoller and Grabe 1997) and the classroom research-based SIOP (Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol) model of 8 components and 30 features for planning and implementing sheltered-content lessons (Echevarria, Vogt, and Short 2010, xi). Cross-disciplinary observation, especially when focused on learners, can also help teachers to find connections for CBI (Crandall 1998), as can interdepartmental curriculum development (Byrnes 2000).

Some assistance is also provided by the Academic Word List, which identifies 570 academic "headwords" (such as *concept, estimate, specific*, or *theory*) and their related forms which occur frequently in multiple disciplines (Coxhead 2000). Academic words account for about 10 percent of the vocabulary in academic texts, and these plus the 2000 + most frequent words account for about 90 percent of all vocabulary in academic texts. The other 10 percent come from the hundreds of thousands of other words, some of which are the content specific or technical vocabulary of the disciplines: words such as *metamorphosis, simile, quadratic equation*, or *oligarchy*, which can be identified through the texts and tasks that constitute the disciplinary instruction. Some tasks are also more general or expected of academically literate students (identifying causes and solutions, making comparisons, structuring an argument). These could serve as the basis for CBI, leaving those that are more restricted (such as writing a science laboratory report or explaining one's solution to a mathematical problem) to courses in the discipline (Bailey and Butler 2007).

4. INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT

Because CBI involves partnerships across disciplines, institutional support for its development and implementation represents an important challenge. At elementary and secondary levels, that support might entail providing shared planning time, helping to identify and provide appropriate materials, and recognizing assessments that may diverge from traditional standardized tests. At tertiary levels, where disciplinary boundaries may make cooperation or shared instructional responsibilities difficult, shared professional development or participation in much-needed research in CBI may help establish needed support.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has defined content-based instruction (CBI) and described some of its essential features, including a focus both on content and language, as well as the use of materials and activities to promote both content and language learning. It has also identified some challenges that CBI faces, especially as these relate to redefining the roles and responsibilities of both language and content teachers, providing the professional development needed to take on these expanded roles, developing appropriate curricula and materials, and obtaining institutional support. Even with these challenges, a number of studies have demonstrated that CBI is an effective approach for academic language and conceptual development.

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CHAPTER 17

Outcomes-Based Language Teaching

Constant Leung

INTRODUCTION

Outcomes-based teaching has been adopted by a large number of education jurisdictions in recent times. As a teaching approach it is built upon a complex set of diverse ideas which have been iuterpreted and rendered differently in different circumstances. The main purpose of this discussion is to examine some of the different interpretations with a view to facilitating critical teacher reflectiòn. The chapter will open with a brief account of the educational concepts that underpiu this approach. This will be followed by a discussion on some ideas and developments iu a number of educational initiatives that can be related to the idea of outcomes-based teaching, even though they may appear under a different name or label. In the third section the discussion moves on to pedagogic, and wider educational, issues in contexts where different interpretations of "outcomes" are at work; two real-world examples from language education will be used to illustrate the points of arguments. The final section will provide a set of questions that might be helpful for second language teachers in developing an independent and critical view when evaluating the educatioual and pedagogic merits of any outcomes-based teaching regime that they may encounter in their professional settings.

BACKGROUND

In a large number of places such as Australia, the United States, and many parts of Europe the prominence of outcomes-based teaching in the past thirty years or so can be associated with the wider public policy environments in which the twin doctrines of corporatist management (whereby the activities in different segments of society are subordinated to the goals of the state) and public accountability (which requires professionals to justify

their activities in relation to declared public policy goals) have predominated. As Brindley (1998) observes,

> [I]ncreasing pressure has been placed on educational authorities by governments in many industrialized countries to meet national economic imperatives. Economic growth and international competitiveness are now conventionally seen as contingent on the capacity of education and training systems to produce a highly educated, flexible, and literate workforce. (p. 45)

Educationally, outcomes-based teaching can be linked to a number of quite diverse sources of ideas. Many commentators would agree that the work of Tyler (1949) on curriculum appears to have foregrounded learning outcomes. Tyler's instrumental views emphasize the idea of a curriculum as an expression of planned intentions in terms of student outcomes. In other words, a curriculum is a means for achieving prespecified ends in the form of student attainment, however defined. Bloom's (e.g., 1986) work on mastery learning can also be seen to connect with outcomes, but perhaps in a different way. He argues that with a nondifferentiated one-size-fits-all approach to teaching, only some students in any one class would succeed in their learning tasks. In order to enable more students to benefit from their educational experience, teachers should, Bloom argues, organize the target learning content into differentiated teaching materials to suit diverse student needs and preferences. In addition, teachers should provide formative feedback and enrichment activities during the teaching-learning process, so that students can move toward the desired curriculum objectives (for an elaboratiou see Guskey 2005).

Outcomes-based teaching, in its strongest form, perhaps receives its clearest formulation in the work of Spady (e.g., 1988) in which criterion-referenced learning outcomes are seen as the basis of developing teaching programs:

> OBE [Outcomes-based Education] is not a program, but a way of designing, delivering, and documenting instruction in terms of its intended goals and outcomes. (Spady 1988, 5)

KEY ISSUES

Currently there are different varieties of outcomes-based teaching. Some regard outcomes-based teaching as a perspective on curriculum conceptualization, for instance, in the context of university education Biggs and Tang (n.d.) suggest that:

> [W]e need to devise Teaching Learning Activities . . . that require students to apply, invent, generate new ideas, diagnose and solve problems – or whatever other things thcy arc cxpcctcd to bc ablc to do aftcr thcy graduate. (p. 1)

This learner-focused and learning-oriented perspective is linked to the process of constructive alignment, a formal term used in this body of literature, which comprises three steps (City University of Hong Kong 2009) (Also see Biggs 1996, 2003):

1. Describe intended outcomes in terms of what the students are supposed to be able to perform after teaching, and that incorporate the standards or criteria that students are to attain

2. Engage students in learning activities that are likely to bring about the intended outcomes

3. Judge if and how well students performances meet the criteria

In this version of outcomes-based teaching one can see elements of learner- and enquiry-based learning within an objective- or goal-driven teaching and assessment program. An important feature here is that there is room for the teacher and the student to work out the most suitable or productive learning activities or modes of engagement. The prespecification of teaching and learning goals is the glue that holds the pedagogic process together. One can readily see traces of Bloom's ideas of mastery learning (see above) and some aspects of formative assessment as discussed by Black and Wiliam (e.g., 1998, 2006) in this account of outcomes-based teaching.

Other renderings of outcomes-based teaching can be, however, more programmatically rigid. For instance, in the 1990s medical education in Britain appeared to have adopted a particular view of outcomes-based teaching, Talbot (2004; cf. Lorraine et al. 2005) observed that this teaching approach led to a tendency to micromanage the teaching content and the accompanying assessment:

> [T]asks are broken down into their subunits and the assessee is graded according to successful, serial completion of each of these stages. Such a competency construct is a learning paradigm: it is not the same as competence, which is a step on the road to professional excellence. . . . Such criterion-referenced approaches run the serious risk of negating a deep and reflective engagement with a professional practicum. In terms of assessment, the danger is always that we ask questions related to those things that may be more easily measured, instead of asking the more difficult questions. (p. 588)

The experience of South Africa in introducing an outcomes-based teaching policy in the late 1990s is also instructive. One of the key reasons for the adoption of outcomes-based teaching was to align school education with the need to upgrade the country's economic and technical capacity; an outcomes-based teaching approach was seen as the means to achieving the desired improvements. The process of implementation, however, threw up some interesting professional issues. As one educator commented:

> The most dramatic feature of the introduction of the OBE [Outcomes-based Education] was the suddenness within which OBE was introduced. I remember waking up one day and thinking where the hell did all this come from? The suddenness also had a lot to do with the lack of preparedness of the education community. (Jansen, cited in Spreen 2001, 215)

This remark underscores a number of complex questions: Can outcomes-based teaching, just as any other teaching approach or method, be imported into a community without taking into account existing educational and social values and practices? Is professional preparation, in the form of initial teacher education and in-service professional development, a prerequisite? What educatioual / learning outcomes should be prioritized and who should be involved making such decisions? I will now turn to two examples of language curriculum development that would speak to some aspects of these questions.

TEACHING GERMAN IN A UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT

Byrnes (2002) offers an account of a curriculum reform effort in the Department of German, Georgetown University (Washington, D.C.). In the second half of the 1990s the faculty of the German Department collectively decided that the curriculum focus of its undergraduate program should change from a "language system-based and language form-based normative approach to a language-use and language-meaning orientation," and move toward "content-learning [subjects associated with the German degree] and language acquisition in an explicit fashion" and "uses of language beyond those privileged in a near-exclusive focus on the analysis and appreciation of literary texts" (Byrnes 2002, 419–420). Over a three-year period (1997–2000) the staff and the graduate students in the department collaborated and implemented an integrated curriculum – Developing Multiple Literacies – which was organized in terms of tasks that reflected desirable learning outcomes of the degree program. This curriculum development effort explicitly adopted theories in discourse and language learning (e.g., Gee 1998) and genre-based text analysis (e.g., Christie 1999). By working together, the staff and the graduate students "developed publicly shared and frequently negotiated understandings of task that explicitly considered content and text-based forms of situated language use . . . [and] devised targeted individual tasks that expanded into thematically linked, internally sequenced task clusters . . . [that] are used strategically within content themes, at diverse instructional levels, and . . . across the curricular progression" (Byrnes 2002, 422).

The newly introduced curriculum also required a pedagogically compatible assessment framework. To dovetail with the curriculum approach, the assessment tasks were explicitly aligned with the organization of the teaching program (e.g., thematic units and levels). The assessment tasks were also explicitly tagged in terms of purpose's, key stakeholders (students and teachers), and consequences on them.

This particular curriculum development initiative was clearly driven by a set of outcomes based on the collective views of the faculty. The actual development of a task-based curriculum and assessment framework was carried out by staff and graduate students in a collaborative manner. Metaphorically, one might say that this curriculum project was driven by a homegrown process.

TEACHING LITERACY IN THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND

After a sustained period of official anxiety over the perceived low levels of literacy attainment by school leavers, the central government in the late 1990s introduced a set of ontcome targets and a teaching program designed for all publicly funded elementary education in England. Examples of the official targets were benchmarked assessment outcomes with reference to an 8-level attainment framework (Level 8 being the highest) (Barber 1997):

> By 2002: 80 percent of 11-year-olds will reach Level 4 in English (the subject as a whole)
> By 2005: all 11-year-olds will reach Level 4 in Reading (a component in the English assessment)

The teaching program – the National Literacy Strategy (DfEE 1998) – was sponsored by the central government and was intended to be implemented by all elementary schools, with some initial in-school support from visiting official consultants. The overall curriculum for each of the six years of elementary schooling was specified in terms of word level, sentence level and text level teaching on a term-by-term basis. All students, including English Language Learners, were expected to follow this program. The following are examples of the descriptors set out in Year 2, Term 3 (DfEE 1998, 30–31):

> Word level – to secure phonemic spellings from previous 5 terms
> Sentence level – to read text aloud with intonation and expression appropriate to the grammar and punctuation
> Text level – to reinforce and apply . . . [students'] word-level skills through shared and guided reading

In terms of curriculum time provision, schools were asked to devote one hour a day every day to this literacy program. And in terms of classroom pedagogy, teachers were advised to divide the hour into four sequential parts: 15 minutes on whole class discussions and shared reading (to highlight learning points and activities); 15 minutes on whole class focused language work on word or sentence level; 20 minutes on independent (guided) reading or writing by individuals or groups; and finally 10 minutes on a whole class session on reinforcing learning points or clarifying ambiguities. This teaching program was accompanied by a plethora of official curriculum materials and a mandatory assessment framework administered by a national agency.

Quite clearly this attempt at adopting an outcomes-based teaching approach was conceived as a top-down and externally imposed exercise, very much the opposite of the curriculum development effort undertaken by the staff and students at Georgetown University. As a coda to these accounts, it would be important to note that, at the time of writing, the curriculum development work in the German Department at Georgetown University is still being elaborated and fine-tuned by faculty and research students (Byrnes, personal communication, 2010-03-03). The implementation of the National Literacy Strategy (in England) was received with a mixture of approval and dissent. The official external evaluation praised, inter alia, the greater clarity in what should be taught and the professional development facilities for teachers (Earl et al. 2003). The test scores also pointed to higher levels of student attainment (but the attainment targets cited above were not met). At the same time there was a steady stream of reports of curriculum narrowing, teaching to the test and intermittent teacher industrial actions over assessment in the past ten years or so. (For a fuller discussion, see Lenng and Rea-Dickins 2007.) And despite the support for professional development and other teaching resources provided by the central government, it was acknowledged that many teachers did not have "the sustained learning experiences necessary to develop a thorough understanding of . . . the best ways to teach literacy. . . . " (Earl et al. 2003, 8). This strategy is due to be abolished in the near future.

The point here is not to pass judgments on the educational merits of these two attempts at outcomes-based teaching or education; that would be beyond the scope of this discussion. It is certainly not suggested here that outcomes-based teaching has to be conceived in a particular way, either at a local or national level. Rather, the point here is what language teachers as professionals might glean from these two experiences.

PEDAGOGIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUESTIONS

The discnssion so far would suggest that there are three main questions associated with outcomes-based teaching:

- Are the preidentified outcomes appropriate to students' needs in context?
- Is there alignment between outcomes, curriculum and classroom pedagogy, and assessment in respect of learner needs?

- What part, if any, do teachers play in the design of such a program? (Or conversely, are they seen as mere operators in its implementation?)

We can use the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) as a reference point to discuss these questions. The CEFR is designed to provide a "common basis for explicit description of objectives, content, and methods" for the study of modern languages, within a wider purpose of "elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc." across Europe (Council of Europe 2001, 1). Perhaps it should be pointed out at once that the CEFR itself does not claim to be prescriptive in relation to classroom pedagogy and the actual design of specific language assessment tasks / tests. But it does set out a framework of learning outcomes in terms of language proficiency levels and level descriptors. There are six levels, from A1 (lowest) to C2 (highest):

Basic user – A1, A2
Independent user – B1, B2
Proficient user – C1, C2

For reasons of scope we will just look at some examples of the B1 level listening descriptors (Council of Europe 2001). In the global scale, B1 listening is described as:

Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. (p. 24)

In the self-assessment criteria:

I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered at work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear. (p. 26)

And in the description for listening as a member of a live audience:

Can follow a lecture or talk within his/her own field, provided the subject matter is familiar and the presentation straightforward and clearly structured. (p. 67)

These descriptors are framed in terms of modern foreign language learning within Europe, e.g., learners of English in Germany or learners of French in Greece. So, the learning outcomes, referred to as objectives, are associated with the use of a modern foreign language for a range of targeted activities; learners' attainments and progress can be identified by the six levels. B1 level outcomes are deemed to be associated with learners who can handle the target language "independently" in particular situations, as evidenced by descriptors such as "familiar matters regularly encountered" and "whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken." B1 level performance is also set against particular communicative conditions such as "when the delivery is relatively slow and clear."

Quite clearly teachers will need to judge the appropriateness of the B1 descriptors (or any other within the CEFR scales) in relation to the students they are teaching. If one is working with, say, a group of Italian-speaking bank employees learning English for professional reasons, then some of the descriptors might make sense at some stage of their teaching. However, if one is teaching linguistic minority students in England who are learning to use English to do academic studies, then these descriptors would only be, at best, appropriate in a very vague and abstract sense; they would need to be adapted and expanded locally because an independent user of English as a second language in school would have to do a good deal more than what is covered in these CEFR descriptors.

On the question of alignment between outcomes, curriculum content, classroom pedagogy, and assessment, the teacher would again need to further consider learner needs in context. For the sake of argument if we assume that we are talking about Italian bankers learning English for professional purposes, and we further assume that the learning outcome of "Can understand the main points of clear, standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work," one issue here would be what kind of learning material would be appropriate. The basis of selection of appropriate material would depend on the level and kind of banking the learners are expected to deal with, e.g., are they front-office employees expected to be assigned to an overseas branch in an English-speaking country or back-office technical staff dealing with investment banking through e-communication with English-speaking counterparts? Likewise, the choice of teaching activities would have to be adjudged in terms of their likelihood to lead to the desired learning outcomes. The kinds of questions involved would include: Would the use of the learners' first language be helpful in the teaching and learning activities? How much "authentic" material should be used in the teaching? Should a grammar focus be adopted? Should group work be the preferred mode of classroom interaction? The answers to these questions are highly context- and student-sensitive. The currently available research and our collective professional experience are not yet able to offer any clear-cut choices that would work everywhere (see Council of Europe 2001, chap. 6, for a discussion). But it has been observed that prestigious and politically powerful trans-national outcomes frameworks such as the CEFR can be used to predominate over and displace local understandings and needs (see Fulcher 2009 for a discussion). Therefore this area of teachers' professional practice calls into action theory-informed decision making that takes local contexts into account.

Likewise, the mode and form of assessment would have to be considered in the light of the teaching content and classroom experience, and vice versa. Working on the general assumption that valid assessment should tap into what has been learned, then it would make little sense to put the learners through a standardized test that bears little or no resemblance to the particular content and activities that the learners have been put through. Conversely if it is known in advance that assessment is routed through an externally designed instrument, then the teaching content and classroom experience would need to take account of this (although this would run the risk of teaching to the test, if carried out to excess).

To recap briefly, the curriculum development project in the German Department of Georgetown University has been initiated and carried forward by faculty and research students in a collaborative manner. In contrast, the National Literacy Strategy in England has been "engineered" externally and "delivered" to schools and teachers as a "package" by a central curriculum authority (e.g., DfEE, 1998). Teacher participation has been restricted to implementation in the classroom. These two cases represent quite different conceptualizations of what is meant by outcomes-based teaching. However an outcomes-based teaching program is organized, it is quite clear that sustained efforts over time in developing ideas and work practices are required. All other things being equal, the higher the level of teacher and student participation in the design and implementation, the greater the likelihood for teachers to be able to make student-sensitive decisions that would align outcomes with curriculum, pedagogy assessment, and professional development.

CONCLUSION

Outcomes-based teaching can be conceptualized and implemented in a variety of ways. Outcomes can be drawn from external benchmarks or qualificatory frameworks; in the field of language teaching, external outcomes can be based on attainment and assessment frameworks such as ACTFL, CEFR, IELTS, and TOEFL. In some cases the outcomes are set by institutional or national authorities. It can be introduced as a highly prescriptive program where pedagogy and assessment are driven by a particular interpretation of outcomes in a lockstep manner. It can also be seen as the basis for a highly participatory bottom-up collaborative effort. This discussion has tried to make visible some of the key curriculum, pedagogic, and professional issues for critical teacher reflection. The educational merits of any outcomes-based teaching ultimately will depend on how far it facilitates student learning through appropriate and responsive curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment.

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CHAPTER 8

hing English for Academic Purposes

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INTRODUCTION

From small beginnings in the 1970s and 80s, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has become both a major area of research in applied linguistics and the focus of courses taken worldwide by large numbers students preparing for study in colleges and universities or already enrolled iu programs at the undergraduate, graduate, or higher research degree level. In examining EAP pedagogy, I will first outline some of the key features of academic discourse, and then examine their implications for course design, materials selection, and classroom activities. Running through the analysis is the concept of consciousness-raising, whereby students are assisted to explore the ways in which discourse and language choices are connected, and to see that academic texts reflect assumptions about academic practice rather than being solely bearers of content.

BACKGROUND

STUDY SKILLS, GENERAL PURPOSE EAP, AND SPECIFIC PURPOSE EAP

Current EAP teaching is characterized by three major approaches which focus on study skills, general purpose EAP, and specific purpose EAP respectively. The study skills approach aims to develop students' control of a range of skills deemed to be necessary for successful participation in tertiary study. These skills are regarded as common to all students within the university context, and so are independent of discipline and content. Examples of this approach are widespread, especially on the study skills Web sites of many universities, and some courses aiming to prepare students to take language proficiency tests such as IELTS or TOEFL.

Examples of academic study skills

Identifying main ideas in a text
Distinguishing fact from opinion
Guessing the meaning of words from context
Note taking
Summarizing
Referring to sources appropriately
Recognizing the function of discourse markers

It has increasingly been recognized, however, that rather than developing a range of skills, students need an understanding of the discourse of academia and of the specific disciplines in which they are enrolled. They need to understand, for example, types of questions that can be asked, the ways in which information is collected and analyzed, the purpose and form of common genres, the ways in which writers create a voice for themselves, and the use of appropriate forms of language. This does not mean that academic skills are irrelevant, rather that they are demonstrated within a discourse framework.

Responses to this understanding have taken two forms. The first is English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), which posits a general academic discourse common to all disciplines. Johns (1997) suggests this discourse is characterized by ten general features, including the need to be explicit, to organize texts deductively, with topic and argument indicated in the introduction, to use language suggestive of objectivity and appropriate levels of authority, and to refer appropriately to the work of others.

However, research has increasingly focused on the discipline-specific nature of academic discourse. Disciplines differ in the questions they ask, the methodologies employed, the genres used and so on. English for Specific Academic Purposes, or ESAP, aims to develop students' ability to function effectively within a specific discipline or group of related disciplines.

Proponents of EGAP argue that teachers of EAP lack the specialized knowledge that would allow them to teach discipline-specific courses. They also point to the practical difficulties encountered in catering for students with diverse disciplinary backgrounds and interests. Opponents contend that it is unclear what a common core of texts and tasks might include, as disciplines vary widely in the genres they employ and type of activities undertaken by members.

In practice, the choice between a common core or a discipline-specific approach tends to be related to the disciplines a student is studying or expects to study. The specialized nature of the discourse of many professions, such as law, nursing, medicine, and engineering, demands specialized EAP training; other students may undertake common core programs, especially if the common core is loosely interpreted to include separate common core programs for those in the sciences and those in the social sciences and humanities.

KEY ISSUES

DISCOURSE COMMUNITIES

Closely related to the concept of a discourse is that of a discourse community, which broadly speaking refers to the collective of people who share a distinctive way of understanding the world. Swales, one of the earliest researchers to use the concept, characterized a discourse community as having, among other things, a broadly agreed set of common public goals, agreed ways of collecting, discovering, and valuing information, genres for the furtherance of goals, and a specific lexis.

As learners move into a specific discourse community, they need to learn to think, write, and speak like a member of that community; in other words, they need to learn to act as an insider. The metaphor of apprenticeship is often used to describe this process, suggesting that students are recognized by members of a discourse community as learners who are expected to increasingly conform to the discourse of their chosen field as they move from undergraduate to postgraduate and doctoral study. One of the problems of this approach is that students, especially at the undergraduate level, may not see themselves in this light. Plum (1998) found that many first year psychology students did not see themselves as potential psychologists and so did not see any reason to conform to their lecturers' expectations regarding appropriate structure and language in completing assignments. In designing EAP courses it is therefore important to develop not only the ability to structure a particular text appropriately, but also to recognize the ways in which the attitudes and values of the particular discourse community, whether conceived as university wide or specific to a discipline or group of disciplines, are represented in the text.

GENRE

The concept of discourse communities highlights the importance of genre in EAP, as control of genre is a major feature of membership. The two approaches to genre which have had the greatest impact on EAP pedagogy come respectively from English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Swales 1990) and the Australian approach (Martin 1993), which share a common concern with texts, but approach them from different angles. Swales (1990) regards a genre as a class of communicative events having a shared set of communicative purposes and a common structure, content, and audience. Importantly, genres are recognized and named by members of the discourse community that uses them.

Examples of common academic genres

essays	lectures	research reports	tutorial presentations
laboratory reports	literature reviews	seminars	tutorials
	reports	textbooks	

Scholars working in the ESP tradition have focused on describing the structure of various genres, using structural move analysis. Perhaps the most influential of these studies has been Swales' description of the structure of the introduction to a research article, in which he identifies three moves, each of which can be realized in one or more ways.

Swales (1990) Structure of the introduction to a research article

Move 1: Establish a territory
    Claim centrality
    Make topic generalizations
    Review previous research

Move 2: Establish a niche
    Counter-claim
    Indicate a gap
    Raise a question
    Continue a tradition

Move 3: Occupy a niche
    Outline purpose or announce present research
    Announce present findings
    Indicate RA structure

The Australian approach to genre has developed from Halliday's theory of systemic-functional grammar. Martin (1993), who has pioneered the work on genre in this tradition, identified eight basic, or primary, genres: narrative, recount, information report, explanation, procedure, exposition, discussion, and description. Complex genres are built by combining these basic types.

Genre	Purpose	Structure
Recount	To tell what happened	Orientation Record of events Reorientation
Information report	To describe an entire class of things: e.g., mammals, the planets, plants, computers	General statement identifies subject Description: e.g., features, behavior, types
Exposition	To argue for or against a particular position	Statement of position Arguments Reinforcement of position statement

Table 18.1   Common university genre structures

Both the ESP and the Australian approach to genre direct attention to the purpose and structure of particular genre. The focus on purpose is particularly significant given that different discourse communities may use the same label for genres with different purposes. A case study in law, for example, has a very different purpose and structure from a case study in business. At the same time, students from different cultural backgrounds may have different expectations regarding both purpose and structure of common academic texts. They may, for example, regard an essay as requiring a demonstration of understanding of content rather than the opportunity to present and defend a position. Consciousness raising encourages the discussion of the purpose of specific genres, and fosters comparison with similar genres in other educational cultures.

IDENTITY, VOICE, AND PLAGIARISM

Writers need to establish an authorial identity or voice that is both authoritative and related to other writers in the discipline. For many students, the issue of establishing an author-itative authorial voice is especially challenging because this may not appear to be an appropriate position for a student to take: they may feel that their job is rather to display an understanding of course material. The issue is further complicated by range of means used to establish a voice in English, and disciplinary variation in their use. Two of the major means are self-mention and hedges. Writers can present themselves in their writing using pronouns (*I, we*) and hedges, which indicate the extent to which they endorse a claim (*may, might, perhaps*). Many students believe that self-reference is inappropriate in academic writing, while in fact the extent and function of self-reference varies among disciplines. In the humanities and social sciences it is commonly used to build a relationship with the reader and to take responsibility for positions or methodologies, while in the hard sciences it is far less common, reflecting the claims made by the sciences to impersonality and objectivity.

In avoiding self-reference, students may be seen as making unmerited claims to objectivity, or may resort to clumsy circumlocutions, which emphasize their lack of familiarity with the appropriate discourse. On the other hand, they may resort to using personal pronouns to express positions (*I think, I believe*) rather than to take responsibility (*I will argue*), so presenting a personal rather than an authoritative voice.

Hedges also exhibit considerable disciplinary variation, but the main problem for students tends to come in the appropriate interpretation of hedges when reading, and the recognition of when to hedge as well as the choice of an appropriate level of hedging when writing. Assisting students to notice the use of language features in texts, to hypothesize about their function and use, and to test their hypothesize in their own writing and by analyzing further examples can be a useful means of helping students develop a voice.

CITATION PRACTICES AND PLAGIARISM

Writers also need to relate their position to that of others working in the field. This is an issue of considerable importance, given the attention placed upon plagiarism within universities.

Citation practices in English are complex. Firstly, knowledge that is commonly accepted is not generally cited. Secondly, the reasons for citation may not be obvious to students who view their role as consumers rather than creators of knowledge. In particular, students may not be aware of the need to express a position in their own voice and support it with citation. Rather, they may believe that it is more appropriate to present information taken from expert sources as clearly as possible, thus demonstrating their mastery of content. In addition, many students from non-Anglo-American cultural backgrounds and academic traditions may find the notion of individual ownership of academic knowledge inappropriate or may feel that they have no option but to use the wording of source because of the limitations imposed by writing in English.

The implications for EAP are wide ranging. The study skills approach, which treats citation as a technical question, is likely to be ineffective as it focuses solely on teaching the mechanics: the information to be recorded and the ways in which this can be done. As appropriate citation involves both an understanding of the sociocultural attitudes which inform citation practices and a number of judgments including the extent to which a particular knowledge claim is widely accepted within a discipline, and whether to summarize or quote, it is not surprising that many students face difficulties.

Consciousness raising in the form identification of citation practices in model texts and discussion of their function and form can assist students to both understand appropriate practices and experiment with them in their own writing. This needs to go hand in hand with developing a understanding of the need for an authorial voice and the linguistic means by which this is established.

COURSE DESIGN

Two of the most influential approaches to course design in EAP are the text-based approach, arising from the work of the Australian genre researchers (Burns this volume, chap. 15), and content-based instruction (CBI) (Crandall this volume, chap. 16).

TEXT-BASED APPROACH

As its name suggests, the text-based approach focuses on developing mastery of the major genres that students will encounter in the course of their studies. Feez (1998), working in the systemic functional linguistic (SFL) tradition, describes the teaching and learning cycle

(see table 18.2), an influential approach to course design that involves learners moving through a carefully scaffolded process of analysis and construction during which support is gradually reduced as students develop mastery.

Building the context	establish purpose of genre; explore its cultural context and assumptions
Modeling and deconstructing	analyze samples of the genre in terms of stages and key features of language
Joint construction	students jointly construct texts supported by teacher
Independent construction	students construct texts independently
Linking to other texts	students compare the genre with related genres and in other contexts

Table 18.2 The Teaching-Learning Cycle (Feez 1998, p. 28)

The first stage, *building the context*, allows students to explore the sociocultural or disciplinary context of the genre under consideration. Activities at this stage are aimed at raising student consciousness and include:

- identification of the purpose of the genre within a specific discourse;
- comparison of the purpose of the genre with the purpose of similar genres in own culture;
- discussion of appropriate authorial identity and the means by which this is established;
- discussion of the distinction between knowledge that is widely accepted, and therefore unacknowledged, and knowledge attributable to individual scholars;
- discussion of the reasons underlying citation practices.

This stage also allows students to explore the meaning of phrases which are commonly found in assignment requirements but seldom explicated by disciplinary lecturers, including terms such as critical thinking, independent study, and the bases ou which sources are deemed to be academically reliable and acceptable.

In the second stage, *modeling and deconstructing*, students analyze examples of the genre in terms of their structure and language. Activities at this stage include:

- discussion and identification of the stages of a text;
- identification of missing stages;
- reordering of jumbled texts;
- completing schematic diagrams of arguments;
- identification of the language features that contribute to an authoritative authorial voice;
- identification of the citation system;
- discussion of authorial choices regarding direct quotation or forms of reference to the work of others;
- identification of nominal groups;
- reordering of jumbled nominal groups.

Note that discussion of the structure and language of a text is grounded in the discussion of the sociocultural and disciplinary context established in the first stage.

The third stage involves students in *joint construction* of texts, in groups or together with the teacher. Activities at this stage include:

- planuing the process of researching and writing or presenting a text;
- reading, summarizing, and presenting the content of a text to the group;
- developing a structure which synthesizes information from a number of readings;
- writing the first draft;
- editing and redrafting;
- producing and proofreading the final draft;
- evaluating the texts of both own and other groups with respect to features such as structure, authorial voice, use of sources.

Joint construction not only allows students to develop their ability to construct a text in a supportive environment, but it also involves the meaningful negotiation that contributes largely to effective language learning.

Similar activities are also used in the fourth stage, *independent construction*, during which students construct texts independently.

The final stage involves *linking to other texts* by comparing to different genres. Activities include:

- changes in medium: e.g., the change from essay to oral presentation;
- changes in genre: e.g., the change from a lab report to a poster in the sciences.

While the advantages of the text-based approach and the learning-teaching cycle are many, it has been criticized for encouraging the automatic application of templates, resulting in students imitating the structure of genre without an adequate appreciation of their purpose and context. A related criticism is that it denies student agency in its focus on appropriately constructing specific genre. However, it is difficult to see how students can be expected to experiment with generic structure without a prior understanding of the general form. The teaching-learning cycle also underlines the importance of understanding the sociocultural and disciplinary context in developing mastery of a genre.

CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

A second and increasingly popular approach to EAP is content-based instruction (CBI). CBI involves learners in acquiring both subject knowledge and the ability to use the discourse of the discipline together. Different models of CBI can be seen as a continuum according to the relative weighting of content and language outcomes, as in figure 18.1.

Content driven ← ─────────────────────────────→ Language driven

• immersion
• partial immersion
• sheltered subject-area courses
	• adjunct courses: content courses supplemented by language support courses	• content used as a springboard for language practice:
		  theme-based courses
		  genre-based courses
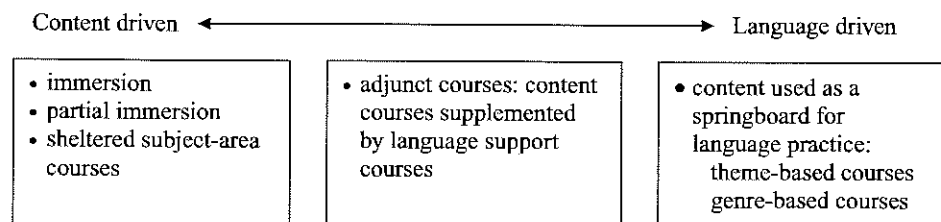
Figure 18.1 Continuum of CBI models

Immersion and partial immersion courses involve learners in studying either all or some subjects in English, possibly but not necessarily alongside native speakers of the language. Sheltered subject-area courses also give equal weight to content and language outcomes, but the amount of content included is reduced or modified. While it is often believed that students engaged in study in English will automatically improve their language competence, this is only true for their reading and writing. Without explicit language support, writing and speaking are not likely to develop. This has lead to the use of adjunct courses which take their texts and assessment tasks from a content class, but which focus on developing language competence. Theme-based and genre-based courses focus on linguistic rather than content outcomes.

A key concern for teachers involved in CBI, and in fact a key concern for all EAP teachers, is the relationship between the language and the content specialists. This can involve team-teaching, collaboration, (in which the teachers discuss issues outside the classroom), or co-operation between teachers in providing information regarding course content, readings, assessment tasks, and so on. Whichever model is adopted, EAP teachers need to be informed regarding the demands of the target situation and the characteristics of the discourse communities for which the students are preparing. This is especially so if teachers are working with students who are aiming to study in disciplines in which the teacher has little experience, and may challenge teachers to develop their understanding of such disciplines.

MATERIALS CHOICE

Whatever approach to course design is chosen, the issue of materials choice is of prime importance. The first consideration is whether to use simplified or authentic materials. While simplified materials, both spoken and written, may make content more accessible, there are a number of drawbacks associated with their use. A major danger is the distortion of content, something that is particularly easy when EAP teachers are working with texts from unfamiliar disciplines. Simplified texts both spoken and written, often exclude the features that cause listeners the most difficulty, including cultural references, jokes, asides and rapid, unsignaled changes of topic in the case of speaking, and unstated information, implicit logical connections, and heavily nominalized language in writing. Disciplinary differences also tend to be obscured.

In selecting authentic texts, the focus is on appropriacy of genre and language rather than on appropriacy of content. An article on biology from *New Scientist* for example, may well contain appropriate content but conforms to the generic and linguistic forms of popular science rather than those of biology. It is also important to consider whether students are undergraduates, graduates, or research students, as the genres they encounter will vary. Undergraduate students of business tend to read textbooks and are expected to write case studies and reports, while research students in the same discipline are more likely to read and write research articles.

When texts are functioning as models, it is useful for students to analyze several different examples of a genre, as writers can and do vary in the ways they use generic structure and language, and students need both to recognize this and to understand that writing a particular genre does not involve using it as a template structure.

CONCLUSION

Future directions in teaching EAP are likely to involve several key issues. The first is the issue of critical academic literacy, which questions the assimilationist goal of many EAP

courses. Critics claim that EAP courses, whether general or discipline-specific, focus on the need for students to adapt to the practices which characterize their particular disciplines and have ignored the power differentials and literacy practices which exclude some, notably students from different sociocultural or socioeconomic backgrounds Critical EAP aims to empower students with an analytical framework that assists them to reflect on both their own language practices and the practices they encounter in their disciplinary studies and to give them the tools to challenge or at least to modify those practices.

Related to this is the role of English as the dominant international language of academic study and scholarship. This dominance not only disenfranchises scholars from non-English-speaking backgrounds but also contributes to the impoverishment of other languages as academics avoid publishing in those languages.

Finally the increasing use of multimedia and electronic communication in academic study is likely to influence EAP in ways that are only just now starting to be explored.

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Teaching English for Specific Purposes

Brian Paltridge

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of developments in the teaching of English for specific purposes (ESP); that is, the teaching of English as a second or foreign language where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domaiu. ESP includes areas such as English for academic purposes (EAP), English for occupational purposes (EOP), English for vocational purposes (EVP), Ehglish for science and technology (EST), English for medical purposes (EMP), English for business purposes (EBP), and English for sociocultural purposes (ESCP) (Belcher 2009). A key feature of an ESP course is that the content and aims of the course are oriented to the specific needs of the learners (Richards and Schmidt 2002). ESP courses, then, focus on the language, skills, aud genres appropriate to the specific activities the learners need to carry out iu English. Typically (although not always) ESP students are adult learners. They are also often a homogeneous group. There may be limited time for the course, and the learners will generally have a threshold level of proficiency, typically an upper intermediate level or above (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

BACKGROUND

THE HISTORY OF ESP

The teaching of English for specific purposes dates back to the 1960s and was largely motivated by the need to communicate across languages in areas such as commerce and technology. The earliest ESP courses focused on sentence level language such as the use of the passive and the simple present in research reports in the area of English for science and technology. The examination of *rhetorical functions* in the 1970s, such as compare and contrast, cause and effect, and problem / solution, shifted the focus beyond the sentence

to larger units of text in ESP classrooms. *Target situation analysis* which emerged in the late 1970s and early 1980s was the beginning of what came to be known as *needs analysis* and aimed to relate the analysis of language more closely to learners' reasons for learning. The movement that followed looked beyond language and considered the processes that underlie language use. The main idea that underlay this approach was that there are common processes, regardless of surface forms, that enable language users to extract meaning from discourse. The focus, here, was on *strategies* which enable learners to deal, for example, with reading and listening in specialized contexts.

The more recent focus on *genre* in ESP teaching draws from the concerns of teachers and researchers that previous approaches did not adequately prepare learners for the kinds of texts they need to be able to produce and the situations they need to take part in. Genre analysis is described by Dudley-Evans and St John as "the study of the structural and linguistic regularities of particular genres or text types and the role they play within a discourse community" (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998, p. xv). Genre studies, then, explore genre-specific patterns of language use in terms of communicative purpose, content, and form. Genre-based teaching focuses on the abilities, knowledge, and skills that learners need in order to perform particular spoken and written genres. A genre-based syllabus is made up of a list of genres learners need to acquire, such as academic essays, case study reports, or business presentations, including relevant discourse and language-level features and contextual information in relation to them (Paltridge 2001).

A further important and developing area in ESP is the use of *corpus studies* to inform the development of ESP courses. Corpus studies employ computer databases to examine large samples of texts in order to identity lexical and grammatical patterns that are typical of particular genres (see e.g., Biber and Conrad 2009; Flowerdew, 2011). Frequency lists have also been produced from these kinds of corpora such as Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List. This list is based on a large-scale analysis of a corpus of published written texts and is designed to help students with their academic reading.

KEY ISSUES

NEEDS ANALYSIS AND ESP COURSE DESIGN

Needs analysis is often considered the most important part of ESP course design. Hutchison and Waters (1987) believe that what distinguishes ESP from general English is the awareness of a need. Two key components of a needs analysis are *target needs* and *learning needs*. A *target situation analysis* looks at the learner's future roles in English and attempts to specify the linguistic skills and knowledge that is required for them to perform competently in these roles. A *learning situation analysis* examines what the learners can do at the beginning of the course, as well as information on their subjective, felt and process-oriented needs. *Needs*, then, is an umbrella term. It includes *necessities, lacks,* and *wants. Necessities* is need determined by the target situation; that is, what the learner needs to know and be able to do to function effectively in the target situation. *Lacks* consider what the learner knows and can do already as well as the gap between target and existing proficiency. *Wants* is the learner's views of what they need.

There are a number of ways of gathering information about needs. One of these is to carry out a review of the published literature for previous needs analyses, research data, and materials that can be used to inform the analysis. A further strategy is to talk to colleagues who may have experience with similar groups of learners as well as former students, employers, and sponsors. Data on the learners can be obtained through the use of surveys,

questionnaires, interviews, as well as by looking at past study records and assessments of their language proficiency. It is also important to analyze, if possible, examples of sample texts the students are required to produce. While it is not possible (or necessary) to use all of these data collection methods, it is important to use several approaches to gathering this information, rather than just one. Multiple sources add both breadth and depth to an analysis. They also offer an important way of validating the findings obtained from each of these sources (Long 2005) (see Jordan 1997; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998; Paltridge 2009 for further suggestions on this).

GENRE AND ESP COURSE DESIGN

The notion of genre as an organizing principle for ESP courses moves the focus in the classroom beyond the level of grammar, functions, vocabulary, etc., into larger units of work on which to base the teaching. A genre-based approach to ESP course design starts with genre as the overall driving force of the syllabus, yet still includes all other aspects of language, such as grammar, functions, vocabulary, and language skills, that one might expect to see in a communicative syllabus. This, combined with in-class discussions of the role and purpose of the genres being studied, and the context in which they occur, helps learners understand why genres are written, or spoken, the way they are (Johns 1997).

It is important however, that the approach to genre employed in the course should be descriptive and not prescriptive as it sometimes has become. An overly prescriptive approach to genre-based teaching can easily imply that all students have to do is learn basic textual structures in order to create a genre which meets the expectations of a particular discourse community. It is also important that teachers recognize that what they are teaching are tendencies rather than fixed patterns of forms. The aim, thus, should not be to give students rigid templates against which all texts are then forced to fit (Swales 1990). It should, rather, be to encourage students to understand the choices they make in the production of particular texts so they can draw on this information for their own rhetorical and communicative purposes (for further discussion of genre-based teaching, see Paltridge 2001; Burns this volume, chap. 15).

LANGAUGE AND ESP TEACHING

In 1987, Hutchinson and Waters (p. 18) famously said "the fact that language is used for a specific purpose does not imply that it is a special form of the language, different in kind from other forms." English for Specific Purposes they argued is "*not* a matter of Science words and grammar for Scientists, Hotel words and grammar for Hotel staff and so on" (their emphasis). This view has subsequently been refuted by researchers working in the areas of corpus studies and genre analysis. Biber (1988), for example, in a large scale corpus study found a wide range of linguistic variation within the genres he examined, some of which he describes as "surprising and contrary to popular expectation" (Biber 1988, 178). Biber's (2002) conclusion is that "different kinds of texts are complex in different ways (in addition to being more or less complex)" (p. 133), and that many earlier conclusions that have been reached about specific purposes language "reflect our incomplete understanding of the linguistic characteristics of discourse complexity" (p. 135). Hyland (2002, 2004) equally argues for specificity in ESP teaching. His research has shown how the use of language varies in terms of rhetorical patterns and linguistic features across disciplines, especially in their written genres. These language differences, then, need to be accounted for in special purposes teaching.

TEACHER KNOWLEDGE AND ESP TEACHING

A common topic in the ESP literature is how much knowledge a teacher needs to have of the specialist area of their students. In some cases, such as preuniversity EAP courses, this may not be such as issue as long as the teacher is aware of the values and expectations that underlie academic writing in general. At the more advanced level, there may be the need to approach a subject-area specialist to advise on the content of the course and, perhaps, to take part in the course in some way (Belcher 2009). In Business English, it is often the case that the learners know more about their job than their teacher. Business English teachers sometimes call themselves trainers, coaches, or consultants to deal with this issue (Frendo 2005). Their students do not necessarily expect them to know how to run a business. They do, however, expect them to know about how language is used in business settings (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998) and to be able to train or coach them in this use.

EVALUATING ESP MATERIALS

As Jordan (1997) points out, many ESP courses use a mix of course books and in-house material. It is important, however, to choose materials that fit with the learning goals of the students as well as their learning needs. The material needs to be usable in the particular situation, able to be adapted to suit the learners' needs, and flexible enough so that this can take place. That is, the materials that the teacher chooses need to be "needs responsive" (Belcher 2009). There are a number of things a teacher can do to adapt published material for their group of learners. The teacher can add or omit content, change the sequencing of the content, change the organization of individual lessons, and they can add or omit assessment (Nation and Macalister 2010). As Richards (2001) points out, for many students the materials the teacher chooses are their major source of contact with the language, apart from the teacher. Teaching and learning materials play an important role in any ESP program. The material needs to present language as it is used in the target situation and the full range of language that is required of them in that situation (see Dudley-Evans and St John 1998; McGrath 2002; Richards 2001 for further discussion of materials development and adaptation).

ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION IN ESP COURSES

It is not always the case that assessment will be part of an ESP course. Sometime short, informal ESP courses may not have the time for assessment or it may not be a requirement of the sponsoring organization for the course. In some cases, assessment may be informal and in others more formal. One important reason for some form of assessment in an ESP course is as an aid to student learning. Another is to see how well the course has prepared the students for their target situation. In may not always be the case that a formal test will reveal this. Sponsoring bodies, however, may ask to see some signs of learner improvement as a result of the course. In these cases at least some kind of informal, in-class assessment may need to take place at some point in the course (see Dudley-Evans and St John 1998; Douglas 2000 for suggestions on how to do this).

It is important, however, that some kind of evaluation of the course itself takes place. A key consideration in doing this is who the information is for and why the evaluation is being carried out: Is it for the teacher's own purposes, or is it for a wider audience? Is it for improving the delivery of the course, or is it for an outside body, such as employer or sponsor? That is, the evaluation may be teacher led or it may be management led (Kiely and Rea-Dickens 2005). It is also important to consider what aspects of the teaching and learning will be evaluated. The criteria to be used in the evaluation are also important as

well as when the evaluation will take place. That is, will it take place during the course and thereby inform the current teaching and learning (*formative evaluation*), or will it occur after the course and be used to judge the overall success of the course (*summative evaluation*)? It also needs to be decided how the evaluation data will be obtained and who will provide this data (Rea-Dickins and Germaine 1992). Strategies that might be used to collect the data include tests, interviews, questionnaires, learner diaries and journals, teacher records, student logs, student evaluations, and classroom observations. As with needs analysis, more than just the one data source is important for checking and cross-validating the findings of the evaluation (Brown and Rodgers 2002; see Richards 2001 for a detailed discussion of approaches to language program evaluation).

CONCLUSION

Recent research in the area of ESP has used ethnographic techniques as a way of trying to understand the complexities of ESP language and the contexts in which students need to use this language (see Starfield 2010, 2011 for examples of this). Dressen-Hammouda (2008) discusses "situated genre analysis" as a way of taking account of the communicative practices of specific disciplinary communities and for understanding the use of language in particular settings. Other important strands of research that have implications for the ESP classroom are the use of *English as a lingua franca* for international research (Tardy 2004) and the language of international communications and business (Planken and Nickerson 2009). There has also been increased attention given in ESP research to *advanced academic literacies* and the multiple literacy requirements (Hyland 2007) of ESP students' present and future lives. A further important issue that is being explored in ESP research is the notion of *identity* (Block 2010). ESP students' identities are both negotiated and develop as they increase their participation in particular communities of practice (Casanave 2002). Students may do what they are asked to do, or they may decide to resist (Benesch 2001). The ways in which they can do this and what this might imply, however, are complex, and not at all transparent to someone who is only just beginning to become a member of the particular group. All of these developments have important implications for how we go about teaching English for specific purposes and how we might help our learners achieve their goals.

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CHAPTER 20

racy-Based Language Teaching

rd Kern

INTRODUCTION

Since its invention over 5,000 years ago, writing has allowed people to communicate across time and distance. Writing is an essential resource for learning about the past and the present and for exploring the imagined worlds of literature. Through texts we have the opportunity to examine the particular ways that other people use language to express ideas and experiences. Reading teaches us about the conventions of language but also helps us understand the beliefs and values that shape how people use language in another culture.

BACKGROUND

WHAT IS LITERACY?

Literacy has to do with uses of writing. It is most often defined as the ability to read and write a language. But people read and write for many different specific purposes in a wide range of social contexts, and so what that "ability" is will inevitably vary somewhat with each context and purpose. Compare reading the Koran versus a science textbook versus a poem. The first puts an emphasis on recitation, the second on getting and synthesizing information, and the third on interpretation. Compare writing a shopping list versus a personal letter versus an essay. The list involves thinking about what we need and jotting down words or abbreviations to remind ourselves. The letter is grounded in some relationship to another person, and involves writing down thoughts we think would be relevant to that person. The essay involves framing an argument that follows a particular cultural organization and logic and is supported by relevant information. All of these acts bring together different configurations of knowledge about language, culture, genres, style, graphic conventions (e.g., punctuation, layout, direction of text), not to mention relevant knowledge about the

world. People can be more or less literate depending on the nature of the material and the task (for example, many educated adults have difficulty reading legal contracts, others find it hard to assemble a product from written instructions). And when one spends time in another country, one may well encounter different cultures of reading and writing. The point is that we cannot think of literacy as a uniform generic ability – it is defined not by individnals' capacities but rather by social purposes and contexts.

Brian Street (1984) proposed a distinction between "autonomous" and "ideological" models of literacy. The autonomous model is associated with "Great Divide" theorists (e.g., Goody and Watt 1963; Greenfield 1972; Havelock 1986) who proposed a cognitive divide between oral cultures and literate cultures. According to this view, literacy makes possible certain forms of logic and abstract thinking that are in turn associated with economic progress, civilization, and social mobility. By contrast, the ideological model takes the position that the uses and effects of literacy are influenced by the habits and beliefs (i.e., ideologies) of a given society. So, instead of effecting societal change, literacy is itself changed by each society's use of it. Rather than positing a great divide, this view is interested in how oral and written modes of commmnication overlap and interact. In recent decades, it is this ideological model that has predominated in literacy research and which has led researchers and educators to think in terms of "literacies" or "multiliteracies" rather than in terms of a singnlar universal notion of "literacy."

Literacy is not, then, a one-size-fits-all matter. What this means for education is that we need to think about reading and writing less in terms of some monolithic standard and more in terms of dynamic, culturally and contextually embedded ways of thinking, reading, and writing.

Nor is literacy in opposition to orality. In fact they are complementary and interdepen-deut modes of language use, thought, and action. So in teaching literacy we must attend to the full range of practices associated with written communication, which include thinking, talking, and interacting with others.

To elaborate on the notion literacy has to do with cultures of reading and writing, we can posit seven principles that highlight relationships between readers, writers, texts, culture, and language learning (Kern 2000).

1. Literacy involves *interpretation*. Each time we write we interpret and frame the world (events, experiences, ideas, and so on) from our unique point of view. By extension, when we read we interpret a writer's interpretation (based on our own understanding of the world).

2. Literacy involves *collaboration*. We always write for a reader, even if that reader is ourselves. Our decisions about what must be said, and what can be left unsaid, are based on our understanding of our reader. Readers in turn must contribute their motivation, knowledge, and experience in order to make a writer's text meaningful.

3. Literacy involves *conventions*. How we read and write texts is not universal, but is governed by cultural conventions that vary across contexts and genres, evolve through use, and are modified for individual purposes.

4. Literacy involves *cultural knowledge*. When we read and write we inevitably bring attitudes, beliefs, customs, ideals, and values to the task. When we are operating from outside a given cultural system we risk misunderstanding or being misunderstood by those operatiug on the inside of that particular cultural system.

5. Literacy involves *problem solving*. Because words are always embedded in linguistic and situational contexts, reading and writing iuvolve figuring out relationships between

words, between larger units of meaning, and between texts and real or imagined worlds.

6. Literacy involves *reflection* and *reflexivity*. When we read, and especially when we write, we are forced to think about language and its relations to the world and to ourselves.

7. Literacy involves *language use*. This is obvious, but the point is that literacy is not just a matter of knowing how to use a particular writing system, nor just having lexical and grammatical knowledge. Literacy requires knowledge of how language is used in a range of spoken and visual contexts to create meanings.

This seven-point linkage between literacy and communication has important implications for language teaching as it provides a bridge to span the gap that too often separates "communicative" language teaching at introductory levels (where literacy is often about textual description) and "literary" or "cultural" teaching at more advanced levels (where literacy is about analysis and critical thinking). Through engaged reading and writing (not merely practicing skills), students not only learn vocabulary and grammar, they also learn the stories, myths, cultural notions, and collective imaginings that make the language understandable. They learn to cope with uncertainties and ambiguities, rather than relying on simplistic and rigid form-meaning correspondences. They learn new, alternative ways of thinking and expressing themselves. They learn not only to problem solve, but also to problematize. And they come to understand how texts shape culture and how culture shapes texts.

KEY ISSUES

DESIGNING MEANING: CREATING DISCOURSE WORLDS

Reading is an act of designing meaning that draws on (and generates) knowledge of language, texts, and the world. It is a creative, communicative act, involving the transformation of a text into a discourse world. To see what this means, let's consider the following text:

> Mary heard the ice-cream man coming down the street. She remembered her birthday money and rushed into the house... (Rumelhart & Ortony 1977, 265)

Most readers will have some idea of Mary's age, will imagine how she is dressed, and will understand why she is rushing into the house. Most North American readers will furthermore assume the ice-cream man is in a truck, and that the truck is playing a melody as it circulates through the neighborhood. The text does not tell us any of these things – this is knowledge of the world that we bring to the text. We combine this with the information from the text to create a *discourse world* as we read, which in turn helps us to interpret subsequent portions of text.

Now suppose that the second sentence ends with "... and locked the door" (Charles Fillmore, cited in Carrell and Eisterhold 1988) Most likely your envisioned scenario will take an abrupt twist – you need to go back and reinterpret what you previously had read to reconcile this new information with the old. In the process you call on a whole other set of knowledge about the world, and your discourse world undergoes radical revision.

Writing is also a creative act of designing meaning that draws on knowledge of language, texts, and the world, but it is a converse transformation. That is, as writers we transform discourse worlds into texts. When we write an account of an event, an idea, an emotion, or an imagined scenario we are constantly faced with deciding what to include, what to exclude, what verbs, adverbs, adjectives to use, how to organize our expression, and sometimes the language itself takes us in directions that we did not plan for, yielding up new ideas and perspectives. This is why different people who write about the same thing will *always* present a unique textual representation.

GOALS OF LITERACY-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Literacy-based teaching assumes the primary importance of developing communicative ability in a new language, but it also emphasizes the development of learners' ability to analyze, interpret, and transform discourse; to think critically about how discourse is constructed and how it is used toward various social ends; and to understand how texts relate to the cultures that gave rise to them.

Consequently, a literacy-based curriculum is neither purely structural nor purely communicative in approach, but rather attempts to relate communicative and structural dimensions of language use, as shown in table 20.1.

Structural approaches	Communicative approaches	Literacy-based approaches
Emphasis on knowing things about the language	Emphasis on doing things with the language	Emphasis on doing and reflecting-on-doing in terms of knowledge about the language (i.e., using a metalanguage)
Following prescriptive norms of language usage	Using the language as it is spoken / written / signed in actual contexts of use	Considering relations between prescriptive norms and actual use (and drawing implications from differences)
Focus on language forms	Focus on language functions	Focus on form-function relationships
Emphasis on achievement (i.e., display of knowledge)	Emphasis on functional ability to communicate	Emphasis on communicating appropriately for context, informed by metacommunicative awareness

Table 20.1 Comparison of structural, communicative, and literacy-based curricula

The seven principles presented earlier provide some guidance in what and how to teach in a literacy-based approach. Language, conventions, and cultural knowledge form the core content, and they are taught through the processes of interpretation, collaboration, problem-solving, and reflection. All these can come together in various permutations, as described in the next section.

CURRICULAR COMPONENTS

In teaching literacy our task broadly conceived is to help our students negotiate the various logics at play in texts and show them how these logics affect meaning. This is all the

more challenging now that texts are no longer just printed but increasingly combined with images, color, animation, sound, and so on, presenting diverse combinatory ways of making meaning. Literacy in electronic environments introduces the need for new kinds of critical thinking, focused, for example, on the biases inherent in the structural characteristics of a given medium (e.g., PowerPoint, Web pages).

Consequently, in order to teach literacy across a wide range of media we need an approach that focuses on the *design* of meaning across social, cultural, and material contexts by looking at *relationships*. What kinds of relationships? Linguistic, cognitive, and social relationships between readers, writers, texts, and culture; relationships between form and meaning; relationships between spoken and written communication; relationships among the multiple logics operating in different media.

In developing teaching activities to focus learners' attention on these kinds of relationships, it is useful to consider four curricular components proposed by the New London Group (1996) and adapted for foreign language teaching (Kern 2000). They are: situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice.

Situated practice is immersion in language use. The focus is on communicating in the "here and now," on learners' own lives and experiences, and ou the spontaneous expression of their thoughts, opinions, and feelings. For example, e-mail exchanges with native speakers offer students the chance to really use the language they are studying and to learn about aspects of culture and ways of using the language that are not found in their textbooks.

Overt instruction involves developing a metalanguage so that the various elements that contribute to the meaning of a text can be identified, talked about, and learned explicitly. Overt instruction therefore introduces an element of conscious control as well as a vocabulary to allow students to talk about how meaning is made in texts and in interactions.

Critical framing has to do with the reflective dimension of literacy. Whereas situated practice focuses on the immediate "here and now," critical framing involves stepping back and looking at the "then and there" of communication. It draws on the metalanguage developed through overt instruction to direct learners' conscious attention to relationships among elements within the linguistic system as well as relationships between language use and social contexts and larger institutional and societal contexts. Critical framing activities might ask students to reflect on the cultural or linguistic basis for misunderstandings that might arise during interactions with native speakers, for example.

Transformed practice involves acts of what Kress (2003) calls transformation and transduction. In Kress's terms, *transformation* involves reshaping the forms and structures within a single mode (e.g., speech, writing, video, etc) whereas *transduction* involves changing the form of representation across modes. In concrete terms, this means creating new written texts on the basis of existing ones, or making a photo-essay or website designed to re-signify the meaning expressed in a written text. The focus here is on the design of meaning, but now with an explicit awareness of the immediate communicative context as well as the larger sociocultural and political contexts (developed through critical framing).

How does all this relate to the instructional status quo? Situated practice and overt instruction generally form the bulk of language teaching at the introductory and intermediate levels. Essential as they are, they are not sufficient for developing students' critical understanding of how language, culture, and technology interact in communication. Critical framing and transformed practice tend to be either reserved for the elite in advanced level courses or not provided at all. A major goal for those who design curricula, then, should be to provide elements of all four of these components at *all* levels of the curriculum.

What this means is that activities such as freewriting, letter writing, and reading journals, which emphasize situated practice, should be complimented by activities that emphasize the other components, such as using writing models and cognitive mapping (which emphasize overt instruction), using critical focus questions, summary writing, and textual comparison (which emphasize critical framing), and doing transformative activities such as translation, readers' theater, and style / genre reformations, which emphasize transformed practice.

Some excellent sources of creative ideas for teaching reading include Grabe (2009); Kramsch (1993); Swaffar, Arens, and Byrnes (1991); Swaffar and Arens (2005); and Wallace (1992, 2003). For developing interesting writing activities, see Booth Olson (2007); Hirvela (2004); Hyland (2003); Tribble (1996); and Williams (2005).

SEQUENCING OF INSTRUCTION

Traditionally, reading, talking, and writing are relatively distinct instructional phases. Students generally prepare for class by reading a text. They talk about the text in class, and then they are asked to write at home.

Most often the things that *can* be done outside of class (i.e., reading and writing) *are*, so class time can be maximized for talking. The problem with this configuration is that students get little direct help with what they often say is the most difficult part of language study – reading and writing. It is quite possible, in fact, that reading and writing are so often perceived as "difficult" because they are so often done outside of class, by oneself. On the other hand, when reading and writing are treated as collective activities and brought into the classroom, students can get support from one another as well as from the teacher.

Simply handing students a text to read is often not enough – teachers generally need to offer students explicit guidance in focusing on the kinds of textual features they hope students will ultimately recognize on their own when they read. This usually requires engaging learners in discussion – or even writing their own version of a topic or a theme – *before* they read a text.

ASSESSING LEARNERS' PERFORMANCE

In literacy-based teaching, we are interested in evaluating how learners create and interpret meanings – drawing on their language skills, of course, but also on the full breadth of their experience and knowledge. Rather than merely checking students' ability to achieve a normative understanding, we are interested in learners' ability to articulate analyses of texts and contexts, and in their ability to reflect on relationships between form and function, between language and culture. In short, we are interested in evaluating learners' ability to interpret meaning and to use language as a tool of creative and critical thought.

From this perspective, the first consideration is to broaden the goals of assessment beyond learners' language skills to include cognitive, cultural, and social goals as well. This highlights the importance of assessing learners' sense of appropriateness for a given context and purpose.

The second consideration is to assess in a way that acknowledges the multiple facets of language and literacy. If we aim for multiple perspectives on texts in the classroom, we must aim for multiple perspectives on our students' performance. This means developing a range of indices of performance that vary in genre, content, length, and linguistic difficulty. Portfolios can be useful in this regard.

A third consideration is developing ways to assess not only what learners can do in solo performance but also in collaboration with others – such as peers, teachers, or other speakers of the language – in order to observe the full range of students' abilities.

Finally, assessment goals are also teaching goals, and need to be communicated in the day-to-day feedback teachers give. When evaluating writing, for example, teachers might consider starting with global meaning issues, then focus on organizational aspects, and deal with diction and grammar last, since these will follow from the larger concerns. When evaluating reading, teachers should anticipate individual variation and focus on students' justifications of their interpretations. They should ask questions that probe students' understanding of pragmatic implications as well as questions about informational content.

Language, reading, and writing assessment are huge fields unto themselves. Teachers can find excellent guidance, both theoretical and practical, in Bachman and Palmer (1996), McNamara (2006), Norris et al. (1998), and Shohamy (2006).

CONCLUSION

If literacy has to do with cultures of reading and writing then our challenge as teachers is to guide our students' socialization into those cultures. This involves familiarizing them with the conventions of various kinds of texts – and giving them structured guidance in the *thinking* that goes into reading, writing, and speaking appropriately in particular contexts. Literacy-based teaching is therefore focused on a series of *relationships*:

- Between readers, writers, texts, and culture
- Between form and meaning
- Between reading and writing
- Between spoken and written communication

An emphasis on literacy highlights not only learners' communicative competence but also their symbolic competence (Kramsch 2006). It recognizes that language is not just a means of communication, but also a tool for thinking, a framework for understanding the world, a gateway to new knowledge, and a source of inspiration and imagination. Language is therefore treated not just as a set of skills but as an object of intellectual reflection. This enhances the perceived respectability of what we do as language teachers but most importantly it deepens students' awareness of the significance of language in their lives.

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SECTION 4

COMPONENTS OF THE CURRICULUM

Whatever the approach taken by language teachers to classroom pedagogy and practice, they will inevitably be focusing on the various language skills to be developed by their learners. The contributors to this section each take a detailed look at core language skills and knowledge and the type of instructional practices, emerging from recent theory and research, that are currently seen to be the most effective.

Thornbury's focus in chapter 21 is on recent developments, concepts, and approaches informing the teaching of speaking. He draws attention to the complexities of the skill of speaking and the major demands that challenge second language learners' speaking development. He notes that, surprisingly, until recently speaking was not specifically taught as such, but seen as a by-product of the learning of language in general. He advocates a model for teaching speaking that incorporates both cognitive skill learning theory and sociocultural theory and argues that a three-stage approach is important in this framework: awareness raising, appropriation activities, and eventual movement into full autonomy. In moving across these stages "goal-directed, jointly constructed, teacher-learner discourse" has a very important place.

Listening plays a major interactional role in successful spoken communication, and listening instruction is the focus of chapter 22 by Field. Echoing Thornbury, Field argues that the explicit teaching of listening has been largely overlooked, being seen as little more than a skill involved when presenting new grammar points. In more recent approaches to listening, prelistening, extensive and intensive listening, and postlistening have been highlighted as part of good listening teaching practice. Nevertheless, he argues, these features of a listening program still fall short of what recent research reveals to be significant. Field stresses the importance of input and the ability of listeners to process and decode

rapid input effectively. He proposes that strategies such as microlistening, which enhances low-level decoding skills, and strategy training must be part of effective instruction. His discussion concludes by considering the impact of research in English as a lingua franca, the significance of listening assessment in instruction, and how advances in technology are likely to impact on listening pedagogy in the future.

The contributions that follow by Anderson and Ferris turn to the skills needed to process, produce, and gain meaning in written communication. In chapter 23, Anderson begins by noting the foundational role of reading in language instruction in general. His argument is that reading has a central role in relation to all other language skills development. He considers what is involved in effective reading instruction and how learners can be encouraged to use reading skills to enhance language development. Viewing reading comprehension and motivation in reading as central components of effective learning, he contends that teachers will need to take a more explicitly focused approach to teaching reading if learners are to attain the achievements and progress typically demanded of them in institutional, educational contexts.

Ferris, in chapter 24, focuses in writing skills. She argues that whereas writing development was once seen as a component of integrated-skills instruction or international-student composition classes, it must now be the concern of teachers at every level of second language development. After considering the backgrounds and characteristics, both cultural and linguistic, of second language writers, she identifies the key issues that teachers of writing must consider: the needs and aspirations of learners, appropriate syllabus and task types, the relationships between reading and writing and text selection, teacher responses to student writing, grammar and vocabulary development, and writing assessment. Ferris concludes by noting that future research on writing will continue to be informed by advances in discourse and corpus linguistics, and that the impact of new technologies will be strongly influential.

The three chapters that follow shift from the focus on skills to a focus on essential skills components – vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. In chapter 25, O'Keeffe outlines the recent expansion in knowledge about vocabulary and the teaching and learning of vocabulary through second-language acquisition and corpus research. She highlights the importance for teachers of knowledge about the lexicon, that is, words and word families and how words are organized in semantic and syntactic patterns. She raises important issues for teachers to consider, such as what size of vocabulary learners need and how to accelerate vocabulary learning. In relation to classroom pedagogy, she concludes, it is vital for teachers to have good strategies to aid learner retention of vocabulary and to expand vocabulary knowledge.

A major consideration in the teaching of speaking and listening skills is the learner's ability to decode the sound systems of the second language. In chapter 26, Brinton describes how, with the focus on meaningful communication in language pedagogy, pronunciation teaching has come into its own. By briefly tracing its recent history, she shows how traditional techniques for teaching have been reinformed by current knowledge about the features and skills of articulation, and the need to attend to form and meaning simultaneonsly. Brinton comments on a number of central issues to be considered as part of good pedagogical practice: designing and conducting diagnostic and classroom assessment, selecting appropriate pronunciation standards, integrating pronunciation into the overall curriculnm and selecting appropriate materials, and fine-tuning classroom procedures to the varying populations of learners.

The final chapter in this section focuses on a component of fundamental interest to teachers and learners, the teaching of grammar. As Cullen notes in chapter 27, this area has been one of constant controversy in the language teaching profession, with views ranging from the need to teach grammar explicitly to recommendations not to teach grammar at all.

More recently, Cullen argues, research on second language acquisition has supported the view that a focus on form is beneficial in second language acquisition. Cullen examines two different approaches to grammar: process oriented and product oriented. He notes that both these approaches underlie current classroom pedagogies and materials. He concludes with a discussion about the testing and assessment of grammar.

CHAPTER 21

aking Instruction

Thornbury

INTRODUCTION

Speaking is a highly complex skill, involving the interaction of multiple psychological as well as physiological processes. Thankfully, learners of a second language (over the age of five, and barring any physical disabilities) can already speak fluently in their first language. The mental and motor processes involved in realizing one's communicative purposes by means of speech do not have to be taught from scratch: a degree of transfer can be expected. Nevertheless, there are major constraints on second language fluency and intelligibility. Of these the most obvious (and therefore the most often targeted in traditional instruction) is an insufficient knowledge of the target language systems, including its grammar, vocabulary, and phonology. But even learners with advanced knowledge of the systems often find it difficult to activate this knowledge in real time, face-to-face encounters. Lacking a measure of skilled control over the online assembly and production of utterances, including the capacity to respond spontaneously to the often unpredictable demands of interactive talk, the speaker's fluency will be at risk. Speaking, then, involves a knowledge base plus the skills with which to mobilize this knowledge. As Bygate notes, "This distinction between knowledge and skill is crucial in the teaching of speaking" (1987, 3).

BACKGROUND

Speaking a language is, in lay terms, often synonymous with knowing a language: *Can you speak Italian? We're looking for a Chinese speaker*, etc. This is perhaps unsurprising, given that language first manifests itself – both historically and biographically – as speech. Moreover, the ability to *speak* the second language, as opposed to writing or reading it, is typically a priority for most learners. Nevertheless, both the status and the instructional design of the spoken component in the language teaching curriculum has varied considerably over the years, occupying widely different positions on a continuum whose poles

might best be labeled as direct vs. indirect (Richards 1990). A direct approach is based on the view that speaking needs to be analyzed into its individual components which are then explicitly taught, practiced, and recombined, while the indirect approach assumes that speaking develops naturally, if not spontaneously, out of opportunities for use, assuming some prior linguistic knowledge (although the amount and type of linguistic knowledge has also been subject to debate). These pendulum swings can be attributed to shifts in thinking as to the nature of second language acquisition (SLA) in general: whether, for example, SLA engages, or at least parallels, the processes of first language acquisition, where speech emerges naturally out of exposure and use, and is motivated by social and communicative needs, or whether (adult) SLA is (partly, at least) an incremental and conscious cognitive process by which learned knowledge becomes automatized through cycles of practice and feedback (DeKeyser 2007).

In this chapter, I take the view that, because speech implicates both a knowledge base and a skills base, speaking instruction might usefully draw on both direct and indirect pedagogical approaches, where focused instruction is best combined with plentiful opportunities for naturalistic use.

KEY ISSUES

The teaching of speaking, it follows, needs to target the following learning outcomes:

- Acquiring a working knowledge of (those features of) the language systems that underlie a proficient speaker's communicative competence
- Achieving the capacity to enlist this knowledge, in real time, in the production of fluent, intelligible, interactive, and contextually appropriate speech

Given that neither of these goals will be achieved rapidly or simultaneously, a further strategic goal might be added:

- Learning to deploy a range of coping strategies so as to achieve an acceptable degree of communicative competence with an only partially developed knowledge base and / or performance capacity

Before discussing how these goals might be realized pedagogically, we take a closer look at the systems, skills, and strategies implicated in speaking instruction.

LANGUAGE SYSTEMS

At the most basic level, speech is sounds, and hence the production and comprehension of speech presupposes a mutually intelligible phonological system on the part of speaker and listener. The extent to which this system needs to replicate that of native speakers of the target language is hotly debated, especially with respect to languages that have achieved lingua franca status. Jenkins (2000), for example, argues that, for the purposes of learning English as an International Language (EIL), native-speaker varieties, such as the U.K.'s Received Pronunciation (RP), are no longer valid models for pronunciation. Instead, she suggests focusing on only those features of pronunciation that have been shown to be crucial for mutual intelligibility between nonnative speakers. A number of these features (such as the correct placement of stress in an utterance) are consistent with the long-held view that suprasegmental features of phonology (such as stress, intonation, and rhythm) have a greater impact on intelligibility than does the quality of individual sounds. Hence, there is perhaps

less emphasis nowadays on accent reduction as a goal in pronunciation teaching, and a greater tolerance for second-language speakers transferring those phonological features of their first language that do not compromise intelligibility in their second.

Speakers also need to be able to encode their communicative intentions using the resources of the target language grammar and lexicon. Until relatively recently the default model for both was derived from descriptions of (or intuitions about) written language. Corpus linguistics has demonstrated that there exist significant differences between written and spoken grammar, in large part due to their widely different modes of production (Carter and McCarthy 1995). Whereas, for example, written language is organized at the level of the sentence (which in turn forms the basic unit of pedagogical grammars) "such a unit does not realistically exist in conversational language" (Biber et al. 1999, 1039). Instead, and due to the pressure of online production, unscripted spoken language tends to consist of self-standing, clauselike chunks, assembled according to an incremental "add-on" strategy (ibid.), such that much of the syntactic complexity of written grammar, such as subordination, is rare or nonexistent. Miller and Weinert summarize the nature of spoken syntax as being "in general fragmented and unintegrated; phrases are less complex than phrases of written language; the clausal constructions are less complex" (1998, 22). In addition, there are a number of features of spoken language that are the audible effects of the demands of real-time production. These include the use of hesitations (*um*, *uh*), repeats, false starts, incomplete utterances, and syntactic blends.

Because of these, and other differences between spoken and written grammar, the case has been made (e.g., by Rühlemann 2008) for abandoning Standard English (based as it is on written language conventions) as a model for speaking instruction and replacing it with "conversational grammar," derived from the analysis of corpora of authentic spoken language. A counterargument – that authentic sources, especially of native-speaker usage, embody more idiomaticity and dysfluency than learners either need or can easily process – has been advanced by some scholars (e.g., Cook 1998).

At the level of lexis, estimates vary as to how large a lexicon learners need in order to realize their communicative needs. Nation, while recommending a basic speaking vocabulary of 2000 items, points out that "to speak English it is not necessary to have a large vocabulary. In developing learners' spoken English vocabulary it is best to give learners practice in being able to say a lot using a small number of words" (1990, 93). More important than the number of words, arguably, is their representativeness. McCarthy (1999), for example, suggests that a core vocabulary for speaking should include – along with basic, high-frequency nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs – such items as common discourse markers, deictic expressions, and language expressing attitude and appraisal.

A serviceable core vocabulary will also include fixed and semifixed, multiword phrases, also known as *formulaic language* (Wray 2002). Formulaic language is pervasive: one commonly cited figure is that it comprises nearly 60 percent of spoken English discourse (Erman and Warren 2000). Corpus analysis is now providing information as to the most frequent multiword items in spoken language (e.g., Liu 2003), data that is likely to inform syllabus design in the future. Because many formulaic expressions have identifiable pragmatic functions and realize particular speech acts – such as greeting, inviting, requesting, and apologizing – they constitute a core component of the speaker's pragmatic competence and hence are targeted early and often in most programs of speaking instruction.

Speakers also need to be able mobilize their grammatical and lexical knowledge in the service of producing connected discourse in different genres, ranging from informal chat to more formal presentations, according to their specific needs. At the very least, this will require knowledge of a range of discourse markers and connecting devices. In some cases it may involve learning how specific speech events – such as business meetings or academic tutorials – are typically organized, especially where these may be differently structured in the learner's L1. Speakers may also need knowledge of the sociolinguistic and pragmalinguistic conventions of the target language culture, such as the way politeness and social distance are encoded, and how certain interpersonal speech events – such as greeting and complementing – are locally managed. However, for learners of EIL or other lingua franca languages, such "rules" may be irrelevant. More important might be to develop *intercultural competence* – that is, the ability to manage cross-cultural encounters irrespective of the culture of the language being used and, in McKay's words, "to mutually seek ways to accommodate to diversity" (McKay 2002, 128).

SKILLS

Proficient speakers are fluent: they produce something like 150 words per minute, or one word every 400 milliseconds (Levelt 1989). However, speech rate alone does not account for the perception of fluency. Chambers (1997), summarizing current research, highlights factors such as the number of syllables between pauses, and the placing of pauses in utterances, as being significant indicators of L2 fluency. These effects are achieved, according to cognitive skill learning theory (see Johnson 1996), because the processes of planning and articulation have become proceduralized through practice. One way that planning and processing time can be reduced is by recourse to the stored lexicon of formulaic language. Schmidt and Frota conclude that the psychological basis for fluency is the alternation "between two modes of production, one creative and hesitant, the other rehearsed, formulaic to varying degrees, and fluent" (1986, 310).

Most speaking is interactive, in the sense that it involves more than one participant. Speech events such as service encounters, interviews, or informal chat are jointly constructed and contingent: speakers respond to, build upon, and refer to, the previous utterances of other speakers. So, as well as the skills involved in real-time production, speakers need skills to manage the interactive nature of talk. Bygate (1987) distinguishes between *negotiation skills*, such as monitoring understanding and repairing communication breakdown, and *management skills*, principally those involved in turn taking. While interactive skills are universal, their performance may be differently realized in different cultures. Thus, the way that interruptions and silences, for example, are typically managed in the target language culture may need to be a focus of speaking instruction.

STRATEGIES

Some learners achieve impressive levels of fluency with only minimal means, simply through the use of communications strategies. Communication strategies are techniques that are systematically applied in order "to compensate for some deficiency in the linguistic system, and [to] focus on exploring alternate ways of using what one does know for the transmission of a message" (Tarone 1981, 287). Typically, these involve either avoiding an anticipated problem by, for example, abandoning the message altogether, or achieving communication through some kind of compensatory strategy. A compensatory strategy might be the use of paraphrase or gesture to convey a meaning for which the exact word is not known. Theoretically at least, as the learner's interlanguage develops, the need to rely on these strategies decreases. On the other hand, an overreliance on communication strategies may compromise the learner's overall language development (Skehan 1998). Regarding the teachability of communication strategies, Dörnyei (1995) argues the case for explicit instruction, but evidence of the effectiveness of such teaching is inconclusive.

TEACHING SPEAKING

Having outlined the knowledge, skills, and strategic components implicated in second language speaking, we now turn to the question of how these components might be effectively integrated into a program of instruction.

Until relatively recently, speaking was seldom taught as such, but instead was considered to be a by-product of the knowledge of the *systems* of the language. Speaking meant simply oral production – or, better, oral *re*production – of language to which the learner had been previously exposed, either through explicit instruction (as in the grammar-translation approach), or through modeling and drilling (as in audiolingualism). The assumption was that, so long as the learner had amassed a sufficient store of grammar and lexis, and so long as some attention had been paid to the accurate phonological articulation of this stored knowledge, speaking would take care of itself. Hence, many programs of second language instruction discouraged premature "free" production. However, as Byrne warned, such an approach sets students "on a seemingly never ending path toward an ever receding horizon" (1976, 4).

Byrne himself promoted a staged approach, accepting the need for presentation and controlled practice (as in the audiolingual method) but adding a freer production stage to promote the development of fluency. This PPP model, as it became known, found subsequent support in cognitive skill learning theory (referred to above), according to which the learning of a complex skill such as speaking is seen as a movement from controlled to automatic processing. Controlled activities would include drills and the performance of scripted dialogues. Typical production activities might be discussions, role plays, and other forms of drama-based activity.

The advent of the communicative approach heralded a radical reappraisal of speaking instruction. By shifting the emphasis from accuracy to *fluency*, and by (re)defining the latter as "natural language use, whether or not it results in native-speaker-like comprehension or production" (Brumfit 1984, 56), the architects of the communicative approach asserted the importance of freer speaking activities, preferably those that involve (or at least simulate) natural language use. Fluency-first approaches (as their name implies) went so far as to invert the traditional presentation-to-practice model, on the grounds that fluency activities are not just a means of practicing the skill of speaking, but are a platform for language acquisition itself. Prominent among these approaches has been task-based learning, or TBL (see for example Willis 1996; Ellis 2003). Initially, TBL drew largely on interactionist views of second language acquisition (Long 1985), a core tenet of which is that *negotiation for meaning*, including the repair of communication breakdown, plays a formative role in language acquisition. Accordingly, information-gap activities of the type where learners exchange information in order to complete a task rose to prominence in the 1980s, becoming an iconic activity type of the communicative approach. An extreme view argued for the sufficiency of such tasks, and against the need for explicit instruction altogether (Allwright 1979; Prabhu 1987). Proponents of this *strong* form of communicative language teaching, whereby "you learn to speak by speaking" adopted an approach where (as Burns describes it) "the essential focus is on tasks mediated through language, negotiation, and the sharing of information" (Burns 1998, 103).

Subsequently, task-based instruction has found validation in sociocultural learning theory (see Lantolf 2000), which argues that, to achieve autonomy in a skill such as speaking, the learner first needs to experience the mediation of a "better other," whether parent, peer, or teacher. This typically takes the form of *assisted performance*, whereby the "better other" interacts with the learner to provide a supportive discourse framework (or *scaffolding*) within which the learner can extend his or her present competence, in advance of appropriating the necessary skills and functioning autonomously. This theory underpins the case for what is called *instructional conversation* (van Lier 1996), that is, goal-directed, jointly constructed teacher-learner discourse that replicates the reciprocity and contingency of casual conversation and contrasts with the teacher-led elicitation exchanges typical of traditional classrooms, which (it has been claimed) act to inhibit learner participation. If nothing else, instructional conversation provides learners with a more naturalistic model of, and context for, spoken interaction.

CURRENT PRACTICE

Speaking instruction, as represented in current ELT materials and methodology texts (such as Harmer 2007), reflects a theoretically eclectic approach, combining elements, such as drills, that predate communicative methodology, along with information-gap tasks and informal discussions, conducted in pairs or small groups. In published general language courses, speaking activities are normally interspersed throughout each lesson, although they are often included less for their own sake than as the lead-in or follow-up to other activities, such as reading, or as practice of pretaught items of grammar. Where there is a separate speaking thread that targets discrete features of spoken interaction, the choice of feature tends to opt for one of a variety of approaches, of which five are listed here in the approximate chronological order of their influence on materials design:

1. *The situational approach*, where typical contexts for specific speech events, such as ordering a meal or buying a train ticket, determine the choice of language items presented and practiced

2. *The speech act approach*, where specific speech acts (often labeled as language functions) such as *greeting, apologizing, requesting* and *complementing*, form the main focus

3. *The skills and strategies approach*, where the speaking skill is broken down into a number of discrete subskills and strategies, such as *opening and closing conversations, turn taking, repairing, paraphrasing, interrupting*

4. *The genre approach*, which focuses on the social purposes of speaking and the way that its associated genres, such as *narrating, obtaining service, giving a presentation, making small talk*, are structured and configured for different registers

5. *The corpus-informed approach*, which draws on corpora of spoken language to identify its particular syntactic and lexical features, such as ellipsis, topicalization, vague and formulaic language

Meanwhile, pronunciation continues to occupy a strand in the syllabus of most language courses, although it is more often associated with the practice of grammar than treated as a component of fluency as such. And the default model of pronunciation continues to be, generally speaking, a native speaker one.

In terms of methodology, current practice still follows closely on Byrne's (1976) instructional model, in acknowledging a role for explicit instruction, controlled practice (although with less emphasis on drilling), and freer production. Thornbury (2005) draws on both cognitive-skill learning theory and sociocultural theory in order to elaborate on this basic model, and to propose a three-tier staging of speaking instruction, beginning with an *awareness-raising* stage, where learners are either presented or discover for themselves features of spoken language. A typical awareness-raising task might be to identify and classify different discourse markers in a transcript of spoken dialogue. This is followed by *appropriation* activities – such as reading aloud, rehearsing and performing dialogues, and engaging in communicative tasks of the information-gap type – where learners gain control of targeted features, before achieving full *autonomy* as independent speakers in a range of

different spoken genres, by such means as discussion, debate, formal presentations, and drama-based activities.

ASSESSING SPEAKING

Speaking is probably the most difficult skill to assess – even with the aid of recording technology – given its real-time and typically interactive nature. Moreover, testers may have widely divergent views on what constitutes proficiency in speaking (for example, Does accuracy count for more than fluency?) while to apply the standards of written grammar, or of native-speaker pronunciation, to nonnative speaker speech (as has often been the case), hardly seems valid, for reasons already mentioned. Hughes (2002, 75) identifies key concerns that need to be addressed in designing tests to assess speaking:

- How far the test is designed to assess ability to communicate versus linguistic knowledge
- How far the test conditions affect the capacity for natural interaction to occur
- How far personal or psychological factors affect oral performance under test conditions

To help ensure construct validity, the use of rating criteria and performance descriptors, in the form of check-lists or speaking scales, is common practice. The Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe 2001), for example, distinguishes five levels, using five different criteria: range, accuracy, fluency, interaction, and coherence. Here, for example, is the descriptor for fluency at B2 level:

> Can produce stretches of language with fairly even tempo: although he/she can be hesitant as he/she searches for patterns and expressions. There are a few noticeably long pauses. (p. 28)

In order that speaking be tested in conditions that reflect as much as possible real-life language use, the design of test tasks is key. Issues of practicability and cost seriously constrain the design of tasks: testing a candidate's ability to interact in a variety of situations or registers may simply not be feasible. On the other hand, reading aloud or recording a prepared monologue may be valid for testing pronunciation but not for spoken interaction. A popular compromise is the interview format, where the examiner interviews candidates either individually or in pairs. Collaborative tasks, where learners interact in pairs or small groups, are also favored by a number of examination bodies and have the advantage that they reflect communicative methodology and hence are likely to have a positive effect on classroom practice (Luoma 2004).

CONCLUSION

Learning a second or additional language, and learning how to speak it, are popularly conflated, such that the question *Do you speak Spanish?*, for example, is synonymous with *Do you know Spanish?* Yet knowing a language (in the sense of knowing its grammar and vocabulary) and being able to speak it fluently in real-time interaction are two very different things. While this might seem obvious (and generations of disappointed language learners will attest to the fact), the view that knowledge transfers automatically into behavior is still very persistent, and continues to influence a great deal of language teaching and testing. In order to remedy this state of affairs, a clear distinction needs to be made between the knowledge base that underpins speaking and the skills that enable it. Speaking instruction needs to target both.

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CHAPTER 22

Listening Instruction

John Field

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by outlining the methodology most widely adopted for the teaching of second language listening. The approach is evaluated and a recent shift in priorities is described. Issues directly relating to methodology (principally ways of strengthening the current approach) are then explored. The next section provides a selective overview of other issues currently to the fore in L2 listening studies that have relevance to the practitioner. A conclusion suggests some future trends.

BACKGROUND

CURRENT PRACTICE

The teaching of second language listening has a relatively recent history. In an earlier era of ELT, the skill was treated as little more than a means of presenting a new grammar point. Learners listened to short and sometimes very contrived dialogues, which provided a context for the structure that was being introduced and practiced. Such skill-focused activities as there were took the form of low-level word and phoneme recognition using dictation or ear training. It was not until the late 1960s that listening was fully recognized as a skill to be practiced in its own right, a development supported by the increasing availability of tape and later cassette recordings. In this respect, L2 listening lagged behind L2 reading, which may explain why so many aspects of present-day practice seem to draw upon precedents from the teaching of that markedly different skill.

The most obvious debt lies in the assumption that the ability to respond accurately to questions or to the demands of a task is a reliable indication of listening competence and

the appropriate goal for a lesson. Typically, a listening lesson conducted by an experienced teacher follows the following format:

- **Prelistening.** A brief (5 to 10 minute) introductory phase. Goals: to set the scene; to motivate the learners to listen; to turn learners' thinking toward the topic of the recording to be heard. It may sometimes also be necessary to preteach up to four or five critical words of vocabulary without which the recording cannot be understood.
- **Extensive listening.** First playing of the recording, followed by general questions. (*How many speakers? What are they talking about?*) Goals: to enable learners to **normalize** (adjust) to the voices of the speakers and to orient themselves in terms of where in the recording different types of information are mentioned.
- **Preset questions or task.** Introduced ahead of the main listening phase to ensure that learners will listen in a focused way and to check that the questions / task have been fully understood.
- **Intensive listening.** A second playing of the recording, this time to enable learners to obtain answers. The accuracy of the responses is then checked, with the teacher replaying relevant passages where comprehension levels appear to be low.
- **Language of the recording.** One follow-up activity is for teachers to replay sentences containing unknown lexical items, asking learners to infer their meaning from context. A second is to replay extracts in order to draw attention to the functional language they contain (ways of threatening, offering, refusing, inviting etc.).
- **Final play.** Done with learners following a tapescript, it enables learners to deconstruct any sections of the recording that they have found difficult to match to words. It also provides a long-term reminder of what was heard in the lesson.

THE APPROACH EVALUATED

This conventional approach to practicing second language listening brings a number of benefits to language learners. It exposes them to a wide range of voices; it allows them to hear L2 speakers interacting; and it gives them practice in a particular type of listening, which one might call "auditory scanning."

However, it has been criticized on a number of counts. The most frequent comment (Sheerin 1987) is that the approach tests listening without ever teaching it. This is not entirely fair: listening, like reading, is an operation that takes place in the mind of the language user. Teachers can only check if it is being carried out successfully by using indirect methods like those employed by testers. Nevertheless, it is indisputable that the comprehension approach (CA) focuses attention on the **product** of listening in the form of answers to questions rather than on the **processes** that led to those answers. It provides extensive exposure without necessarily honing the listening skills of the learners. It is progressive only in the sense that it gradually ratchets up the linguistic content of the recordings used and (to a lesser degree) the task demands made. The effect upon weak listeners is quite often a loss of motivation: with their early perceptual difficulties untackled, they find themselves less and less able to cope.

In addition, the notion of a "correct" comprehension answer is open to challenge. Brown (1995, chap. 1) argues that the outcome of listening is not a set of facts that can be judged for accuracy but an interpretation of what the speaker said, resulting from a combination of (a) the listener's understanding of the speaker's intentions and (b) the

listener's own goals in listening. Brown argues for a criterion of **adequate interpretation** rather than correct solution when judging listener responses.

CHANGING PERSPECTIVES: THE IMPORTANCE OF INPUT

One effect of the widespread use of the CA was to foster the view that the message is all-important and that the listener's handling of the speech signal is less critical.[1] This was an understandable reaction to the earliest listening exercises mentioned earlier, with their low-level focus on word and phoneme identification. From the 1980s, much research and writing on second language listening was concerned with the part played by external information in the form of schematic knowledge and familiarity with topic, text type, and situation (e.g., Long 1989, 1990). There were also explorations of how to train learners in context-driven listening strategies (Mendelsohn 1994). This work was valuable in raising awareness of the complexity of the listening process; but an unfortunate consequence was a received view among many ELT practitioners and teacher trainers that "context" (loosely defined) could resolve many of the listener's problems in decoding what is in the signal; and that low-level perceptual processes therefore merited only limited attention. The notion was based on shaky logic. The term *context*, in this connection, generally referred not to world knowledge but to information from earlier in the recording. Self-evidently, a L2 listener who has difficulty in matching sounds to words is likely to have a very imperfect representation of this "text-so-far" upon which to draw.

There was a noticeable shift in the agenda in the later 1990s, with methodologists and researchers according increasing attention to the perceptual factors that contribute to understanding (Lynch 2006). An impetus was given by the work of Cauldwell (2003), who demonstrated the extent to which word forms vary within intonation groups and presented excised chunks of natural speech to the L2 listener as part of an ear-training program.

Clearly, in most circumstances, the ultimate goal of listening to a piece of speech is to extract meaning from it. But, in an instructional context, we cannot afford to ignore the means by which this goal is achieved and the points at which the process can break down. It is now generally recognized that a small failure of word-level decoding can have considerable follow-on implications for the sentence-level message that is derived and for the wider representation of what the speaker intends. With this in mind, it is clearly important for listening instruction to feature practice in low-level decoding as well as in extracting meaning.

A further argument, based upon parallels with reading, is that skilled listening depends heavily upon the ability to decode input confidently and automatically. Automatic mapping from sound to words reduces demands upon the attention of an L2 listener and thus allows him / her greater opportunity for focusing on higher level meaning-building operations such as interpreting the speaker's intentions, constructing a line of argument, and deciding which information is relevant and which is not (Field 2008, chap 8). On this analysis, good decoding skills form an important long-term objective for an instructor and offer the key to L2 listening proficiency.

KEY ISSUES

METHODOLOGY

There are various ways of responding to the concerns about the CA discussed above and the renewed interest in perceptual issues. One is to adapt the way the approach is handled.

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[1] Even today, it remains quite common to see listening practice referred to under the blanket term of "listening comprehension" while similar work in reading is termed "reading skills practice."

Another is to supplement it with types of training that foster more skilled listening behavior or that equip learners with techniques to compensate for their inadequate understanding of L2 input.

ADAPTING THE STANDARD APPROACH

The first solution retains the general approach but modifies the way it is used. By asking learners to justify the answers they give (correct as well as incorrect ones), a teacher can gain insights into how they are listening and diagnose (Brown 1986) where their problems lie. Breakdowns of understanding that are perceptual in origin can be followed up with small-scale remedial exercises that attune the ears of learners to problematic phonological features specific to the target language (in English, these might include weak forms, assimilation, elision, resyllabification, etc.; see Field 2003). A second modification is for teachers to be less interventionist: encouraging learners to discuss possible answers, then to listen again to the recording in order to establish for themselves which one seems most likely. This moves the listening lesson away from its present teacher-centered format.

AUGMENTING THE STANDARD APPROACH

A more radical solution is to use **microlistening** practice as part of a parallel program that prepares learners for comprehension work. An early proposal (Field 1998) was that teachers might base course content on a **subskills** approach similar to that adopted in relation to reading skills, where L2 learners routinely practice skimming, scanning, inferring words from context, etc. On similar lines, listeners can be given focused practice in single aspects of listening. As well as difficult phonological features of the L2, target areas might include **lexical segmentation** (the identification of word boundaries) and the recognition of recurrent **chunks**, intonation patterns, **turn-taking** signals, **linkers** and patterns of logical argument. A comprehensive taxonomy of such subskills was proposed in Richards (1983); Rost (1990, chap. 6) provides another.

However, as reading specialists have come to recognize, the notion of the subskill as originally formulated by Munby (1978) is a rather fuzzy one and includes quite an eclectic mixture of techniques and processes. In addition, the classification of subskills has had to draw mainly on the intuition of experts. A recent suggestion (Field 2008) has therefore been that teachers should instead use models of L1 listening devised by psycholinguists in order to identify the aspects of the skill that merit practice. These models replicate quite closely the better intuitive taxonomies; but they have the virtue of being based on empirical research evidence. The advantage of such a **process approach** is that it provides teachers with a set of well-defined targets for listening instruction, which at present they lack.

An approach of this kind accords with a recent view of second language use (Johnson 2008) as a form of **expertise**. Models of how expertise is acquired (e.g., Anderson 1983) assume that a novice starts off with a set of small-scale processes carried out with deliberate intention, but that, with practice, the processes become (a) combined into more complex operations and (b) increasingly automatic. The practice in question can be both small scale in terms of mastering the basic routines and larger scale in terms of applying them to real-life tasks.

STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

Training listeners by means of focused exercises is developmental and has to be spread over time. There thus remains a danger that early-stage learners will find themselves unable to follow simple samples of everyday speech in spite of the instruction they receive. In today's globalized world, they are increasingly likely to encounter such samples through TV, films, and the Internet, if not through contact with L1 speakers. A strong case can therefore be made for exposing learners to unscripted **authentic** recordings from quite early on. Contrary to popular belief, it is relatively easy to grade authentic material in terms of its language content. Inevitably, it will contain conversational features such as **fillers, false starts**, and overlapping turns, that are unfamiliar to those used only to scripted material; but they can form the subject of special attention.

Perhaps the most important benefit of including authentic materials in listening practice is that it accustoms learners to real-life situations where they cannot count on familiarity with every single item of vocabulary, idiom, or syntax that they encounter. It therefore needs to go hand-in-hand with training in compensatory **listening strategies** (Vandergrift 1997; Macaro, Graham, and Vanderplank 2007) which enable learners to extract meaning from pieces of speech that have only been partially understood.

It has been difficult to obtain clear-cut evidence that teaching individual strategies necessarily leads to greater listening proficiency. This is partly because efficient L2 listening is dependent not on how many strategies one uses or how often they are used, but on how *appropriate* they are in dealing with an actual or anticipated breakdown of understanding. It is also because it is hard to show a clear cause-effect relationship between strategy training and improved listening performance. That said, there is strong evidence from learner feedback (Goh and Taib 2006; Graham and Macaro, 2008) that drawing attention to the value of strategies increases **self-efficacy**. Equipped with basic techniques, learners become more confident about their ability to crack the code of apparently intractable pieces of spoken language.

There is some lack of agreement as to the precise form that strategy instruction should take. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) distinguish between "direct" approaches, which might involve a program of practicing individual strategies, and "indirect" ones, where strategies are discussed in relation to learners' experience of listening to a recording. A problem with the first approach is that it increases strategy use but does not site it in a context of (a) matching the strategy to a problem of communication as and when it arises or (b) using the strategy in conjunction with other related strategies. Field (2000) urges a task-based approach, where learners are encouraged to operate strategically in the course of a normal comprehension lesson; Vandergrift (2004) makes a similar recommendation.

A further option is to raise learners' awareness of their own strategy use – particularly in relation to metacognitive strategies (Vandergrift 1997). A consistent finding is that more successful listeners report using such strategies, associated with the mental set they adopt toward a listening task. For the teacher, this provides indications (see Goh 1997, 2008) as to how learners can prepare themselves for conventional comprehension activities in class or, importantly, in a test. But metacognitive training has potential benefits beyond the classroom. Enabling learners to handle listening exercises strategically boosts their confidence when they come to real-life listening encounters, even if the preplanning techniques they have acquired have limited applicability in circumstances that call for immediate and impromptu responses to problems of understanding.

To summarize, two broad proposals have been made in recent years to compensate for the limitations of the comprehension approach. The first entails practicing individual processes that have been shown by speech scientists to constitute part of L1 listening behavior. The second entails the early introduction of authentic materials and with it a program that raises awareness of compensatory strategies and demonstrates how to use them. It is important to stress that these provisions supplement rather than replace the standard comprehension task. Learners continue to need more extended listening practice, since it provides them with the opportunity to integrate and apply the various processes and strategies to which they have been introduced. They also need it, of course, because the three- to five-minute recording with comprehension exercises remains a mainstay of international tests of L2 listening.

If the teaching of L2 listening is to be reconfigured in the way proposed, there are implications for teacher training and development. There is a general lack of information in teacher manuals about the listening skill. Future training programs will need to extend their coverage of L2 listening on three fronts, if a methodology that addresses listeners' problems is to be implemented:

- Awareness of specific phonetic characteristics of English that cause difficulties
- Knowledge of the processes which characterize expert listening and of how they differ from those of novice L2 listeners
- Knowledge of the types of strategy that can be employed when the learner's L2 knowledge or listening proficiency proves inadequate

OTHER KEY ISSUES

A number of other areas of current debate do not directly concern methodology but have implications for how instructors handle the listening skill in the classroom.

TESTING LISTENING

Two unresolved and maybe unresolvable issues have long dominated discussion of the testing of listening. One concerns method. There is a tension between, on the one hand, the wish to employ methods that are close to real-life listening and impose minimal additional cognitive demands on the candidate; and on the other, the pressure on international exam boards to adopt methods that are familiar to candidates and allow for rapid and reliable marking. Listening provides an especially difficult case because many of the conventional methods engage other skills (reading, writing, speaking), which potentially confound the results of the test. An example is the type of multiple-choice item where candidates are confronted with demands as readers that are more complex than those they face as listeners. The question of method has resurfaced recently, following the growing concern of testers with **cognitive validity** (Weir 2005) – the extent to which the cognitive processes employed by candidates under test conditions replicate the processes that they would employ in real-life contexts.

A second long-term concern is how to calibrate difficulty (Brindley and Slayter 2002). Again, listening is a special case, because it entails a complex interaction between many variables across four different components: task (complexity, type of listening), item (complexity, holistic vs. local), text (language, informational density and topic) and recording (number of speakers, speech rate, accent, authenticity, etc.). There are indeed profiles of different levels of proficiency in the Common European Framework and the ALTE "Can do" statements, but these descriptors refer to listener behavior and are of limited use in determining the relative difficulty of an item. In practice, international testing bodies have to rely upon a combination of the expertise of their test setters and extensive piloting.

An issue that has come to the fore recently (Taylor 2006) concerns the relevance of featuring a wide range of accents in a test of English listening. Some of the commentary in this area shows a tendency to strike attitudes rather than an understanding of the nature of the skill. Current **exemplar models** of how language (including phonology) is acquired suggest that achieving familiarity with a new variety is a gradual process, during which the listener has to lay down multiple traces of voices using the relevant phoneme values. To include localized L1 or L2 varieties in an international listening test would seem to discriminate unfairly against those who are not privileged enough to benefit from this kind of exposure by studying English in an English-speaking country or by attending international events.

A final issue currently receiving attention is the convention of allowing candidates to hear a recording twice. One view is that, in real life, a listener has only one opportunity to make sense of what is heard; the counter-argument is that a second play compensates for the lack of contextual information if the input is audio only. For a discussion, see Geranpayeh and Taylor (2008).

MULTIMODALITY

The widespread availability of DVD and of visual internet material has raised the possibility of moving the teaching of L2 listening on from its dependence on audio input. The benefit of video is that it gives access to the facial expressions and gestures of speakers (integral parts of speech production) as well as to information about general context. An opposite position is that video imposes a much greater informational load for the listener to deal with (cf. Coniam 2001) and that audio input leads to more focused listening.

An important topic of discussion concerns the use of subtitles on DVDs, which provide potential support for self-study listening or for classroom-presented clips. It would seem preferable for listeners to listen once without the captions, so long as understanding is not too compromised. Written language is more reliable than spoken because more consistent in form; it is therefore likely to divert attention from the auditory signal. But, on a second viewing, consideration has to be given to the relative merits of L1 and L2 subtitles. There is growing evidence that L2 subtitles are more effective in shaping listening skills than L1 (Baltova 1999) – one reason no doubt being that the visual information repeats the auditory input and thus assists lexical segmentation. Markham, Peter, and McCarthy (2001) report that a group provided with L1 captions outperformed one with L2 captions, which in turn outperformed one with no captions.

LISTENING IN EIL CONTEXTS

Early discussion of intelligibility in relation to users of English as an International Language (EIL) emphasized phoneme production and paid curiously little attention to the role of the listener. As studies in this area developed rigor (particularly thanks to the work of Derwing and Munro, e.g., 1997), listener-oriented methods were devised for investigating two of the constructs distinguished by Smith and Nelson (1985): intelligibility (the extent to which the speech signal can be matched to words) and comprehensibility (the ability to transmit a message). For a review see Pickering (2006).

The judges asked to rate L2 speakers were usually native listeners. However, recent research has recognized that much communication in EIL takes place between two or more second-language speakers. The question arises of whether similarities and differences between the phonological systems of speaker and listener are a factor in achieving intelligibility. Bent and Bradlow (2003) compared intelligibility assessments made by listeners from China, Korea, and elsewhere when exposed to the spoken English of L1 speakers from America and L2 speakers from China and Korea. Lower proficiency L2 speakers were judged unfavorably, but more proficient speakers who shared a first language with the listener were deemed to be as intelligible as the native speaker. Strikingly, the judges also rated proficient L2 speakers who did not share their L1 background as equally or more intelligible than the American.

This suggested that, in L2-L2 interaction, listeners establish points of reference for their phonological judgments that are different from those they use when hearing native speakers. However, other researchers in this area have not repeated the finding. Using comprehension tasks, Major et al. (2002) reported no clear benefits when L2 speakers / listeners shared the same first language, while Major et al. (2005) found that regional varieties of English did not impair comprehension but international and ethnic varieties did. This lack of clear results no doubt reflects the complexity of the speaker-listener relationship. It is always difficult to establish the listener's previous exposure to a particular variety of English and listeners vary in the acuity of their hearing and in how sensitive they are to fine phonological distinctions.

We should also be cautious of assuming, as some commentators do, that the impact upon intelligibility in real-life L2-L2 listening events is necessarily at the level of the phoneme. Accounts of the L1 listening process have moved away from simple bottom-up ideas based on building smaller units into larger (phonemes into syllables, syllables into words, etc). Instead, they assume (Field 2008, 132–133) that a listener processes speech at several levels simultaneously, weighing the cues from all of them (phoneme, syllable, word, chunk, co-text) in order to match sounds to words. On this analysis, an L2 listener would not be fazed by apparent phoneme problems on hearing an approximate sequence like *veshtibles* because a close fit is available at word level in the familiar item vegetables.

CONCLUSION

FUTURE TRENDS

Technological developments have a considerable impact on the teaching of listening. In future, one can expect more variety in the recorded material used in the classroom, given the large range of video and audio recordings now available via the Internet. In addition, the ease with which digitally encoded sound files can be transferred to computer means that teachers now have the option of producing customized listening materials using clips, speech samples, or longer passages. A movement from audio to video materials seems inevitable, given the affordability of DVDs and enormous improvements in sound quality. This will extend to testing: even tests of academic listening will feel the need to reflect the multimodal nature of modern lectures.

The wide availability of computer technology and of personalized media players will probably lead to a shift away from the whole-class format for the listening lesson toward greater reliance upon self-study. The advantage of autonomous practice is that (unlike the standard comprehension lesson) it enables learners to focus for as long as they wish on pieces of text that they as individuals find problematic. Listening activities might take place in dedicated listening centers or at home, employing material downloaded from the internet on instructions from the teacher. It might be lengthy in duration and mainly for pleasure, on the lines of the extensive programs already available for L2 reading. It might consist of working on a single recording set for homework. Or it might entail transcribing small samples of speech containing features known to cause difficulty to L2 listeners. Already, computer programs are being designed that enable autonomous learners to make and confirm word-by-word matches and to build them into larger utterances.

Finally, it is time that the teaching of listening moved away from its excessive reliance on task types where the listener is no more than an over-hearer. Current pedagogy fails to prepare learners adequately for the type of interactive listening that occurs in the majority of real-life L2 encounters. Teachers, materials writers, and computer developers need to devise new practice formats that simulate conversational contexts: developing the ability of the listener to decode what is said, relate it to the speaker's intentions and respond appropriately, all of this under pressures of time.

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CHAPTER 23

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INTRODUCTION

Our understanding of how to effectively engage in second language (L2) reading instruction has improved over the years. Recent publications provide valuable input from research findings on ways that reading instruction can be improved (Anderson 2008; Bernhardt 2011; Birch 2007; Grabe 2009; Han and Anderson 2009; Hedgcock and Ferris 2009; Hudson 2007; Koda 2005). From these publications we learn, among other things, of the foundations and complexities of reading, the significant role of vocabulary for success in reading, the role of strategies, and of the importance of appropriate assessments to measure growth and development in readers. We also learn of the central role that reading plays in academic success.

Reading, perhaps more than any other language skill, provides the foundation for success in language learning and academic learning. Janzen (2007) observes that reading is "critical" to the academic achievement of second language learners (p. 707). Reading involves the integration of various bottom-up and top-down skills in order to reach the goal of comprehension. Good readers can combine information from a text and their own background knowledge to build meaning, they read fluently and strategically in order to accomplish their reading purpose.

Good readers have higher success in writing when they have a solid knowledge base that has been developed through wide reading. Good readers have the fundamental skills to listen to someone talk about a topic they have read and they have a higher success of understanding. Good readers have higher success in speaking tasks when they have gained input through reading. It is difficult to imagine an *academically* successful individual in the twenty-first century who is not an avid and effective reader.

This chapter will focus on the pedagogy and practice of developing effective reading instruction in order to strengthen language learners in the long and challenging task of language acquisition and then using the language skills they have developed to increase their content knowledge in other areas. This chapter will provide a theoretical foundation for reading instruction by identifying two key issues related to reading instruction: reading comprehension instruction and the role of motivation. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of future trends, the identification of challenges ahead, and suggestions to connect research and practice.

BACKGROUND

In order to provide effective reading instruction, teachers can ensure that there are meaningful connections among the learners, the reading, and the development of the other language skills. To accomplish this instructional responsibility teachers can view reading as the core language skill for instruction and then to build the development of all language skills around effective reading instruction. Figure 23.1 provides a visual representation of this concept.
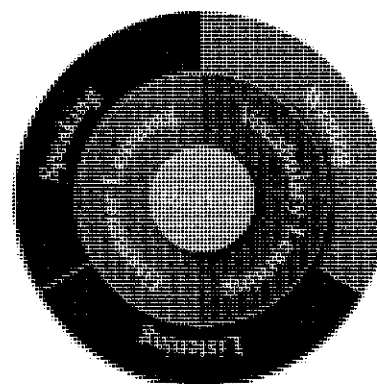
Figure 23.1   Placing reading at the core of language learning instruction

Harmer (2004) indicates that one reason why students do not like writing in their second language is because they think that they do not have anything meaningful to write about. When reading is placed at the core of language instruction, it serves as a springboard into writing by providing students with something meaningful to write about based on what they have read. Hirvela (2004) indicates that there is a "fundamental belief that at least in academic and school settings, *reading is a prelude to writing that shapes writing*" (pp. 110–111).

This idea is not new. Carson (1993) was an early proponent of engaging students in meaningful reading tasks as a springboard for writing. She emphasized that "the phrase *reading for writing* can be understood as referring most specifically to the literacy event in which readers / writers use text(s) that they read, or have read, as a basis for text(s) that they write. . . . Reading for writing can also be understood as acknowledging that writing is often the resultant physical artifact of reading/writing encounters" (Carson 1993, 85).

Evans, Hartshorn, and Anderson (2010) provide an excellent example of how reading can be the core skill of instruction while at the same time building and strengthening the other language skills as well. Their chapter focuses on how to develop reading skills in pre-university preparation programs to assist readers in developing academic reading proficiency. Placing reading at the core of instruction for this audience of learners is particularly beneficial.

KEY ISSUES

In each of the recent publications on reading instruction cited earlier, researchers have identified several key issues that merit the attention of L2 educators. For example, Grabe (2009) identifies reading and writing relationships, teacher training for reading instruction,

early L1 (first language) and L2 reading development and L2 adult literacy instruction as the key issues that he believes deserve greater attention and research. Likewise, Bernhardt (2011) raises "new questions on old topics" (p. 123) and indicates that questions related to background knowledge, technology, strategies, testing, intrapersonal variables, transfer, phonological processing and word recognition, instruction, and vocabulary are all worthy of continued attention from reading researchers.

This chapter will limit the focus to two key issues: (1) comprehension instruction and (2) reading and motivation.

READING COMPREHENSION INSTRUCTION

One concern with most reading instruction materials is that ESL / EFL reading instructional books consist of short reading passages followed by vocabulary and comprehension tests. The question could be asked: When do we actually teach learners how to be better readers and engage in appropriate comprehension strategies? Grabe (2009) and Bernhardt (2011) indicate that comprehension instruction is an essential part of reading instruction. This is also a concern identified by Schacter (2006) and Pressley (2006). We have learned much over the past 30 years about how effective comprehension strategies can be taught to improve reading comprehension. The challenge is that the research that has been carried out on the effectiveness of reading comprehension strategy instruction is not making its way into the instructional materials that are used in classrooms.

This is primarily a concern for teacher trainers. Teacher trainers need to educate teachers-in-training that regardless of whether the materials include solid reading comprehension instruction, a well-prepared teacher can include the right kind of instruction in the classroom.

Schacter (2006) provides an excellent resource to equip teachers with the tools they need to provide effective reading comprehension instruction. His teacher-friendly book outlines a step-by-step process that teachers can follow to implement the use of 26 different comprehension strategies that he categorizes into seven different groups: questioning, summarizing, text structure, prior knowledge, comprehension monitoring, question answering, and multistrategy instruction.

One example of a comprehension strategy from Schacter's (2006) repertoire is called "developing thin and thick questions." This activity can be used with any reading material. He suggests that there are two types of comprehensions questions: thin (factual) and thick (inferential). *Thin* questions are those that can be answered directly from the text. *Thick* questions are not directly stated in the text but can be found by making inferences and by combining information from various parts of the text.

Schacter (2006) provides explicit instructions that teachers can follow to teach readers how to use this knowledge to improve their reading comprehension. Teachers draw a T-chart with columns labeled "thin" and "thick." The teacher and students read a portion of a text together and then the teacher writes a sample thin question in the left column of the T-chart. Together the teacher and the learners answer the thin question and the teacher points out how it can be answered directly from the text. Learners and the teacher then generate additional thin questions. These thin questions are added to the T-chart. The teacher then tells the readers that thick questions cannot be answered directly from the text and writes a sample thick question in the right column of the T-chart. Thick questions are often generated by using prompts like, *how, why, could,* or *imagine.* Many thin questions can be easily changed into thick questions by simply changing the question word from *what, when,* or *who* to *how* or *why.* The teacher demonstrates this by changing a thin question into a thick question. Together the teacher and the learners answer the thick question and the teacher points out how it cannot be answered directly from the text but that the thick question requires the

reader to make an inference by using information from multiple places in the text. Learners and the teacher generate additional thick questions and find the answers to these questions, always pointing out that the answers to the thick questions are not stated directly in the text. To continue practicing, learners can be asked to change two of the thin questions written in the left column of the T-chart into thick questions. Additional practice making thin and thick questions should be done with a new reading passage. Teachers can expand this activity by asking the learners to practice in pairs. Each pair produces thin and thick questions from a different passage. The teacher collects the questions and randomly asks them always inviting the readers to identify first if the question is a thin or a thick one. Each time the teacher asks the readers to justify why a question is thin or thick.

Through careful instruction following this suggested format, readers attention can be drawn to the importance of understanding what kind of question they are being asked to respond to. Teachers should encourage learners to transfer this knowledge to testing situations. When a high-stakes reading test is administered, students should be encouraged to look at the comprehension questions and determine whether the question is a thin or a thick question. Practicing this skill multiple times in class will help readers demonstrate their comprehension better in testing situations.

Perhaps the most important thing that teachers should remember during reading comprehension instruction is that regardless of the reading materials that are used in the classroom, explicit reading comprehension instruction should be provided for readers to be better comprehenders and know how to demonstrate their comprehension.

READING AND MOTIVATION

The topic of motivation is not new to language teaching and learning. For the past 50 years, since Gardner and Lambert first published their initial studies in Canada (Gardner and Lambert 1959), researchers have proposed various models of motivation and gathered data about how a learner's motivation influences performance in language acquisition with the greatest portion of that research occurring within the past 20 years (Cheng and Dörnyei 2007; Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Dörnyei and Csizér 1998; Dörnyei and Ushioda 2009; Guilloteaux and Dörnyei 2008; Ushioda 2008; Williams and Burden 1997). Ushioda (this volume, chap. 8) provides additional ideas on the pedagogical and practical things that teachers can do in the L2 classroom to motivate learners.

A question that we should consider is: Whose responsibility is it to motivate learners? Dörnyei (2001a) indicates that "the current situation is not very promising in this respect: by-and-large, promoting learner motivation is nobody's responsibility. Teachers are supposed to teach the curriculum rather than motivate learners, and the fact that the former cannot happen without the latter is often ignored. . . . My guess is that it is every teacher's [responsibility] who thinks of the *long-term* development of his/her students" (p. 27).

Definitions of motivation abound in the research literature. Schramm (1956) provides a simple and yet practical definition that can be applied to reading instruction.

$$\text{MOTIVATION} = \frac{\text{Expectation of reward}}{\text{Effort required}}$$

This mathematical equation provides an ideal formula for approaching reading instruction and motivation. Three options are available to teachers: First, they can look for ways to increase the numerator (increase the expectation of reward); second, they can look for ways to decrease the denominator (decrease the expectation of effort required); or third, they can looks for ways to do both. Therefore, within the reading's instructional context teachers must identify motivational strategies that can be implemented in order to achieve the goals of this motivational formula.

Currently the most prolific L2 motivation researcher is Zoltán Dörnyei. He has proposed a framework consisting of four elements (Dörnyei 2001a): (1) creating the basic motivational conditions, (2) generating initial motivation, (3) maintaining and protecting motivation, and (4) encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation.

The definition of motivation provided by Schramm (1956) can be combined with Dörnyei's (2001a) framework of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom and used to identify some specific motivational strategies that teachers can implement to increase the expected rewards of reading and to decrease the expected effort during reading. This combination will strengthen the pedagogy and practice of the "motivational foundation of instructed L2 learning" (Dörnyei 2001b, 107). Table 23.1 lists the key ideas that reading teachers can consider.

What is striking about the 16 suggestions above is that a teacher can engage learners in a "motivational moment" without having to make major deviations from reading instruction. The motivational teacher is one who seamlessly moves between effective reading instruction and motivational moments.

CONCLUSION

This chapter began with an introduction to effective reading instruction by emphasizing how we can place reading as the core of language instruction in the classroom. The learning cultures of our educational institutions can be changed if learners engage in more meaningful reading. That change will happen gradually as teachers focus learners' attention on the value of reading and how reading can help them be better prepared to speak, listen, write, use appropriate vocabulary, and learn grammar with well-written passages designed for reading instruction.

Two key issues can help guide teachers in achieving these instructional goals: explicit reading comprehension instruction and use of motivational moments in the reading classroom.

FUTURE TRENDS

Although we have been teaching the skill of reading in a second language for hundreds of years, we must consider how our efforts will be viewed by others 50 to 100 years in the future. When the researchers of the future review our work what will the data show? It shows that we have learned from the researchers of the past and that between 2010 and 2020 explicit instruction in reading comprehension strategies showed a remarkable increase in learners' performance. The future trends of second language reading instruction must be based not so much on new trends but rather on incorporating into our instructional repertoire all that we know should be part of every instructional setting.

CHALLENGES

Two challenges exist for accomplishing the lofty goal of incorporating into our instructional repertoire the ideas suggested in this chapter. First, we must improve teacher training. Both preservice and in-service teacher training programs must get to the point that teachers receive explicit training on exactly how to teach reading comprehension strategies. Teachers must be given opportunities to practice the language of how to present the comprehension strategies. They should then be given multiple opportunities to observe each other and receive and provide meaningful feedback on their performance. In this way teachers will

Increasing Expected Reward	Decreasing Expected Effort
Creating the basic motivational conditions • Identify why reading is an important skill to develop. • Discuss your personal passion for reading and how you have benefited personally from being an avid reader.	*Creating the basic motivational conditions* • Use prereading activities like Shadow Reading to prepare students for meaningful engagement with a text. • Directly relate the reading material to the previous knowledge of the readers to show them that what they are reading ties to things they have read and learned previously.
Generating initial motivation • Invite former students who are successful readers to visit your class and share how their improvement of reading skills has helped them reach their personal and academic goals. • Create class reading goals for words-per-minute (wpm) and comprehension. Post the goals in the classroom.	*Generating initial motivation* • Engage the readers in specific reading rate improvement exercises so that they see that they can improve their reading fluency. • Use all of your knowledge about the specific group of students you are currently teaching to maintain achievable goals.
Maintaining and protecting motivation • Select a variety of reading passages at slightly different levels of difficulty so that students can see the progress they are making yet the challenges that are still ahead to become better readers. • Model for your students the strategies that you use while reading in your second language.	*Maintaining and protecting motivation* • Allow readers to select some of their own reading materials for extensive reading outside of the classroom. • Allow readers to work with their peers during comprehension checks.
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation • Provide genuine praise for the improvements that students are making in increasing their reading fluency. • Establish the criteria for successful completion of reading tasks prior to engaging in the reading.	*Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation* • Engage readers in comprehension checks that do not require them to take a written test. • Teach readers how to self-assess their performance based on predetermined criteria for successful completion of reading tasks.

Table 23.1 Motivational strategies to increase expected reward and decrease expected effort

have a stronger level of confidence that what they are doing in the classroom will result in improved reading comprehension in students.

Second, we must review the curricular expectations in second language teaching. Instead of covering reading material to meet curricular objectives, teachers need to refocus their efforts by providing learners with more opportunities to practice reading strategies.

Those opportunities will most likely come with using fewer reading passages and doing more with the passages we do work with.

QUESTIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Two groups of questions can be posed for teachers and researchers to consider in order to make significant improvements in reading instruction. These questions are directly related to the two key issues raised in this chapter. First, instead of just giving readers a passage to read and then testing them on their comprehension, how can we engage in better reading comprehension strategy instruction in the classroom? How can we measure if our instructional efforts are effective in achieving this important goal in reading instruction?

Finally, what can be done to explicitly increase the motivational factors within the reading classroom? If motivation to read were to increase, what other motivational increases in language learning would we see? Motivation research continues to reveal new ways for improving L2 learning and teaching. It is now time to take this research one step further by applying it specifically to reading classrooms.

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CHAPTER 24

iting Instruction

R. Ferris

INTRODUCTION

Second language (L2) writing is a fascinating and rapidly growing area of interest in L2 research and pedagogy. Over the past 20 years, an explosion of interest in L2 writing has led to the founding of a scholarly journal (*Journal of Second Language Writing*, originated 1992), a regular international symposium (Symposium on Second Language Writing, originated 1998), and special interest groups within TESOL and the Conference on College Composition and Communication, as well as the production of dozens of books and hundreds of articles, chapters, and dissertations. During this time period, L2 writing has evolved from its origins as a subdiscipline of applied linguistics and/or composition studies to become its own distinct field of inquiry that crosses a wide range of disciplinary boundaries. In short, L2 writing is no longer simply one of the "four skills" covered in language classes or TESOL training programs but rather an important and dynamic area of specialization for researchers and practitioners (Leki, Cumming, and Silva 2006; Matsuda 2006; Silva, Leki, and Carson 1997).

Because of this widening of L2 writing as a field of inquiry, the contexts and student populations being considered have broadened as well. In the past, L2 writing was just one of several components of an integrated skills language class or perhaps a separate offering for international students in a university-level composition program. Today, however, L2 writing researchers examine L2 students within ESL programs, in foreign language contexts, and in mainstream composition settings. L2 writers may be international or EFL students who are literate and highly educated in their L1s, resident immigrant students with interrupted schooling in L1 and a late start in L2, or "Generation 1.5" students – residents in a new country who are the children of first-generation immigrants (Ferris 2009; Harklau, Losey, and Siegal 1999; Roberge, Siegal, and Harklau 2009; Scarcella 2003). These distinctions in contexts and student populations mean that a monolithic discussion of "how to teach L2 writing" is no longer possible, if indeed it ever was.

BACKGROUND

ISSUES OR CHALLENGES FACED BY L2 WRITERS

Regardless of background, L2 writers tend to share several important characteristics (Ferris 2009). First, they are simultaneously acquiring both second language skills and writing/composition expertise. Further, compared with L1 writers, L2 students (in most instances) have not had equivalent amounts of exposure to spoken and written input in the L2. As a result, they are typically more limited in their knowledge and control of lexical, syntactic, and rhetorical tools to express their ideas effectively. Finally, L2 writers often have had little experience with producing (or even reading) extended pieces of L2 text, and thus lack flueucy and confidence in their ability to write longer papers in academic or professional settings.

Beyond these general characteristics, different groups of L2 writers may face specific challenges. Students educated and literate in their L1 may grapple with *contrastive rhetoric* issues (Connor 1996, 2003; Kaplan 1966, 1987, 2005; Leki 1991), meaning that the patterns used for organization and argumentation in L1 texts may differ from those in the L2. Thus, some L2 student writers may need to be informed about the rhetorical expectations of their target audience and given opportunities to study and contrast models so that they can adjust their L2 writing strategies accordingly.

Newly arrived L2 students (international students and recent immigrants) may also struggle with their relative lack of cultural knowledge needed to generate effective content and make successful arguments. It is thus important for teachers of L2 writers to carefully evaluate the reading and writing tasks given to students to anticipate possible gaps in cultural knowledge and provide instructional support so that students can complete such assignments successfully.

Modern composition pedagogy may present another type of cultural problem for newly arrived L2 students, who may never have experienced such typical instructional techniques as multiple drafting and revision, exploratory writing tasks that are ungraded and not corrected (such as free writing and journaling), nondirective teacher feedback, peer response groups, or teacher-student writing conferences. Newcomers may find these activities confusing, frustrating, or even threatening. Instructors of L2 writers need to be sensitive to these issues and carefully explain the purpose of these techniques to their students and, in some cases, adapt their approaches so as not to alienate the students.

L2 writers whose entire exposure to the L2 has been in naturalistic settings rather than through formal language instruction may face a different set of challenges. While such students may have good fluency and comprehension skills and have more cultural knowledge and familiarity with educational practices than do their newly arrived counterparts, they may also have gaps in their language abilities that impact the accuracy and effectiveness of their writing. Students who have little learned knowledge of the L2 will require different approaches to writing instruction and feedback than do those who have learned formal rules and L2 grammar terminology (Ferris 1999, 2009; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005).

To summarize this discussion, L2 students are very diverse and bring many different experiences and challenges to the task of writing in the L2. Instructors of L2 writers should thus keep these issues in mind when designing courses, lessons, and tasks.

KEY ISSUES

PRACTICAL ISSUES IN TEACHING L2 WRITERS

In this section, we will look briefly at a number of practical applications of the principles discussed in the previous section. The implications discussed here move from general to specific.

ANALYZING THE NEEDS OF L2 STUDENT WRITERS

As noted in the opening section, L2 writers can present a range of needs and background experiences. Before beginning to teach an L2 writing/literacy/language class, teachers should investigate everything they can about the program, the specific course, and the typical student population. A sample set of questions that can be adapted for this purpose can be found in Ferris, 2009 (pp. 79–80). Once the class has begun, the teacher should further analyze the specific needs of the class by collecting background questionnaires (see samples in Ferris 2009, 74; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005, chap. 4; Goen et al. 2002; Reid 1998) and a short writing sample for diagnostic purposes. Teachers may also want to assess their students' formal grammar knowledge by administering a diagnostic grammar quiz (see Ferris 2002; Ferris and Roberts 2001). In short, L2 writers are simply too diverse for teachers to make assumptions about their students' prior knowledge and literacy/L2 writing experience.

SYLLABUS AND TASK TYPES FOR L2 WRITERS

Departments or programs may determine major syllabus parameters for individual writing instructors, but even so, teachers typically have some choices to make about the number and types of reading and writing assignments they will design and implement. There are two general course design questions that instructors (and curriculum designers) need to consider (adapted from Ferris 2009, 86, fig. 4.2):

1. **What general task types should the course include?** Considering the principles outlined in the previous section, writing courses should include both formal and informal writing tasks. Typical task types might include personal narrative, expository or persuasive writing, primary or secondary research assignments, literacy narratives, or genre-specific professional writing tasks such as lab reports, business proposals, legal briefs, or case studies. Informal writing might consist of blog or journal writing, in-class free writing, or written homework activities.

2. **What general syllabus models might be followed?** There are at least three general approaches to choose from:

   - *Thematic Approach.* Many instructors design writing class syllabi in which all or some of the assignments are linked thematically, allowing students to build confidence and expertise in reading and writing about one particular topic.
   - *General Approach.* While there are advantages to a thematic or linked assignment approach, instructors and/or students may grow tired of a single-topic focus and wish for more variety. Some instructors prefer to identify a range of writing tasks that they want their students to experience (e.g., research, collaborative writing, argumentation, writing from sources) and develop assignments on various topics that provide students with some choices and opportunities to pursue topics they are most interested in.
   - *Disciplinary approach.* In some contexts, different course offerings are designed to allow students to develop writing skills in a specific academic or professional area – legal writing, business or technical writing, science writing, and so forth. For this type of course, an instructor would help students discover and understand genre conventions for texts in that area and highlight both the rhetorical moves required by the subgenres (such as academic journal article introductions [Swales 1990]) and the language structures needed to write competently for that discipline.

Some writing course syllabi may also effectively include a combination of the above elements (e.g., where several of the assignments are linked topically, but not all of them, and where one or more of the tasks are discipline-specific and build genre awareness).

READING/WRITING CONNECTIONS AND TEXT SELECTION

All student writers need practice with text-based writing assignments, and L2 writers in particular benefit from them. When instructors are selecting texts for a writing class (rather than a reading class or a general language development course), they must balance several different practical concerns or questions. First, how many texts should be assigned, and how long or demanding should they be? The specific choices may vary depending on the learners' backgrounds and the course context, but in a writing-focused course, teachers must ask themselves what the primary goal of reading assignments should be and how best to balance time demands on students.

Second, in selecting texts for students to read, teachers must consider the cultural and linguistic information embedded in those texts and whether students will have adequate background knowledge and / or language proficiency to cope with them successfully. If texts are deemed useful but potentially challenging for a particular student audience, teachers should think carefully about how to present the text so that students may maximally benefit from it for their own writing and language development (Ferris 2009; Hedgcock and Ferris 2009; Seymour and Walsh 2006).

Finally, teachers must consider whether the texts they ask students to read (and related writing tasks) will be appealing and engaging for their students. In selecting texts, teachers should think carefully about the general background experiences of their student population and, where feasible, the specific interests of a group of students in a particular class. Teachers should especially be wary of selecting texts for their students based on their own individual tastes or because they think the text will "be good for" students (like vegetables or exercise). While students do need to be challenged through their reading assignments, if students dislike a text or a writing task, they are not likely to gain much from being forced to complete it.

RESPONDING TO STUDENT WRITING

It is important in all writing courses for teachers to think carefully about how students will receive feedback on their texts. Response (whether it comes from an instructor, peers, a tutor, or guided self-evaluation) is a critically important tool that focuses on the needs of individual student writers and their texts (Ferris 2003). All writers need to know how their texts have been received by their target audience (readers) so that they can assess the strength of their ideas or arguments, the clarity of their arrangement (organization), and the accuracy and effectiveness of their language choices.

With the importance of response in mind, writing instructors may find the following principles helpful as guidelines:

1. "Response" is not synonymous with "grading." The purpose of response is primarily to help student writers' long-term development, not to "fix" a particular text or to simply tell writers what they did wrong.

2. The teacher should not be the only respondent, and teachers should not feel that they must respond to every piece of text the student produces. As already discussed, there should be room for exploratory, informal pieces of writing so that students can build fluency without fear of evaluation.

3. The teacher should respond selectively, identifying several major feedback points that will most help the student writer at that point in time. This may mean that other issues or weaknesses go uncommented upon, but a selective approach is less overwhelming for both writers and responders (Ferris 2003; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005).

4. Teachers should be careful to avoid (or define) grammatical or rhetorical jargon (*thesis, introduction, tense, fragment,* etc.) unless they are certain that students will understand

what those shorthand terms mean (Ferris 2002, 2003; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005). They should also take care in constructing comments in the form of questions, as research has suggested that some L2 students do not always understand their purpose (Conrad and Goldstein 1999; Ferris 1997, 2001).

5. While peer response and teacher-student conferences can both be valuable instructional tools in a writing course, teachers should be aware that for L2 writers, both of these activities may be unfamiliar and uncomfortable. Teachers should think carefully about ways to prepare students for such response opportunities and structure them clearly (Ferris 2003, 2009; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005; Liu and Hansen 2002).

Readers interested in exploring the important issue of response to L2 writers in more depth are encouraged to consult the recent book-length works on this topic (Ferris 2002, 2003; Goldstein 2005; Hyland and Hyland 2006; Liu and Hansen 2002).

GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT FOR STUDENT WRITERS

An important and difficult instructional issue in L2 writing courses is the place of grammar and language development. On the one hand, L2 students' relatively limited control of syntax and lexicon can be a major inhibitor in their writing development, leading to errors and/or to writing that is overly simple and thus rhetorically unimpressive. On the other hand, a writing class should not become a grammar or vocabulary class, and there is ample evidence from composition research that simply teaching grammar in isolation does not necessarily improve the accuracy and effectiveness of student writing (Ferris 2002; Frodesen and Holten 2003; Hartwell 1985). Thus, instructors must ask themselves how best to build language instruction or development into a writing course in ways that complement other important class activities and that will transfer and apply to students' own writing.

As to the "what," there are two major issues to consider. Teachers should focus in-class instruction on (a) rules or structures that some or all of the students have demonstrated problems with; and (b) rules or structures that students will need mastery of in order to accomplish specific writing tasks in the course. Teachers may wish to design instruction for the whole-class, for smaller groups, or for individuals based on analyses of persistent patterns of error observed in the students' texts. Though localized error analysis is always better than any generic list of "common errors," as a starting point, teachers might consult published lists of L2 writing errors (Ferris 2002, 2006; Lane and Lange 1999) and perhaps even common L1 student errors, as L2 writers make some of those as well (Connors and Lunsford 1988; Lunsford and Lunsford 2008). Most importantly, classroom instruction on avoiding error should include strategy training to help students recognize, avoid, and edit their own errors (Bates, Lane, and Lange 1993; Ferris 1995, 2002; Haswell 1983; Lane and Lange 1999).

Besides using common or persistent errors as a starting point for instruction, teachers may also wish to consider the types of lexical and syntactic choices that various types of writing tasks require or elicit. For example, if students are writing narratives, a lesson on verb tense usage and shifts may be appropriate, while argument papers might suggest a lesson on the different functions of modal auxiliaries to express degrees of necessity or certainty. Instructors may also wish to highlight task- or topic-specific vocabulary in conjunction with particular texts or assignments and work with students on how to incorporate these structures into their own writing (Byrd and Bunting 2008; Conrad 2008; Coxhead 2000, 2006; Coxhead and Byrd 2007; Ferris 2009; Folse 2008; Schuemann 2008).

Once the instructor has determined possible topics for in-class language instruction, in a writing course, the best way to present these topics is via a series of *minilessons*. Adapted

from K–12 literature on L1 writing instruction (Atwell 1998; Weaver, 1996), minilessons have several important characteristics:

1. They are short.
2. They are narrowly focused (e.g., "past vs. present perfect" rather than "all verb tense/aspect combinations in English").
3. They are relevant to the writing that students are doing in class.
4. They may consist of a combination of the following elements, depending upon topic and time available:
    a. Analysis or discovery activities in which students examine occurrences of the structure or rule in authentic texts
    b. Brief, clear instruction on the rule or structure with carefully selected examples
    c. Practice activities in which students correct errors or manipulate the structure in sample sentences or longer pieces of text
    d. Application activities in which students examine the rule or structure or edit errors in a piece of writing they have completed or are currently working on

For sample minilessons that illustrate these principles, see Ferris (2002, chap. 5). To reiterate, the most important principles for integrating language instruction into a writing course are *proportion* (grammar/language development should not be out of balance with other writing class priorities) and *relevance* (grammar/language topics should not be overly broad or abstract but directly applicable to the writing tasks in the course and/or the writing problems demonstrated by the students).

ASSESSMENT OF L2 WRITING

Another complex topic for writing teachers is how best to assess L2 writing. Once again, space does not permit a detailed treatment of this important topic (but see, for example, Ferris 2009; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005; Hamp-Lyons 2003; Weigle 2002), so here we will simply consider two important principles of writing assessment that are especially salient for L2 students.

1. **Determine priorities for assessment:** While to a great degree the choice of scoring system (rubric) helps to articulate a teacher's or program's values, for L2 writers in particular, it is important to be aware that language issues, particularly errors that mark the writer as "ESL," tend to skew or confuse the perceptions of raters or readers. Teachers and administrators designing assessment systems need to decide if such issues should or should not determine student outcomes and take steps to ensure that scoring processes are consistent with those decisions.
2. **Ensure that writing assessment tasks are fair and useful for L2 writers:** As already noted, writing in a L2 is a complex and demanding task, and it becomes even more so if students must write under time pressure on tasks they have not been prepared for. It is important that writing prompts for assessment purposes are clear and accessible (as to both content and language) for L2 writers and that, in classroom settings, students are given some preparation in how to prepare for and manage a writing assessment task and how to learn from it when they have completed it (Ferris 2009; Ferris and Hedgcock 2005).

Assessment in a writing course can be an unpleasant issue for teachers and students to contemplate, but if teachers and program administrators are careful to handle tasks,

procedures, and scoring sensitively and fairly, writing assessments can actually provide valuable real-world feedback to student writers and their instructors about their progress and specific areas for further development.

This section has touched briefly on a number of major issues in planning and implementing L2 writing instruction. While there are other subtopics that could have been mentioned, the foregoing subsections, together with the suggestions for further reading and references at the end of this chapter, should at least provide new teachers with an overview and some starting points.

CONCLUSION

As noted at the beginning of this chapter, L2 writing is a dynamic and growing field of inquiry that has changed rapidly over the past 20 years. Future trends in L2 writing research and pedagogy will likely include an increased focus on how technology can assist and improve writing instruction, how insights from corpus linguistics and genre studies can be implemented and integrated into L2 writing programs, how L1 and L2 writing specialists can better collaborate to meet the needs of L2 writers in mainstream composition courses, how instruction for L2 writers in the disciplines can be improved, and how L2 writing instruction continues to develop in languages other than English and outside of North American educational contexts. Because more and more scholars are obtaining advanced training in both composition and applied linguistics and completing research and dissertations on L2 writing subtopics, it is to be hoped that these questions and many others will be more fully examined in the coming decades.

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CHAPTER 25

abulary Instruction

O'Keeffe

INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about vocabulary from different perspectives. A large body of work looks at how vocabulary is learned or acquired. This falls largely under the area of second language acquisition (SLA). Another substantial area of research relates to describing the lexicon, that is how many words, word families, how words are organized into semantic and syntactic relations and patterns (e.g., collocation, multiword units). Thirdly, from a teacher education perspective, a chapter on "teaching vocabulary" is standard fare in core English language teaching (ELT) texts and there is also a considerable amount of teacher development material both in print and online that is dedicated to actual vocabulary teaching strategies for the classroom. Particular ways of teaching vocabulary, for example, the Lexical approach or the Data-Driven Learning approach (DDL) are also well documented.

In this chapter, we also consider the importance of how words are organized into patterns. We consider what words are core and how we can accelerate our students vocabulary acquisition. We also look at how words are organized semantically and syntactically. Firstly, we briefly overview how the teaching of vocabulary has changed in the context of language teaching approaches over time. It is important to have an understanding of the influence of second language acquisition theory in relation to vocabulary instruction models.

BACKGROUND

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Theories of SLA attempt to explain how languages are learned and, within that, account for how vocabulary is developed. These have been influential in changing the prevailing understanding of how best to teach vocabulary. Historically, until early in the twentieth century, "foreign" languages were taught using the Grammar Translation Method (see Larsen-Freeman 2000). This was based on the teaching of Latin and Greek, and it was based around the introduction of high-culture literary texts and the learning of and subsequent parsing of grammar rules. In grammar, students were taxed with learning "paradigms" whereas in terms of vocabulary, lists would often have to be learned and most vocabulary came for the literary texts of the language of study. This meant that learners would often know vocabulary from their literary texts that was often of little use in any functioual sense, e.g., if one wanted to ask for directions. In the context of the times, learning a foreign language was a very academic exercise, and the notiou that one might need ever to ask anyone for directions was a slim possibility compared to the need to be able to read book iu that language. Issues of mobility and the need to be competent in spoken language took on a uew imperative particularly around the time of the Second World War (Larsen-Freeman 2000).

Behavioralist theories of psychology came very much into vogue in the United States and this permeated to language teaching. In the behaviorist model, aspects of human behavior, including language, can be brokeu into a series of "habits." Therefore, all facets of language learning (including vocabulary teaching) were seen as a series of habits and learning these was a matter of "habit formation" (see Skinner 1953). The behaviorist approach to language teaching was called the *audio-lingual approach*. The classroom emphasis was on teacher modeling and student repetition of words. That is, students would hear the teacher model a word, then they would imitate it and repeat it, individually and chorally (for a classroom description, see Larsen-Freeman 2000). Language laboratories came out of this period. In fact, they were first used as a means of intensive language traiuing for U.S. troops who were being sent overseas during the Second World War (Saettler 1990). An important aspect of vocabulary learning within the audio-lingual approach was the rote learning of vocabulary. McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh (2008, 109) note that while rote learning of vocabulary is certainly not adequate for language acquisition to take place, it is still practiced in many parts of the world. They say that while it may be entirely appropriate at the early stages of learning a second language, it is unlikely to work at more advanced levels as learners will become bored and frustrated by a perceived lack of progress. Schmitt (1997) points to evidence that, as learners become more advanced, they prefer and benefit from more cognitively engaging strategies for vocabulary learning.

Cognitive (sometimes referred to as "mentalist") theories of SLA are the opposite of behaviorism in that they view language acquisition is a cognitive activity. Chomsky is the best known in this respect. His theory of Universal Grammar (Chomsky 1955) maintains that human beings are predisposed to language acquisition, and he puts forward the idea that we have an innate ability to learn a language during a critical period of our lives, normally by the age of about 10 (referred to as critical age theory). Within the cognitivist framework, it is argued that language iuput should be slightly above the learners' current level (see Krashen 1981). In terms of vocabulary teaching, there is an implicit view of learning: new words are acquired unconsciously and teaching has no influence on this process of acquisition and learners should simply be left to "get on with it" (McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh 2008).

Interactionist theories provide yet another perspective. In this model, it is suggested that learning takes place through the interaction that occurs between teacher and learners and between peers, that is learners and other learners. The theory was first put forward by Long (1983, 1996) and it emphasizes that learning takes place when meanings are "negotiated." This concept of negotiation of meaning is therefore core to the learning task, and is obviously very salient in relation to vocabulary acquisition. It is argued that learning is optimized when learners work with each other and when they are going through cognitive processes of seeking clarification, checking meaning, and making sure they understand.

Another key perspective comes from sociocultural theory. This influential model has its origins in the work of Vygotsky (1978) and central to it is the notion that learning

a second language is very much a social activity, mediated by language. According to Vygotsky (1978) learning takes place when there is an "expert" knower who assists learners using language and dialogue. It is proposed that learners pass through the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD), that is, "the collaborative construction of opportunities... for individuals to develop their mental abilities" (Lantolf 2000,17). ZDP in relation to vocabulary instruction is the degree to which learners can develop their mental abilities by working together on a common vocabulary learning task. In this process, the collaborative construction of language is essential. In other words, learning occurs when "individuals engage with a common task in the pursuit of a common goal" (McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh 2008, 111). Hence, task-based and form-focused instruction are at the core of this theoretical perspective. As McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh (2008) put it "learners must be given tasks to complete which are challenging, which require discussion and which help them to focus on *language*" (p. 111).

KEY ISSUES

DOES VOCABULARY SIZE MATTER?

There is plenty of empirical research to show that the more words learners know, the higher their attainment in language tests (Laufer 1992; Laufer and Goldstein 2004; Alderson 2005; Albrechsen, Haastrup, and Henriksen 2008). Alderson (2005, 88) concludes from his research that it is the size of one's vocabulary that "is relevant to one's performance on any language test, in other words, that language ability is to quite a large extent a function of vocabulary size." Therefore it is safe to conclude that improving learners' vocabulary acquisition will lead to overall improvement in their reading, writing, and listening skills.

Research tells us that there is a core vocabulary set of about 2,000 words which account for over 80 percent of all of the words in spoken and written texts (see O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter 2007). This amount is arrived at by looking at language corpora, large collections of everyday spoken and written texts stored on a computer and available for analysis. Figure 25.1 presents the findings of O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) based on their research into the Cambridge English Corpus.
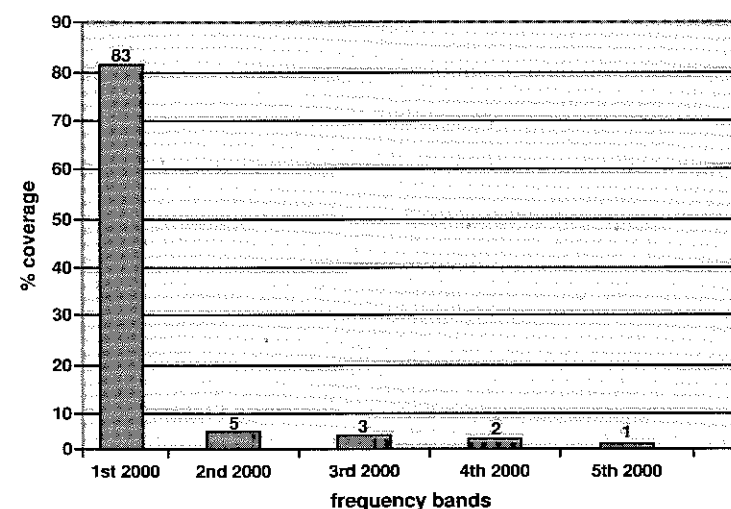
Figure 25.1 Text coverage in a 10-million-word corpus of spoken and written English (O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter 2007 (p. 32), copyright Cambridge University Press, used by permission).

Basic grammatical words	Closed grammatical sets: *articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs*
Modal verbs Modal words	*can, could, may, might, would, should, ought to,* etc. *probably, possibly, definitely, apparently, certain, maybe,* etc.
Delexical verbs	*make* (e.g., make a wish), *do* (e.g., do a tour), *get* (e.g., get a job), *take* (e.g., take a break)
Stance words	Words that show attitudinal stance, such as *unfortunately, basically, actually, just, (a) bit*
Discourse markers	Boundary words, such as *well, okay, right, however*
Basic nouns	A wide range of nouns with both concrete and nonconcrete meanings (e.g., *person, problem, life, family, room. car, school, door, water, house, situation, birthday*) Names of days, months, colors, body parts, kinship terms, common activities (*breakfast, swimming*), common places, and events
General deictics	Words that relate to space and time, e.g., *this, that, these, those, now, then, ago, away, front, side, back*
Basic adjectives and adverbs	*lovely, nice, different, good, bad, eventually, recently, always, usually, normally, generally, suddenly, totally, entirely, obviously, basically, hopefully,* etc.
Basic verbs for actions and events	Verbs referring to everyday activity, such as *give, leave, stop, help, feel, put, sit, listen, explain, enjoy, accept, fill*

Table 25.1 A breakdown of the core words in English (based on O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter 2007)

As figure 25.1 illustrates, the first 2,000 core words in English account for 83 percent of coverage (that is, of all the words that you are likely to encounter in everyday spoken or written language). These results have interesting implications and interpretations that we will explore in greater detail. First let us briefly detail what the core words entail. Based on the work of O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007), we can summarize what they comprise (see table 25.1).

HOW MANY WORDS DO OUR LEARNERS NEED TO KNOW?

As figure 25.1 illustrates, it is not about how many words a learner knows, it is more about knowiug as many of the senses of the core words as possible that impacts on the amount of vocabulary in a text that someone will understand. Leaving aside the high-frequency core grammatical items, what gives the core words such potency in terms of coverage has mostly to do with two factors

1. The ability of the same form to appear in many meanings (polysemy)

The more students can know about core words, the more they will increase their vocabulary potency. For example the word *rich* may first be encountered in its meaning of

having a lot of money but it has other meanings in other contexts, such as *rich food, rich soil, rich in resources, a rich color*, none of which relate to money. Dealing with polysemy is a matter of acquiring "depth," that is the need to deepen ones understanding of the many senses of the core vocabulary items.

2. The ability of the same form to combine with other forms to make new meanings

Take a delexical verb as an obvious example; these are high frequency items that are semantically quite empty but which can combine with certain other words to make specific meanings. The word *do* in any of these combinations does uot have high semantic content yet when combined with certain nouns, it takes on new meaning: *do a favor, do a tour, do a lap, do the dishes, do the school run.*

HOW BEST TO ACCELERATE VOCABULARY LEARNING AND RETENTION?

As we move up in the frequency bands illustrated in figure 25.1, the words occur less and less frequently, so opportunities need to be created for learners to encounter more new words (to increase the "breadth" of their vocabulary). Two endeavors can accelerate this process: increasing contextual encounters and working on extended meaniugs.

INCREASING CONTEXTUAL ENCOUNTERS

Studies on vocabulary acquisition tell us of the value of learning words through several contextual encounters and endorse the point that the more students see, read, write, or say a word, the more likely they are to retain it in their long-term memory (Mezynski 1983; Stahl and Fairbanks 1986; Krashen 1989; Nation 1990). These encounters would typically come in the form of watching televisiou or reading. Reading, especially, offers the opportunity for the learner to build advanced vocabulary. As we move up the frequency bands, we move into more and more specialized and lower frequency vocabulary uses. If a student has a specific interest in a particular area, then that student will be more motivated to read in this area and acquire vocabulary in this context (e.g., sports, medicine, law, cooking, fashion). However, Cobb (1997) argues that, in reality, few language learners have time to do enough reading for natural, multicontextual, lexical acquisition.

Take for example a random search for the word *dampen* in figure 25.2. In its literal sense, it means to make something slightly wet. However, a quick search using the Cambridge English Corpus brings up many other, nonliteral, meanings, which even the most avid reader would not encounter with such intensity, even over a long period. The negative side is that unlike the book reader, the corpus reader is working without much in the way of context. This is overcome to a degree by training (see Sripicharn 2010 on learner training for DDL).

Apart from the lesser used literal sense of the word, we find the use of the word in contexts such as *dampen the price, zeal, desire, libido, hype, risk, immune response, overheated economy*, and so on. It is difficult to argue with the density and richness of exposure in terms of how the word is used. Tom Cobb has set up an excellent free web interface for corpus use called Compleat Lexical Tutor (www.lextutor.ca). For example, it is linked to corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC) and it also allows teachers to load their own texts. It also allows students to test their vocabulary and is based on *wordlist bands* and levels. Another interesting application on Cobb's page is the Multi-Concordance + Quiz Builder. This tool allows you to select a corpus (e.g., the Brown Corpus or a graded-reader corpus) and then to search a word or a phrase to produce a basic concordance that is linked back to the corpus you selected. A gap fill task sheet, where the search word is deleted or a quiz format, which includes interactive gapped concordances for the search word or phrase can easily be created. Target words are also linked to the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary.*

Figure 25.2 A concordance sample for the word *dampen* from the multi-billion word Cambridge English Corpus (copyright Cambridge University Press, used by permission).

For example, figure 25.3 shows an advanced gap fill task that was generated at the click of a button. It is based on a search of a one-milliou word medical text corpus (part of the BNC) for the search word, *residual.*

Figure 25.3 Task created using the Quiz Builder function in Compleat Lexical Tutor, based on a one-million word medical subcorpus of the BNC (screenshot from www.lextutor.ca, used by permission)

HOW WORDS ARE ORGANIZED AND HOW WE ORGANIZE WORDS

How words are organized can be looked at from two perspectives: how we organize and connect words by meaning and how we connect and organize words syntactically. In organizing words by meaning we can draw on connections between words especially through *synonymy, antonymy,* and *hyponymy.*

Synonymy refers to two or more words having the same meaning, where one can substitute for the other without altering the meaning. For example, *start* and *begin; complete, end,* and *finish.* In terms of vocabulary instruction, syuonyms can be very useful because they allow teachers and lcarncrs draw on words of equivalent meaning. They are also a core facilitator of monolingual learner dictionaries. For example, the word *pause* might be explained in terms of its synonym *stop,* and so on. However, as McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh (2008) point out, we usually only have 100 percent synonymy with words that are used in different varieties of a language:

American English	British English
sidewalk	*pavement*
trailer	*caravan*
cell phone	*mobile phone*
cookie	*biscuit*

Hence, to teach meaning using synonyms in an absolutist manner would lead to learner error. For example, if one were to teach that the meaning of *pause* was exactly the same as *stop*, then a learner might plausibly intuit that the following usage is correct: *The driver paused the car outside the bank.* While it is useful to explain that *pause* is similar in meaning to *stop*, we obviously need to limit its context of use to stopping for a short period and explain that it usually refers to the temporary stopping of a sound or an activity.

An *antonym* is a word opposite in meaning, *wet–dry, light–dark*, and so on. As is the case with synonymy, this sense relationship can be very useful in the teaching of meaning. For example, if we are explaining the meaning of *dark*, it is helpful to explain that it means the opposite of *light*, and so on. Again, it can pose pedagogical challenges because words do not always have just one anonym. Very often, antonyms differ in meaning because they are used in different contexts (we can say that they are *polysemic*). For example, the opposite of *rough*, could be a number of antonyms depending on the context:

> *The surface is very rough/smooth.*
> *Kyle was a very rough/gentle child.*
> *The sea is rough/calm.*
> *It was a rough/accurate calculation.*
> *He had a very rough/soft voice.*

Pedagogically, this is very challenging when teaching meaning and it is easy to see how errors can be induced. The key point is to teach antonyms (and synonyms) in context. Overgeneralization of meaning equivalence can lead to errors.

Hyponymy is another semantic relationship that is very useful in teaching meaning. It helps us to organize words in terms of hierarchical categories, for example *water* is a hyponym of *liquid*. It equates to "X is a type of Y." Carter (1987) refers to *hyponymy* as a type of asymmetrical synonymy. The benefit of presenting meaning in this way is obvious since the category name is usually a high-frequency core word that learners will already know and this will aid retention. Hence, we can use the relationship of hyponym very effectively to expand vocabulary, e.g., a *mansion* is a type of *house*, *sandal* is a type of *shoe*, *beret* is a type of *hat*. Hyponymy is also very applicable for learner vocabulary notebooks:

```
            shoe
             ↓
  ┌──────┬──────┬──────┐
  ↓      ↓      ↓      ↓
sandal stiletto pump  mule
```
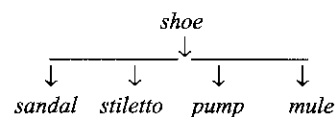
The other main organizing principle of words that we need to be aware of when teaching vocabulary is that words go together in patterns. These patterns might be divided as shown in table 25.2.

Fixedness covers a broad array of areas, but the key point to extrapolate for vocabulary instruction is that we need to move away from focusing on words as single items. They collocate with other items; they form parts of multiword units, and so on. This again explains why the core 2,000 words have over 80 percent coverage.

CONCLUSION

As Wilkens (1972, 111) notes, without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. How we teach vocabulary is therefore central to the process of language teaching. A teacher's challenge is not only to provide the right stimulus

Collocation	The way that words combine to form pairs that occur frequently together (McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh 2008), for example *release from prison* / *discharge from hospital* / *check out of hotel*. All of the words *release, discharge*, and *check out* share the semantic relationship of *leaving* but syntactically, they collocate differently in different contexts.
Idioms (including phrasal, preopositional, and phrasal prepositional verbs)	*see eye to eye, be over the moon, get up, give up, do without, cope with, look forward to, put up with*, etc.
Formulaic language	*happy birthday, enjoy your meal, see you later, nice to meet you*, etc.
Lexical chunks or multiword units (see Greaves and Warren 2010)	Short phrases, not longer than 6 words, that are fixed or semifixed, such as *you see, a bit, as far as I know, you know what I mean, when I was young.*

Table 25.2 A summary of how words are organized in to fixed and semi-fixed syntactic patterns.

and content to accelerate the learners' exposure to new language and new senses of words that they already know, but also to do so in ways that aid the retention of these items. Much more is needed in the way of classroom-based research, work such as carried out by Webb (2005, 2007). Equipping teachers with the know-how to conduct their own classroom studies is also something to be welcomed. Schmitt (2010) is a very timely resource in that respect.

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CHAPTER 26

ıunciation Instruction

M. Brinton

INTRODUCTION

Oft cited in the literature on pronunciation instruction is Kelly's (1969) metaphor of pronunciation as the Cinderella of language teaching. This metaphor implies that, traditionally, pronunciation has been neglected in the language classroom and that its rightful place is at the forefront of language instruction, along with the four skills, grammar, and vocabulary. As we shall see in this chapter, there is a good deal of truth in Kelly's assertion, especially as we examine the very radical swings of the methodology pendulum with respect to the importance afforded pronunciation over the years. Today, as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) enters its fifth decade, we can safely say that pronunciation has indeed been afforded a major role, though numerous issues remain to be addressed if pronunciation instruction is to be an effective component of the overall English language teaching (ELT) curriculum.

BACKGROUND

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION

Table 26.1 summarizes the importance placed on pronunciation in selected methods used for second language (L2) instruction. As we can see, the pendulum has swung quite dramatically between those methods that placed little or no focus on pronunciation (e.g., during the Grammar Translation era and again in the early years of the Communicative Approach) and those that placed a very high value on the accuracy of spoken production and hence on pronunciation (e.g., Audiolingualism, which as an outgrowth of behaviorism treated any deviation from the target pronunciation as an error that needed to be immediately eradicated through intensive drilling lest it become a habit).

When the era of CLT was first ushered in during the late 1970s, the prevailing belief appeared to be that with sufficient comprehensible input (i.e., language aimed just slightly

Grammar Translation (1840s–1940s)	No focus on pronunciation
Direct Method and other Naturalistic Approaches	Pronunciation taught via imitation and repetition
Linguistic Approaches Reform Movement (~1890s–1920s) Audiolingualism (~1940s–1960s)	Use of a phonetic alphabet, sagittal diagrams, tongue twisters, and minimal pair drills; primary emphasis on segmentals
Communicative Approaches • 1970s • 1980s • 1990s and beyond	Little or no overt focus on pronunciation Primary focus on suprasegmentals Balanced focus on segmentals and suprasegmentals

Table 26.1 Summary of the importance placed on pronunciation in selected methods

above the current level of the learner) (Krashen 1982) and adequate opportunities for communicative practice, learners' pronunciation skills would eventually fall into place. However, it did not take long for researchers and classroom teachers alike to realize that the lack of overt instruction in pronunciation was not yielding the desired results and to call for a broader, discourse-based view of pronunciation (see, for example, Leather 1983; Pennington and Richards 1986). This was followed shortly by several articles advocating the increased role of suprasegmentals (rhythm, stress, and intonation) in the teaching of pronunciation (Morley 1987, 1991; Chun 1988; McNerney and Mendelsohn 1992) along with student texts (e.g., Gilbert 1984; Dickerson 1989; Grant 1993) and teacher resource texts (e.g., Wong 1987; Chela-Flores 1989) that translated the call for an increased emphasis on suprasegmentals into practice.

WHAT IS NEEDED TO TEACH PRONUNCIATION EFFECTIVELY

THE KNOWLEDGE BASE

Figure 26.1 displays the knowledge base required for teachers to effectively teach pronunciation.

According to this knowledge base, teachers must first have a working knowledge of the relevant pronunciation features that they are presenting and be able to present this knowledge using a principled methodology. This includes awareness of how the articulators (the tongue, the jaw, the lips, the vocal cords, etc.) are involved in the production of segmental features (vowels and consonants). It also involves an awareness of how suprasegmental features (e.g., rising vs. falling intonation contours) function to express meaning within discourse.

Second, teachers must be aware of factors that influence their students' acquisition of new language features. This includes the role that first language transfer (both negative and positive) may play. For example, in the case of negative transfer, knowing that Castilian Spanish speakers articulate /r/ differently from English speakers may assist teachers in predicting that their Spanish-speaking students may have difficulty producing the equivalent of an English /r/. On the other hand, the same teacher can assume that her students may be able to positively transfer the "th" sound of Castilian Spanish over to their production of the English "th" sound /θ/ (as in _thing_ or _bath_).

Finally, the teacher, in conjunction with curriculum guidelines, must be able to make informed decisions about which aspects of pronunciation should be focused on in any given unit and plan accordingly regarding how and when to present these aspects. This

inevitably involves determining the extent to which learners' non-target-like pronunciation of segmentals and suprasegmentals interferes with intelligibility and how important these features are for students' overall communicative needs.
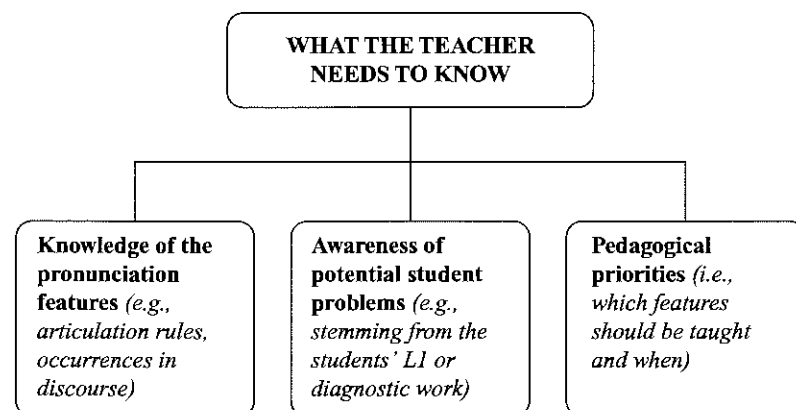
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          ┌─────────────────────┐
          │  WHAT THE TEACHER   │
          │  NEEDS TO KNOW      │
          └─────────────────────┘
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Knowledge of the pronunciation features *(e.g., articulation rules, occurrences in discourse)*	**Awareness of potential student problems** *(e.g., stemming from the students' L1 or diagnostic work)*	**Pedagogical priorities** *(i.e., which features should be taught and when)*

Source: Celce-Murcia, M., D. M. Brinton, & J. M. Goodwin (2010). *Teaching pronunciation: A reference and course text*, 2nd ed. (p. 44). Copyright Cambridge University Press. Used by permission.

Figure 26.1   A required knowledge base for teaching pronunciation

The above knowledge base assumes that, as part of the L2 teacher-education curriculum in higher education settings, teachers have received instruction in how to teach pronunciation (e.g., taken a graduate-level course in practical phonetics). This is sadly not always the case, as documented by both Murphy (1997) and Breitkreutz, Derwing, and Rossiter (2001). However, there appears to be increased momentum in MA TESOL programs to include a required course in practical phonetics – a momentum the textbook market has responded to accordingly. However, it does not presume that teachers must be native speakers of English, only that they have a high degree of intelligibility in the local pronunciation standard (e.g., British, American, or another regional variety of English) and that they provide an appropriate, inspirational model for their students.

Figure 26.2 presents a suggested five-stage cycle for pronunciation practice that moves from description and analysis of linguistic features to listening discrimination and finally to the three stages of practice.[1] Although not intended as a lesson-planning guideline for any one lesson, the cycle serves as a reminder to teachers that acquiring new pronunciation features is a very gradual process for learners. It recognizes that for learners to acquire auto-maticity of production in the targeted sounds of the new language, pronunciation instruction must eventually move beyond focused repetition practice (stage 3) and provide gradually more communicative practice contexts (stages 4 and 5 of the framework). The framework thus serves the larger purpose of helping teachers to establish curricular priorities and to ensure that their learners have adequate opportunities to practice newly acquired features of pronunciation. Ultimately, the primary role of the framework is to remind teachers that practice must move beyond rote repetition or oral reading and instead extend to contexts in which learners are required to communicate using the newly acquired pronunciation feature in communicative, personalized exchanges.

KEY ISSUES

Despite the advances that have been made in the teaching of pronunciation today, there are numerous issues that require resolution if pronunciation is to take its rightful place alongside

1	DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS – *oral and written illustrations of how the feature is produced and when it occurs within spoken discourse*
2	LISTENING DISCRIMINATION – *focused listening practice with feedback on learners' ability to correctly discriminate the feature*
3	CONTROLLED PRACTICE – *oral reading of minimal-pair sentences, short dialogues, etc., with special attention paid to the highlighted feature in order to raise learner consciousness*
4	GUIDED PRACTICE – *structured communication exercises, such as information gap activities or cued dialogues, that enable the learner to monitor for the specified feature*
5	COMMUNICATIVE PRACTICE – *less structured, fluency-building activities (e.g., role play, problem solving) that require the learner to attend to both form and content of utterances*

Source: Celce-Murcia, M., D. M. Brinton, & J. M. Goodwin (2010). *Teaching pronunciation: A reference and course text*, 2nd ed. (p. 45). Copyright Cambridge University Press. Used by permission.

Figure 26.2   A communicative framework for teaching English pronunciation

the teaching of the four skills, vocabulary, and grammar. These fall largely into the areas of teacher preparation, curriculum design and materials selection, classroom procedures, and assessment and feedback.

TEACHER PREPARATION

As alluded to above, for effective pronunciation instruction to take place, teachers must have a solid knowledge base, both in terms of their familiarity with the sound system of English and their ability to employ appropriate methodologies for addressing pronunciation in the classroom. Unfortunately, many in-service teachers still report that they were not provided with adequate training in this skill area (Gilbert 2010) – undoubtedly due to the fact that many teacher preparation programs do not include such a course in their curriculum, or else offer it as an elective which students then opt not to take.

On a more positive note, professional groups such as TESOL's Speech, Pronunciation, and Listening Interest Section (SPLIS) and IATEFL's Pronunciation Special Interest Group (PronSIG) provide useful venues for those teachers seeking additional information on how to teach pronunciation, both through their Web sites[2] and the pronunciation sessions that they sponsor at TESOL and IATEFL's annual conferences. Additional information on teaching pronunciation is available through TESOL-affiliate conferences in many regions and in countries worldwide. Finally, in recent years much has been published on the topic, and many of these sources are accessible to teachers without prior knowledge of the topic (see, for example, the list of key readings at the end of this article).

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND MATERIALS SELECTION

First and foremost, course designers and teachers alike need to consider how to integrate pronunciation into the overall ELT curriculum. Assuming that there is a dedicated class for teaching oral skills (or better yet, a class dedicated solely to pronunciation), this is the obvious place to address issues of pronunciation. However, in the real world of ESL/EFL instruction, teachers rarely have the liberty of teaching a course exclusively devoted to pronunciation but instead teach in an integrated skills pronunciation where time is at a

premium and difficult choices must be made regarding which skills to prioritize. In such cases, effectively integrating pronunciation instruction can present a serious challenge.

The good news is that many textbook series today have begun to add an overt focus on pronunciation, weaving pronunciation instruction into the treatment of other language features. For example, in their coverage of question formation, these texts augment the grammatical discussion of form, meaning, and use with additional information pertaining to the intonation contours used with the various forms of questions (e.g., yes / no vs. wh-questions, open vs. closed alternative choice questions). Thus when selecting all-skills texts, teachers are well-advised to look for texts that include a built-in focus on pronunciation and that integrate it with the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, listening, and speaking. This can vastly simplify the life of the teacher, who nonetheless will need to fine-tune the text's pronunciation objectives to the population of learners that she or he teaches, i.e., deciding based on the linguistic backgrounds of students in the class and observed error patterns whether the textbook's designated pronunciation objective is relevant or whether time is better devoted to an alternative pronunciation feature.

CLASSROOM PROCEDURES

Here, teachers are advised to select widely from the smorgasbord of techniques available for teaching pronunciation. Many of the "traditional" techniques outlined at the beginning of this chapter remain tried-and-true tools of the pronunciation teacher, and are particularly useful in the "description and analysis" and "controlled practice" phases of pronunciation instruction. Coupled with techniques adapted from CLT in general (such as information gap, strip story, problem solving, and role-play activities), these techniques can assist the pronunciation instructor in moving through the various phases of practice and helping to ensure that learners both internalize and automatize the new pronunciation features.

ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK

Another key component of classroom procedure is the use of appropriate assessment procedures. Where pronunciation is a central focus of the course, teachers are advised at the outset of the course to conduct a diagnostic assessment of the learner's production. This can be done in a variety of ways. One way is to simply assess the learner's production impressionistically – obviously not the most reliable or efficient method, especially with large numbers of students. Knowing about the learners' first language is helpful, as it can assist the teacher in making predictions about potential areas of difficulty in acquiring the various aspects of the L2 phonological system. Another common practice is to analyze a recorded sample of the learner's production. These may take the form of having the learner read a standardized diagnostic passage,[3] recording a free speech sample (e.g., by interviewing the learner, by asking him or her to tell a story or explain a wordless cartoon), etc. Alternatively, to test those features of the language that the learners have difficulty hearing, a listening diagnostic can be administered. Here, the underlying assumption is that if learners cannot hear a given sound or sound contrast, they undoubtedly also have difficulty producing it.

In addition to diagnostic assessment, teachers need to consider how best to deliver ongoing feedback, how to establish a healthy classroom climate where self and peer correction are encouraged, and how to design classroom tests to measure learner achievement. Established practice here is that classroom tests be designed to measure the learners' ability to both perceive and produce the pronunciation features that have been covered in class.[4] Additionally, the format of classroom achievement tests should mirror the types of tasks and activities used to teach the given feature in the classroom.

PRONUNCIATION STANDARDS

Perhaps one of the most contested issues in pronunciation teaching today has to do with selecting the appropriate "standard" to teach (Walker, 2010). Traditionally, this debate has centered on whether to teach General American (GA) or the British English Received Pronunciation (RP) (the prestige dialect once used by the British Broadcasting Corporation and spoken in the privileged public schools of England). However, given increasing globalization, this debate no longer carries much credence with pronunciation specialists, who recognize that other, international or local varieties of English may be more appropriate in a given context. These specialists further recognize that in many contexts where English is the medium of communication, English is being used as a language of wider communication, or lingua franca (i.e., by one nonnative speaker to another). In such contexts, the key issue is not whether the interlocutors are speaking a standard variety of English but rather whether their pronunciation is sufficiently *intelligible* for the effective exchange of ideas and information.

According to research (Brinton and Goodwin 2006), the following appear to represent the consensus of pronunciation specialists concerning this topic:

1. RP and GA remain the two major native-speaker target models.

2. In the past, these target norms reflected the reality that English was used predominantly to communicate with native speakers.

3. Many learners *do* still aspire to native-speaker models.

4. However, the standard for English as an International Language (EIL) is *intelligibility* rather than nativelike pronunciation.

5. In "outer circle" countries where English functions as a lingua franca (e.g., Singapore, India), there is a clear trend toward acceptance of local pronunciations as the target norm.

6. For comprehension purposes, learners should be exposed to a variety of English regional accents.

7. Learners should be allowed to determine their own target accent, with the caveat that intelligibility be the primary goal of production.

Thus while commercial materials may still reflect a bias toward RP or GA, in many contexts – especially those where there is an established regional variety of English – these target norms are outdated. In pronunciation pedagogy, there should be a decreased emphasis on NS target norms along with an increased emphasis on intelligibility as the target.

AN OVERVIEW OF TRADITIONAL TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

The era of Audiolingualism was a rich one with respect to the variety of techniques that were introduced into the teaching of pronunciation. These included the use of the following:

1. Phonetic symbols to represent the target sounds of English in the classroom
   Example: /ʃ/ to represent the underlined consonant sounds in *shell, sugar, issue, nation*, etc.

2. Key words to represent the various phonemes of English
   Example: /ɛ/: *pen, fed*; /æ/: *pan, fad*

3. Sagittal diagrams to illustrate the point and manner of articulation of consonant production (see fig. 26.3)
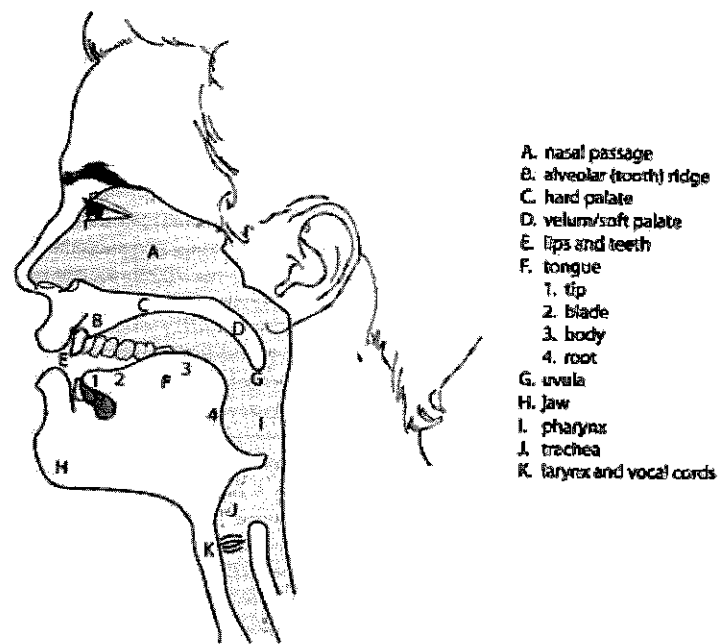
A. nasal passage
B. alveolar (tooth) ridge
C. hard palate
D. velum/soft palate
E. lips and teeth
F. tongue
  1. tip
  2. blade
  3. body
  4. root
G. uvula
H. jaw
I. pharynx
J. trachea
K. larynx and vocal cords

Source: Celce-Murcia, M., D. M. Brinton, & J. M. Goodwin (2010). *Teaching pronunciation: A reference and course text*, 2nd ed. (p. 57); illustration used by permission of Adam Hurwitz.

Figure 26.3 Sagittal section diagram

4. The vowel quadrant to illustrate the position of the tongue with respect to vowel articulation (see fig. 26.4)
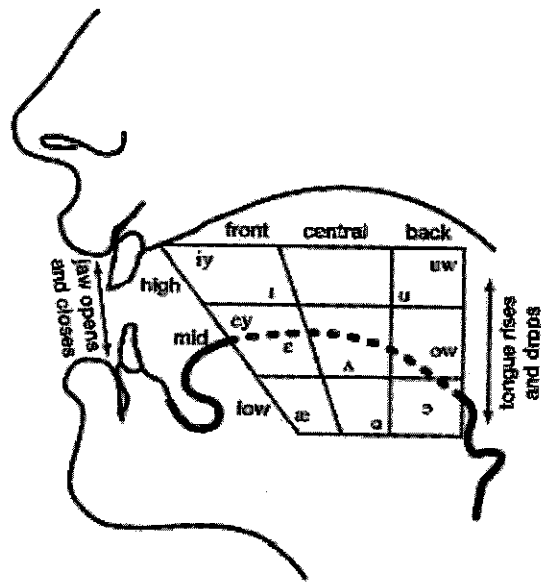
Source: Celce-Murcia, M., D. M. Brinton, & J. M. Goodwin (2010), *Teaching pronunciation: A reference and course text*. 2nd ed. (p. 116); illustration used by permission of Adam Hurwitz.

Figure 26.4 The NEA vowel quadrant and sagittal section of the mouth

5. Listen and repeat
   Example: extensive use of the language laboratory to expose learners to samples of native speaker speech that allowed for repetition of stretches of discourse and selective instructor feedback

6. Minimal pair word and sentence drills
   Example: *cat/cot; Get rid of the cat/cot.*

7. Focused sentence practice
   Example: /θ/ vs. /ð/: *Theo was loath to bathe with that thug Thor.*

8. Tongue twisters
   Example: /s/ vs. /ʃ/: *Sam's shop stocks short spotted socks.*

9. Dialogue practice
   Example: /l/ vs. /r/: You Look Great!

Rita:	*Lida, what a surprise to run into you here.*
Lida:	*You too, Rita. You look great.*
Rita:	*Are you serious? I look like a total frump!*
Lida:	*No, you've lost weight, right? At least 20 or 30 pounds.*
Rita:	*Actually, I've lost 44 so far!*
Lida:	*Really? Any particular diet?*
Rita:	*No, just daily exercise. And a lot of will power!*

10. Congruent pattern drills (for sentence stress/rhythm) Example:

    · ● · ● · ● ·

    I   need a   pound of   butter.
    I'd   like to   buy   a   sweater.
    You didn't   close the window.
    He ought to   buy   a   laptop.
    She doesn't speak much English.

These traditional tools of the pronunciation teacher are our legacy from articulatory phonetics and the teaching practices of the 1960s and '70s. In general, they require little other than rote repetition and focused attention to accuracy, and hence do not "push" learners to produce output that is communicative in nature. Due to their inclusion in most pronunciation textbooks, pattern drills remain in common use in the pronunciation classroom today and tend to be popular with learners and teachers alike.

A SMORGASBORD OF CURRENT TECHNIQUES

As noted above, the late 1990s brought about numerous changes in the teaching of pronunciation – most notably its alignment with the principles of CLT. Along with this alignment came a plethora of new pronunciation techniques – often adapted from those more generally used in the communicative approach. Unlike the traditional techniques outlined above, these techniques required learners to attend simultaneously to form and meaning, requiring them to focus on the accurate production of the target form at the same time that they are challenged to use the form in communicative interchanges.

Common "communicative" techniques used in the pronunciation classroom include the following: games, strip stories, cued (also known as gapped) dialogs, information gap activities, problem-solving activities, role play, and the like. Two examples of such activities follow.

For lower-level learners, the cued dialogue in Exercise 1 provides focused practice in pronouncing the /l/ vs. /r/ distinction while also providing the opportunity for learners to employ their communicative ability to individualize the conversation and make it their own.

Exercise 1: Sample cued dialog practice for /l/ vs. /r/

Task: With a partner, practice the dialog below, changing roles to ask and answer the questions. Use any of the following words: *Thursday, Friday, Saturday, play, concert, dinner, dessert, karaoke*

Questions	Answers
Would you like to go to a _____ on _____?	I'm sorry, I'm afraid I can't on _____.
How about going to a _____ on _____ night?	_____'s not good for me. Sorry!
Is _____ good for you?	Sure, that would be great.
What about going for _____ after the _____?	Great. I'm looking forward to it!

Exercise 2 shows a sample information gap exercise designed for slightly more advanced learners that requires both partners A and B to focus on the accurate production of vowel sounds while employing their communicative skills to exchange information.

Exercise 2: Sample information gap exercise for practice with /iy/, /ɪ/, /ey/, and /ɛ/

Jean, Jin, Jane, and Jen

Partner A

Vowel Review: /iy/, /ɪ/, /ey/, /ɛ/

Task: Work in pairs asking and answering questions about the missing information in the chart. Your goal is to fill in all the missing information without looking at your partner's answers. Here are some questions you can ask:

- What does _____ buy?
- What does _____ want?
- What does _____ like?
- What does _____ need

		buys	wants	likes	needs
Jean	/iy/	pins		cake	
Jin	/ɪ/		a pet	grapes	a maid
Jane	/ey/	beads	kids		
Jen	/ɛ/			rain	

Jean, Jin, Jane, and Jen

Partner B

Vowel Review: /iy/, /ɪ/, /ey/, /ɛ/

Task: Work in pairs asking and answering questions about the missing information in the chart. Your goal is to fill in all the missing information without looking at your partner's answers. Here are some questions you can ask:

- What does _____ buy?
- What does _____ want?
- What does _____ like?
- What does _____ need?

		buys	wants	likes	needs
Jean	/iy/		peace		paint
Jin	/ɪ/	a desk			
Jane	/ey/			green	jeans
Jen	/ɛ/	milk	a pen		a plate

CONCLUSION

At the outset of this article we briefly examined the history of teaching pronunciation and the swings of the methodological pendulum with respect to the importance afforded pronunciation in the overall curriculum. In the world of ELT today, pronunciation has come to be rightfully recognized as a critical skill. Yet, issues remain that hinder the effectiveness of classroom pronunciation instruction. These include (but are not limited to) inadequate teacher preparation in this skill area, reluctance on the part of many (in particular nonnative-speaking teachers) to address pronunciation in the classroom, overreliance of both teachers and the textbook market on traditional pronunciation techniques that do not encourage creative language use, and the continued use of British or American English pronunciation standards in EIL contexts. These issues notwithstanding, the future of pronunciation instruction appears bright, as institutes of higher education, professional organizations, and ELT publishers continue to address the needs of preservice and in-service teachers and help to educate them in this critical skill area.

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Notes

1. Length restrictions do not allow a discussion of the underlying rationale for this framework here. Those interested in this rationale are encouraged to consult the primary source: Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (2010).
2. Interested readers are referred to www.soundsofenglish.org and www.reading.ac.uk/epu/pronsig_new.htm
3. A classic example is Prator & Robinett (1985, ix–xiv); see also Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (2010, 481–482).
4. Useful guidance on assessing pronunciation can be found in chapter 8 of Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (2010).

CHAPTER 27

ımar Instruction

Cullen

INTRODUCTION

The teaching of grammar has always been a subject of controversy in the TESOL profession, both with respect to the most effective methodological procedures to use, and to the extent to which we should focus on it at all. In the 1980s, the writings of Krashen (1981 and elsewhere) and Prabhu (1987) promoted the view that the most effective form of grammar instruction was no overt instruction: learners would acquire the grammar of the language implicitly through exposure to comprehensible input roughly tuned to their level and engagement in meaning-focused tasks. While it is probably true to say that this position, characterized by Ellis (1995) as the "zero option" on grammar teaching, has been superseded by the recognition, supported by research, that some kind of focus on form (Long 2001) in the language classroom is necessary both to accelerate the processes of grammar acquisition and raise ultimate levels of attainment (Nassaji and Fotos 2004; Ellis 2006), the issues of when and how to provide this focus are no less contentious. In this chapter, I shall explore some of these issues by examining two different approaches to grammar instruction, one product-oriented and the other process-oriented, which are evident in much current classroom practice and in published teaching materials.

BACKGROUND

WHAT DO WE UNDERSTAND BY GRAMMAR?

Grammar instruction means different things to different teachers, related to the perceptions they have about what grammar is. Thus for some, grammar may be viewed essentially as the underlying knowledge of the system of rules which speakers apply in order to form correct sentences in spoken and written production, while for others it is perceived as more of a skill (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2003) which speakers deploy creatively in acts of communication to achieve intended meanings. Differences of this kind will be reflected in the kind of grammar instruction with which the teacher will feel most in tune, with regard to instructional materials, classroom activities, and teaching methods. At the level of materials, the first view, which emphasizes grammar as a knowledge-based system of rules, is typically reflected in exercises and test items, often at sentence-level, that reward the correct application of those rules for the achievement of accuracy, whereas the second view, which sees grammar as a skill, will find expression in exercises and test items which reward the learners' ability to make appropriate grammatical choices for the achievement of meaningful texts. Teachers of course may find there is a conflict between their own views about the nature and purpose of grammar and those reflected in the course books and materials they are required to use, or the examination tasks they are required to prepare their students for. Nevertheless, teachers will inevitably bring their own perceptions to bear on the way they approach the task of teaching grammar in their own classrooms, and on the way their learners approach the task of learning it.

A central theme of this chapter is that grammar, along with the systems of lexis and phonology, is a communicative resource (Widdowson 1990) that speakers use to comprehend and interpret language they receive as *input* when reading or listening and to produce language as *output* in speech or writing for communicative purposes – the skills of *decoding* and *encoding* messages. When producing language as output, the speaker's use of the grammatical code – is a matter of *choice* (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2002). Speakers choose from their linguistic repertoires the grammatical form or forms they consider to be the most appropriate and effective for expressing what they want to say. The difference between an intermediate level learner, for example, and a proficient speaker is that a proficient speaker has a wider repertoire to choose from, and can access it more quickly. Nevertheless, the process of choosing – and matching choice to meaning and context – is the same. Grammar is thus at the service of the language user, and the teaching of grammar in a genuinely communicative approach to language teaching needs to reflect this.

The notion of grammar as a system of choices that speakers exploit for their own purposes is connected with two other properties of grammar which have important implications for teaching. Firstly, the grammatical choices that speakers or writers make – for example, whether to use an active or passive verb form, or whether to use the modal *can* or *could* when making a request – are not made in a vacuum, but in a context of language use. They are thus text-based, not sentence-level, choices made in the act of participating in a communicative event, whether it be a conversation with friends or writing an e-mail to a colleague. In each situation there is a "text" being created and an audience. It would be difficult to reconcile a text-based view of grammar with teaching and testing techniques which focus predominantly on displays of grammatical accuracy in sentence-level exercises: learners need opportunities to observe, explore and practice the use of grammar in spoken and written discourse. Secondly, the view that grammar is at the service of the user, rather than a "linguistic straitjacket" (Larsen-Freeman 2002, 103) he or she is forced to wear, carries with it the notion of grammar as a dynamic system, which permits adaptation of its rules by speakers for their own communicative purposes, and which is consequently subject to change over time.

The process of exploiting the grammatical resources of language "for making meaning in context appropriate ways" is described by Larsen-Freeman (2003, 142) as "grammaring," a term that I will return to when discussing process-oriented approaches to teaching grammar. A good example of grammar being exploited in this way can be seen in the grammar of speech. As corpus studies of informal conversational English have shown (see, for example, Carter and McCarthy 1995, 2006, and elsewhere; and Biber et al. 1999), we adapt the rules of syntax in creative ways to meet the needs of real time processing of language: thus, we do not observe sentence boundaries as carefully as we do when we are writing, we

tend to string together sequences of noun phrases, and make nse of syntactical structures which are rarely found in writing. These include "head" structures (see example 1 below), where an extra noun phrase is inserted as a preface to an utterance, to orient the listener to the topic we are introducing, and "tail" structures (see example 2 below), where a phrase may be appended to the end of an ntterance, as a reminder to the listener of the topic we are referring to:

1. That car over there, it's parked on a donble yellow line. (head structure)
2. It's a pleasant place to hve, Canterbury. (tail structure)

Learners, particularly those studying English to interact with native speakers of the language, will encounter such phenomena and will arguably need to be made aware of them. Yet, as Cullen and Kuo (2007) have shown, contemporary published EFL course books tend to base their grammatical syllabi predominantly on written grammar, and either ignore distinctive features of spoken grammar altogether or relegate them to incidental points of interest for advanced level students.

LEARNING GRAMMAR

In the previous section, I looked at some of the characteristics of grammar that ought to inform our practice as teachers and designers of pedagogic materials. In the same way, our practice needs to be informed by what we know about how grammar is learned. In this section, I will draw attention to three processes involved in language learning, which have been well established by research studies in second language acquisition, and discuss some of the implications for teaching.

*1. Learners need to be able to **notice** features of grammar in natural, realistic contexts of use.*

Noticing refers to the process of the learner picking out specific features of the target language input which she or he hears or reads, and paying conscious attention to them so that they can be fed into the learning process. This involves making connections between grammatical features noticed and their associated meanings, functions and contexts of use. The importance of noticing is associated in particular with work of Schmidt (1990) who concluded that noticing was the process by which input was converted into intake. While noticing is a natural process of language acquisition that happens through sufficient exposure to language, one of the main purposes of classroom instruction is to speed up this process. This can be done in a variety of ways using classroom techniques which overtly draw the learners' attention to the target forms. These techniques include input enhancement, where the features to be noticed in a text (e.g., a new verb tense form, or comparative forms of adjectives) are made more salient, perhaps by using bold font in a reading text, or through a gap-filling task to accompany a listening text, and input flooding, where lots of examples of the target form are provided in the input (DeCarrico and Larsen-Freeman 2002). In the first case, however, it should be noted that learners cannot attend to meaning and form in the input at the same time (VanPatten 1990), a point that has implications for the sequencing of input processing tasks, while in the latter case, it is important that the texts used for input remain reasonably natural, so that the learners can make the necessary connections between form and function in realistic contexts of language use.

Another aspect of noticing is *noticing the gap* (see Swain 1995, 2000; Thornbury 1997), where learners notice gaps that exist between their current state of knowledge (their interlanguage) and the target language system. They do this by comparing features of their own outpnt with the input they receive, for example through the texts they encounter in class and the feedback they receive from the teacher or fellow students. This process is seen as particularly important for pushing learners' own language developinent forward and has been influential in task-based approaches in teaching grammar where learners compare their output in a written task with that of more proficient users (see "Approaches to Teaching Grammar," below).

*2. Learners need opportunities to **form hypotheses** about how grammar works*

Forming hypotheses about how grammar works is part of the wider cognitive processes of structuring and restructuring (McLaughlin 1990; Batstone 1994a), whereby learners discern patterns in the forms of language they have noticed and form working hypotheses about how the system works, hypotheses which they modify and refine over time. In this way, input becomes internalized as intake. Grammar instruction can accelerate the process by helping the learner form useful working hypotheses through various kinds of consciousness-raising (CR) tasks. CR tasks can take a variety of forms ranging froin metalinguistic questions about underlying rules to exercises where learners apply their understanding by choosing appropriate grammatical forms to complete the gaps in a given text (see Swan and Walters 1997 for examples).

Consciousness raising, "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specif- ically to the formal properties of the target language" (Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith 1985, 274), can be done either inductively, where learners attempt to discover the under- lying rules of grammar themselves, guided by the examples of language data in the input and the teacher's "concept questions," or deductively, where the learners are provided with explicit explanations. Very often a combination of inductive and deductive approaches is used, with the explanation of the rule provided as a confirmatory support to the learner after an initial inductive exploration of the target grammatical structure (see Thornbury 1999). Inductive, discovery-oriented approaches are arguably more in tune with contemporary, learner-centered approaches to teaching and are also claimed by some researchers to aid retention (Ellis 1997), but different approaches are likely to suit different learners and different learning styles. Interestingly, a study by Mohamed (2004) into the preferences of learners at different levels found that the learners showed no strong preference for either inductive or deductive task types, regarding them both as equally useful.

*3. Learners need opportunities to **practice** using grammar in meaningful contexts.*

The role of practice in the learning of grammar has attracted controversy due to its associations with decontextualized, sentence-level pattern practice favored by the audio- lingual method of teaching in the 1950s and 1960s, and which can still be found in exercises in the "practice" stage of the PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) model of teaching, a model which underlies the way grammar is introduced in many contemporary course books (see "Approaches to Teaching Grammar," below). However, while it is probably true that practice of a grammatical pattern before the learners have had sufficient opportunity to understand how it works is of little use for meaningful, long-lasting learning (see Ellis 1995), practice is still an essential element for the process of automatization or proceduralization (see Hedge 2000; Johnson 1994). This is the process of acquiring the ability to access language more or less automatically without undue attention or conscious thought. Automatization is mediated through practice, though not through decontextualized pattern practice, which, as Johnson 1994 argues, is too remote froni the conditions of real life to allow transfer from practice to actual use, but through practice which is "meaningful and engaging" (Larsen-Freeman 2003, 117), or in Batstone's words (1994b, 227), which involves "a genuine focus on meaning and self-expression." This view chimes well with the notion of grammar as a resource for choice, at the service of the user.

In the next section, I shall look at ways in which grammar instruction can be organized in the classroom to facilitate the learning processes discussed above.

APPROACHES TO TEACHING GRAMMAR

Batstone (1994a and 1994b) draws an important distinction between *product* and *process* approaches to teaching grammar, a distinction akin to that made by some SLA researchers between focus on forms (plural) and focus on form (singular) (Fotos 1998; Ellis 2006). In a product (focus on forms) approach, the emphasis is on the component parts of the grammatical system, which are divided up and taught one after another. An item of grammar is preselected for attention in any given lesson, or for practice in a given exercise, and thereby becomes "the target structure" – the object, or product, of learning. In a process approach, on the other hand, the emphasis is on grammar as an element in the process of language use, so that the focus of a given lesson is not on a particular preselected grammatical structure, but on the learner's own skills in applying his or her grammatical repertoire in doing a given task. A "focus on form" stage may occur after the task in response to any gaps or difficulties noted in the learners' performance: it is thus "reactive," rather than preemptive (Doughty and Williams 1998).

A widely practiced product approach to teaching grammar has become known as *PPP*. In this approach, the learning processes of noticing, structuring, and automatizing are developed through an ordered sequence of three stages of *presentation, practice*, and *production*. In the presentation stage, examples of a new grammatical structure are presented in a situation or context (e.g., a short dialogue, a text, an oral demonstration by the teacher) which aims to make the meaning and form clear, and to illustrate a typical use of it. In the subsequent two stages there is a transition from controlled practice exercises (e.g., oral drills, written gap-filling tasks) where the focus is on accurate reproduction of the structure, to freer practice activities (e.g. role play, discussion, guided-writing tasks) with a focus on communicative use of the structure. In this stage, the students are given the opportunity to express their own meanings and ideas, and to combine the newly learned form with other language items they have learned over time. The approach adopts an "accuracy first" model of learning: the learners are expected to achieve a degree of accuracy in forming the structure at the Practice stage before being "let loose" in the production stage, where the focus shifts from accuracy to fluency. In spite of criticisms that PPP is over-controlling, in that it discourages learners from taking risks with language and hence restricts opportunities to "notice the gap," it remains the predominant approach for presenting new grammar in many, if not most, internationally published EFL course book materials, as Nitta and Gardner (2005) have shown.

In a process approach to teaching grammar, the transition from accuracy to fluency is reversed, as is the case in many task-based learning approaches to teaching grammar. The overt focus of grammar typically comes at the end of a lesson or a learning sequence, and arises out of a free production task the learners have done previously, a task in which they use whatever grammatical resources they have at their command, rather than grammatical structures that have been preselected and pre-presented by the teacher. A crucial part of the process for the acquisition of grammar is the post-task stage where learners compare their performance in production with that of more proficient users (e.g., through studying a reading text or a tapescript of a conversation) and as a result notice gaps or shortcomings in their use of language. This then becomes the consciousness-raising stage of the lesson: the teacher's role at this stage is to help draw attention to these gaps by giving corrective feedback with supporting explanation, exemplification, and follow-up practice as required. Tasks that lend themselves to this kind of work are text reconstruction tasks (Thornbury 1997; Storch 1998; Cullen 2008) where learners individually or collaboratively reconstruct a "battered," or reduced, text consisting mainly of lexical items by adding appropriate grammatical features – function words, appropriate verb forms etc. They then compare their texts, first with those of their peers and then with the original text. Such tasks include dictogloss (Wajnryb 1990), where learners note down key words as they listen to a text read aloud before trying to reconstruct it, and grammaticization (Thornbury 2005), where learners map grammar onto "lexicalized" texts, such as newspaper headlines.

It can be seen that a process approach to teaching grammar is more in line with the notion of grammar as a resource for choice, discussed earlier in the chapter, than a product approach, and also with Larsen-Freeman's notion of "grammaring," the skill of using grammatical resources creatively for self-expression. It is also likely to respond more closely to the learner's actual language-learning needs, and to make them more self-aware of gaps in their knowledge and what they need to attend to. However, in spite of these benefits, it is unlikely that an exclusively process-oriented approach would be able to provide the same coverage of grammatical features which a product approach provides through preselection of target structures, and in particular, coverage of those features which learners find they can avoid through circumlocution and substituting other, easier structures. Learners may also need a more product-oriented approach in the initial and early stages of learning in order to build up a base of grammatical forms to communicate with, although Ellis (2006) questions this view and favors a more robustly task-based approach at lower levels. Nevertheless it is probably the case that, as Batstone suggests, "a combination of product and process teaching . . . can give their learners both a focus on specific grammatical forms and opportunities to deploy these forms in language use." (1994a, 99)

TESTING GRAMMAR

When it comes to assessment, the separate testing of grammar, and the identification of specific grammatical items to test, is more consistent with a product approach to teaching than with a process approach, where grammatical ability would be assessed through integrated tests of language skills. In other words, ability to understand, interpret, and use grammar accurately and appropriately would only be assessed in a process approach as part of the overall assessment of the candidate's performance in tasks of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. If grammar is to be separated out for testing, which may be the norm in achievement tests based on syllabi which list the grammatical structures to be taught, it is important, as Hughes (2003, 173) points out, "not to give such components too much prominence at the expense of skills." It is also important, from the point of view of construct and content validity, that the kind of test items we design to assess grammatical competence are consistent with our view of what grammar is and with the kind of tasks and activities we have used to teach it. Thus, in order to reflect the principles outlined in "Learning Grammar," above, it is important that the focus should be on assessing the candidates' ability to use the grammatical items they have learned as a communicative resource. To this end:

a. candidates should be asked to make **choices**, not simply between correct and incorrect forms, but between pragmatically appropriate and inappropriate uses of grammar;

b. these choices should be made in **contexts** of language use: sentence level test items should generally be avoided in favor of the use of complete texts, in which standard testing techniques such gap filling, completion, and multiple choice can be used;

c. the texts to contextualize the target grammar items should be **realistic**, i.e., reflecting the way grammar is used in the real world, and **varied** in terms of text type.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have tried to show how the methods and materials we use for teaching and testing grammar in TESOL are (or should be) intimately connected with, and arise from, our conceptualization of what grammar is and our knowledge of the processes by which it is learned. While the latter is informed by the results of research, including the attested experience of learners and teachers of English as a second language, the former is a more philosophical matter, and is informed by a range of factors including our reading, our discussions with colleagues and our professional experience as language teachers. It is perhaps in the way we think about language, and the role and function of grammar in language, rather than in a specific set of methodological precepts, that the communicative revolution in TESOL of the 1970s and 1980s has had the most significant and lasting impact.

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SECTION 5

MEDIA AND MATERIALS

In this final section of the volume, the focus is on the resources of materials and media that support pedagogical practice and program implementation. Print materials, whether teacher-developed or commercially produced have always played a very important part in any classroom. Currently, technological resources both for content and delivery of language courses are challenging language teaching practitioners to reevaluate in radical ways the way a second language is taught and learned as the chapters in this section highlight.

Chapter 28 focuses attention on advances in materials development for language learning. Tomlinson points to the "dramatic progress" that has been made in materials development, which has become a field of theoretical and practical interest in its own right. He raises a number of issues that are now central to this field, questioning, for example, whether materials development should be driven by principles or by language repertoires, whether materials should focus on predetermined language points or authentic language samples, and whether they should deal with safe or controversial topics. Foregrounding the issues raised in the last two chapters, his final question considers what role technology will play in future materials development.

Chapter 29, by Levy, draws attention to the wide range of technologies now available to second language teachers and learners. Because of the rapidity and diversity informing technological change, he notes, the use of technology is a challenging one for teachers, who must decide which technologies are the most appropriate for their learners and for which purposes. Levy provides a helpful categorization of the range of technologies available to teachers and proposes that, in order to minimize confusion over choice, teachers should select technology resources in relation to the specific language skills, goals, and purposes most appropriate to their learners. As a helpful practical guide for teachers, he concludes the

chapter by discnssing research findings on the frequency of nse of technologies in relation to a particular skill or area.

Whereas, Levy deals with technology choices for learning, in chapter 30 Reinders discusses the use of technology in the delivery of language instruction. He argues that with the increase of blended and online courses, teachers need skills in communicating online with students, developing electronic materials, and assessing students' online work. Importantly, these media of instruction are challenging pedagogical forms of teacher-student communication and giving rise to the need for innovative and creative new forms of virtual classroom interaction. He sees online and blended instruction as increasing instructional flexibility and providing learning opportunities that are not available in traditional classrooms. His chapter includes practical ideas for good practice in online and blended learning.

CHAPTER 28

Materials Development

Brian Tomlinson

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports the recent dramatic progress of materials development, both as a practical undertaking and as an academic field, from being a subsection of methodology to becoming an important field in its own right. It then considers some key issues that currently stimulate debate in the field before concluding with an evaluation of achievements so far plus predictions for future developments.

BACKGROUND

The history of materials development is as old as that of language teaching, but it was not until the mid-1990s that materials development really began to be treated seriously by academics and teacher educators. Before then it was often dismissed as something that practitiouers did or it was treated as a subsection of methodology in which "materials were usually introduced as examples of methods in action rather than as a means to explore the principles and procedures of their development" (Tomlinson 2001, 66). There were a few publications in the 1980s that focused on such issues as materials evaluation and selection but it has been the books of the mid-1990s onwards (e.g., Cunningsworth 1996; Tomlinson 1998a, 2003a, 2008a; Richards 2001; McGrath 2002; McDonough and Shaw 2003; Tomlinson and Masuhara 2004) that have stimulated universities and teacher training institutions to give more time and consideration to materials development. In 1993 Brian Tomlinson founded the international Materials Development Association (MATSDA) to run conferences and workshops and to publish the journal *Folio*, and around that time such associations as JALT in Japan, MICELT in Malaysia, and TESOL in the United States set up materials development special interest groups. Nowadays there are a number of dedicated materials development MAs and most universities and teacher training institutions run materials development modules. Another development has been that PhD students and teachers

are researching factors which contribute to the successful development and exploitation of materials, and the findings of some of these studies are published in Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010).

Nowadays materials development is considered to be both a practical undertaking and a field of academic study. As a practical undertaking it involves the production, evaluation, adaptation, and delivery of materials. As a field it studies the principles and procedures of the design, writing, implementation, and evaluation of materials. "Ideally these two aspects of materials development are interactive in that the theoretical studies inform, and are informed by, the actual development and use of learning materials" (Tomlinson 2001, 66). This is the case in a number of recent publications about materials development in language learning (e.g., Harwood 2010; Mukundan 2009; Tomlinson 2008a, 2010a, 2011a; Tomlinson and Masuhara 2010). All the contributors to these books are both practicing writers of language learning materials and academics theorizing about materials development. And many of them are nonnative speakers of English from countries that are not part of the western world.

KEY ISSUES

SHOULD MATERIALS BE DRIVEN BY REPERTOIRE OR BY PRINCIPLES?

In recent years a number of publications have focused on how materials developers typically write ELT materials. For example, both Hidalgo, Hall and Jacobs (1995) and Prowse (1998) asked numerous authors to detail their typical procedures; Bell and Gower (1998) reflected on their own procedures for writing a course book; Johnson (2003) gave expert writers a materials development task and researched the procedures they used; and Tomlinson (2003c) reviewed the literature on writing ELT materials. This literature reveals that many experienced writers rely ou their intuitions about what "works" and make frequent use of activities from their repertoire that seem to fit with their objectives. Not many writers seem to be actually guided by a prior articulation of learning principles.

The literature does, however, provide some examples of writers who develop materials from a set of principles. For example, iu Hidalgo et al. (1995) there are a number of writers who articulate principled approaches to materials development, especially Hall (1995, 8), who insists that we start by askiug the crucial question, "How do we think people learn languages?" Bell and Gower (1998) articulate principles to help authors make compromises to meet the practical needs of teachers and learners and to match the realities of publishing materials; Maley (1998) makes suggestions for "providing greater flexibility in decisions about coutent, order, pace and procedures" (p. 280); Jolly and Bolitho (1998) advocate a principled framework that involves identificatiou, realization, use, evaluation, and revision; and Tomlinson (1998b) proposes 15 principles for materials development that derive from his second-language acquisition research and experience. As well as reporting on recommended procedures for materials development, McGrath (2002, 152–161) reviews the literature on principled frameworks and he focuses on the theme or topic-based approach, the text-based approach, and the story-line approach. Tomlinson (2003a) contains, for example, chapters on a principled process of materials evaluation that involves turning beliefs into universal principles and profiles into local criteria (Tomlinson 2003b), a principled process for writing a course book (Mares 2003), ways of developing principled frameworks for producing materials (Tomlinson 2003c), creative approaches to writing materials (Maley 2003), and ways of humanizing the course book (i.e., making it of more personal relevance and value to the human beings using it) (Tomlinson 2003d). And Tomlinson (2008b) contains an introductory chapter – "Language Acquisition and

Language Learning Materials" – that proposes ways of applying commonly agreed theories of language acquisition to materials development.

As yet there is still very little literature reporting research results of projects investigating the actual effectiveness of language learniug materials. However, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010) publish the results of research projects from around the world that are attempting to discover how effective certain types of materials are in the learning contexts in which they are being used.

You could argue that the repertoire approach of using again what worked previously makes a lot of sense. But what does "worked" mean? Often it means that the learners enjoyed using the material or that it was easy enough for them to get good marks. But very rarely does "it worked" mean it facilitated language learning. Also, every target group is different and needs materials to be specially developed for it. My position, therefore, is that materials should not be random recreations from repertoire nor clones of previously successful materials. Instead they should be cohereut and principled applications of theories of language acquisition and of what is known about the target context of learning. Writers need to articulate their beliefs about how languages are best acquired and to convert them into universal criteria for the development and evaluation of their materials. These criteria will be relevant for every set of materials that the writers develop. They also need to develop local criteria from their knowledge of the characteristics of the target learning context for a particular set of materials. These criteria should be used in conjunction with universal criteria but will only be relevant for one specific set of materials.

Here are some examples of the universal criteria I use when developing materials:

1. Learners should be exposed to a rich, meaningful, and comprehensible input of language in use.

2. In order for the learners to maximize their exposure to language in use they need to be engaged both affectively and cognitively in the language experience.

3. Learners who achieve positive affect are much more likely to achieve communicative competence than those who do not.

4. L2 language learners can benefit from using those mental resources that they typically utilize when acquiring and using their L1.

5. Language learners can beuefit from noticiug salient features of their input.

6. Learners need opportunities to use language to try to achieve communicative purposes.

For detailed discussion of these principles and for full references see Tomlinson (2008b, 2010, 2011b).

SHOULD MATERIALS BE REALIZED AS TEXTBOOKS?

For more than 30 years there has been discussion about whether or not textbooks are an effective way of delivering language learning materials to learners. Proponents of textbooks claim that the textbook is a cost-effective way of providing the learner with security, system, progress, and revision, and that at the same time it saves the teacher precious time and provides resources to base the lessons on. It also helps administrators to achieve course credibility, to timetable lessons and to standardize teaching in their institutions. Opponents of textbooks ague that textbooks disempower both the teacher and the learners, cannot cater for the actual needs and wants of their users, and can provide only an illusion of system and progress. They also argue that, "a course book is inevitably superficial and reductionist in its coverage of language points and in its provision of language experience . . . it imposes

uniformity of syllabus and approach, and it removes initiative and power from teachers" (Tomlinson, 2001, 67). For discussion of these arguments see, for example, Thornbury and Medding (2001) and Mishan (2005). See also Gray (2010) for a critique of the effects of the global course book as a consumer product.

My view is that a textbook can do all that its proponents say it does, but that unfortunately many commercial textbooks are not engaging or relevant for their users. In order to change this situation publishers would need to take financial risks and develop textbooks that follow principles of language acquisition rather than imitate their best-selling predecessors.

CAN GLOBAL MATERIALS SATISFY LEARNER NEEDS AND WANTS OR SHOULD ALL MATERIALS BE LOCAL?

Most best-selling materials are global materials – that is, materials designed for use with any learner at a particular level anywhere. Obviously such materials provide publishers with the best opportunities for profit as their sales potential is great. But can they provide all their users (or even one user) with what they need and want? In my experience of language classrooms in over 60 countries, global textbooks attract teachers and learners everywhere because of their high production values and their face validity, but they inevitably fail to engage learners anywhere. How can materials which have been designed to meet the generalized needs and wants of virtual groups of learners meet the needs and wants of actual learners who are learning English in a specific environment with specific objectives? Increasingly, large institutions and Ministries of Education are realizing that they can satisfy their learners more effectively by developing materials specifically for them. Recently I have been involved in many projects to develop local materials. For example, with teachers as material writers at Bilkent University in Ankara and at Sultan Qaboos University in Muscat and for the Research Bureau in Guangzhou, the Ministry of Education in Bulgaria, the Ministry of Education in Ethiopia, and the Ministry of Education in Namibia. The project in Namibia was the most exciting and I believe it should be the blueprint for the development of materials on a national scale. Thirty selected teachers came together in Windhoek to make use of already completed student and teacher questionnaires, a library of potentially engaging texts, and a flexible and principled text-driven framework (Tomlinson 2003c). In six days they had completed the first draft of what was to prove a very popular textbook for secondary school students.

SHOULD TEXTBOOKS BE DEVELOPED AS SCRIPTS OR AS RESOURCES?

Most textbooks seem to be designed to be used as scripts. They tell both the learners and the teachers what to do, when to do it, and how to do it. This probably appeals to most administrators (who are usually the people who decide what books to buy) as it can help them standardize. It probably also appeals to many teachers as it plans their lessons for them. However, textbooks designed as scripts to follow are aimed at idealized groups of stereotypical learners and cannot possibly match the needs and wants of any class of actual learners. There is some evidence that confident teachers treat textbooks as a resource rather than a script regardless of their design (e.g., Lee and Bathmaker 2007) but there is also evidence that less confident teachers regard international textbooks as superior and follow them as scripts (e.g., Zacharias 2005). There is an argument, therefore, that textbooks need to be designed as resources to be made selective use of by teachers.

The reality is that every textbook needs adapting every time it is used, because every group of learners is different from every other and has different needs and wants. There are a number of publications suggesting ways of adapting textbooks (e.g., Saraceni, 2003;

Tomlinson and Masuhara 2004; McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara forthcoming). They suggest ways of adding to, deleting from, modifying and supplementing textbooks to make them more suitable for the class they are being used with. There are also a number of publications suggesting ways of localizing, personalizing, and humanizing textbooks (e.g., Tomlinson 2003d). It would be perfectly possible for textbook writers to make use of these publications to design their textbooks so that it is easy for the teachers and the learners to use them as resources and to adapt them in principled and effective ways.

SHOULD MATERIALS BE WRITTEN TO FOCUS ON PREDETERMINED TEACHING POINTS, OR SHOULD THEY MAKE USE OF AUTHENTIC TEXTS AND TASKS?

Much has been written on the issue of authenticity, and some experts consider that it is useful to focus attention on a feature of a language by removing distracting difficulties and complexities from sample texts. By focusing on the target feature in easy-to-understand examples such materials claim to make the learning task simpler. The argument for authentic materials (i.e., those not specifically developed for language teaching) is that they expose learners to language as it is typically used and that they prepare them for the reality they will encounter as users of the language. My position is that a contrived focus might be of some value but that exposure to language in authentic use is essential. For other thoughts on the value of authentic materials see Tomlinson (2001), Day (2003), Mishan (2005), and Gilmore (2007). For proposals that learners should be exposed to samples of authentic language selected from corpora of language in use see Tan (2002) and O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007). See also Tomlinson (2009, 2010b) for discussion of some of the limitations of corpora and for suggestions for supplementing them with author, teacher, and learner investigation of authentic texts.

SHOULD MATERIALS BE LEARNING OR ACQUISITION FOCUSED?

Learning-focused materials provide learners with deliberate and explicit teaching of discrete target features of the language. Acquisition-focused materials provide learners with such language experiences as reading stories, performing plays, and completing tasks in order to help them acquire language from comprehensible input and motivated use. Proponents of a focus on acquisition (e.g., Tomlinson 2008b) argue that affective and cognitive engagement while experiencing language iu use is the key to effective language acquisition, but most course books continue to cater for a perceived need for systematic presentation of discrete learning points (Tomlinson et al. 2001; Masuhara et al. 2008). The answer, in my view, is to design textbooks so that they provide learners with engaging language experiences but also ask them to reflect on those experiences and to analyze them in order to make discoveries about language use.

SHOULD MATERIALS BE SAFE OR PROVOCATIVE?

Commercial publishers understandably play safe when publishing global course books. They make sure that they avoid texts, photos, and activities that might cause offence, disturbance, or embarrassment. In doing so they make sure that the institutions and the teachers who use their materials are safe from accusation and that they themselves are safe from prosecution. Unfortunately though, this caution often leads to the publication of books that are sanitized, bland, and boring, in which harmony, cooperation, and agreement prevail, and in which the learners are insulted by the portrayal of an unreal EFL world where fear, danger, sickness, satire, conflict, criticism, disagreement, and even apprehension do

not exist. This means that the learners can spend an entire semester not laughing, not being moved, not thinking, and not being stimulated at all. In my experience, ministries of education are often flexible and open-minded when approached for permission to include provocative texts in local course books. In Namibia, for example, we got permission to include in our secondary school textbook texts relating to marital violence, to the supernatural, to the dangers of tourism, and to drug abuse – topics not normally found in global course books. The result was that the students appreciated being asked to think about realities in their world and the textbook was very popular.

WHAT ROLES CAN NEW TECHNOLOGIES PLAY IN FACILITATING LANGUAGE ACQUISITION?

For a long time now technology has played an important role in supplementing course books and in some countries many language learners spend more time working at a computer, watching a television screen, or listening to a cassette than working with a book. Recently new media, such as chat lines, Facebook and other social networking cites, blogs, virtual worlds, and cell phones have started to be used not only as ways to transmit language learning materials but as means for providing opportunities for communicative interaction.

The advantages of making use of technology can include:

- the motivational and experiential benefits of multimodal representation of the language;
- opportunities for listening to and observing proficient language users communicating;
- opportunities for revisiting language activities and experiences;
- opportunities for personalization of the course by the learners;
- opportunities for interaction at a distance;
- a match with the expectations of new generations of language learners.

Many people would also argue, though, that many materials that use new technologies

- are too expensive;
- are dependant on proper maintenance of equipment;
- just repeat the activities of textbooks in less effective ways;
- dehumanize language learning by reducing human interaction;
- are driven by the possibilities of the technology rather than by principles of pedagogy.

Most of the above complaints seem to be about the abuse of new technologies rather than their potential and it is likely that in the future technology-driven materials will be developed which are more ecouomical, humanistic, principled, and effective. See Derewianka (2003), Kervin and Derewianka (2011), and Motteram (2011) for more iuformation about the potential benefits of electromic materials.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined some of the issues that make materials development such an interestiug field to work in. For discussion of some of the other issues see Tomliuson (2001, 2010a). Many of these issues may never be resolved but one thing that is sure is that the demand to learn languages and the use of new technologies in developing language learning

materials will continue to increase. It will be interesting to see if the content of materials will become more authentic and if their activities will become more engaging.

I am often critical of the way many commercial materials pretend to match developments in research while actually remaining the same. For example, a blurb proclaims that the book offers rich opportunities for authentic communication but the units are restricted to the same old presentation / practice / production approach with the emphasis on controlled practice (Tomlinson et al. 2001; Masuhara et al. 2008). However I would like to celebrate many of the achievements made in materials development in the last 20 years, and I want to stress that

- experiential materials development courses in universities and teacher training institutions have not only led to more principled and effective materials, but they have increased the confidence, self-esteem, and professional competence of teachers too;
- the recent acceptance of materials development as an academic field of study has led to a massive increase in the number of graduate students researching the effectiveness of different types of materials (e.g., Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2010);
- the increase in academic research has been paralleled by an increase in publisher research (most of which is confidential and unpublished);
- publishers have continued to produce and promote excellent series of extensive readers to supplement their course books.
- many institutions around the world have developed excellent in-house materials (Kanda University in Japan being an outstanding example of an institution which has developed a self-access learning centre from a principled mix of commercial and teacher made materials).

Over a decade ago I wrote a chapter titled "Materials Development" (Tomlinson 2001). In it I predicted that future materials would place more emphasis on "helping learners achieve effect" (p. 70), would cater more for experiential learners, and would contain more engaging content. Sadly, none of these predictions have come true (except in some exceptional local projects). However, I was right in predicting that materials would take more account of the grammar of speech, would make more effort to present English as an international language, and would make much more use of the Internet, both as a source and as a means of delivery. These days, also, many ministries of education and large institutions are publishing their own materials. These have the disadvantage very often of not looking as professional and appealing as the global course books but the considerable advantage of being able to explicitly relate to the learning environment of their users (Tomlinson 2003d). My vision of the future is that more and more institutions and countries will decide that global course books cannot meet their needs and will develop their own locally appropriate materials. The commercial publishers will then move away from publishing global course books and will instead concentrate on making available paper, multimedia, and Web resources for teachers to select from. Also, more and more learners will make use of the opportunities provided by new technologies to learn English for and by themselves.

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CHAPTER 29

Technology in the Classroom

Mike Levy

INTRODUCTION

In the language classroom, aud in the wider world, our students now regularly engage with a very diverse range of technologies. In a detailed survey of just two students, Conole (2008, 126) found over 30 distinct technologies in use both for study and contact with friends and family. E-mail, MSN, Word, BlackBoard, and the phone performed central roles, then progressively a wide range of technologies were used with decreasing frequency as the purpose became more specific (e.g., an online dictionary). It is the sheer number of technologies in use, combined with the multiplicity of ways in which they enable and shape communication, that lies at the core of the challenge for language teachers and learners today. In other words, which technology do we choose for which purpose? To answer this question we first ueed to understand what we mean by technology. In this chapter, and for the purposes of language learning, it is helpful to think about technology at five levels, moving from the material level through to software applications, and from the general to the particular.

BACKGROUND

The most obvious meaning of technology includes those objects we can see and touch. At their most concrete, these technologies inclnde the bell phone, the digital camera, the television, the voice recorder, the digital music player, the memory stick or USB drive, and of course the computer, be it a desktop, laptop, netbook, or tablet. Next, in the most encompassing, multipurpose software category, are the learning management systems currently in use such as Blackboard, commonly found in universities, and eduKate and Scholaris, increasingly used in K–12 schools. Then at level three there are the technology applications and tools: Included here are computer-mediated communication (CMC) software tools, such as e-mail, chat, blogs, and videoconferencing, as well as specific applications such as

Word, PowerPoint, and Internet Explorer, and editing tools for Web design and sound editing such as FrontPage and Audacity. Next is the resource level, which covers technologies that enable access to authentic materials, such as online newspapers, and the wide variety of dedicated Web sites for language learning (e.g., Linguascope). Finally, at level five, are the component technologies that assist or support the functionality of a "parent" program or application in some way. Good examples are spell checkers and grammar checkers and electronic dictionaries, and also other supporting tools and resources that are attached to, or part of larger applications. All these technologies are currently being used in language learning, and the examples that follow in this chapter indicate widespread technology use at all five levels.

Clearly, the language teacher can easily become discouraged by the challenge of dealing with such a wide range of technologies. A helpful way to manage this complexity is to consider technologies in relation to specific language skills and language areas. This approach is helpful partly because it is familiar to language teachers, but especially because it is a useful way to think about and match the capabilities of a particular technology with a specific language learning goal or purpose. This approach is taken here. The order and the length of each section broadly reflect research findings on the frequency of use of technologies in relation to the particular skill or area. The coverage is necessarily short, but key references and some representative examples are included in each case.

KEY ISSUES

THE LANGUAGE SKILLS AND AREAS

LISTENING

A decade ago it was much more difficult to manage and use technology to support the development of the listening skill. However, digitized audio and video has now made its way into all aspects of educational computing. In listening, learners initially need to distinguish and learn the sounds of the L2, the prosody of the language, including intonation, rhythm, and stress, in order to extract meaning. They need to sample and understand authentic, natural speech in a variety of contexts to the point where they can identify patterns and predict what comes next without necessarily having to hear it (Frommer 2006, 68). Technologies for listening have been applied to address these learning goals to facilitate segmentation, repetition, speed regulation, interactivity, and links to further information.

The current generation of software allows enormous flexibility in this regard. Readily available programs such as Windows Media Player enable the learner to listen and replay sound and video files in flexible ways for learning, by adjusting the speed to slow down the stream of language or to pause and repeat key segments, for example. Sound files may be manually or automatically downloaded to a computer or portable media player for later study and use through file transfer, podcasts, Web casts, and so on. Technologies for listening include programs such as Audacity to edit sound files, or embed audio or video files in other programs (e.g., in Word or PowerPoint). Also widely used are YouTube and video clips, the use of MP3 files to capture and transfer listening materials, Windows Media Player, and a number of Web sites for foreign language learning. On the Internet, streaming audio and video allows the learner access to a vast quantity of audio material of all kinds. More traditional technologies like the tape recorder and television are also being utilized – although less frequently – alongside numerous other modern technologies and activities (e.g., Skype, iTunes, Puzzle Busters, games).

A technology that has much potential for the development of listening skills is the podcast (Rosell-Aguilar 2007). A podcast is an audio or video file that is "broadcast" via the Internet, with sound or sound and video files that are "pushed" to subscribers, often at regular intervals. In current work in L2 learning, a particular focus is upon successfully designing the structure and content of a podcast suite and integrating it effectively into the curriculum. It is the weighting and sequencing of subcomponents that is of particular interest, because this profile reflects the mix of content with pedagogy within each podcast.

VOCABULARY

The range of technologies in use for vocabulary learning is broad and includes courseware (commercial and self-developed), online activities, dictionaries, and corpora and concordancing (Stockwell 2007). Much vocabulary learning software makes use of the simple keyword hyperlink, which typically connects the user directly to a dictionary definition, a translation, or an image. Multimedia annotations incorporating audio and video are increasingly common.

Beyond simple links to resources and mechanical practice, L2 vocabulary learning requires systematic recycling of new items at optimal intervals, recontextualization, memory support to promote recall, and production and feedback opportunities. Computer-based lexical activities are being developed using carefully formulated design principles drawn from insights from current research in cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics. Such work is aimed at engaging learners in deep processing and in furthering their understanding of the layers of meanings, especially those associated with high-frequency vocabulary having different meanings in different contexts.

A valuable example of a vocabulary learning site is the Compleat Lexical Tutor (www.lextutor.ca/), which illustrates well the breadth of online vocabulary applications that have been created. Another useful vocabulary learning tool is WordChamp (www.wordchamp.com), which can be activated to apply to any selected Web page. When the user clicks on any word, the dictionary function provides a standard definition, an audio pronunciation of the word, and a translation into another language, as required. The system also enables the user to build personalized wordlists. Vocabulary learning has also been a focus for developing applications and materials for the cell phone (Kennedy and Levy 2008). Like the computer, the cell phone is a multifunction device, and with recent innovations such as the iPhone and other smart phones, it is to be expected that further applications will quickly emerge to address other areas and skills of language learning.

WRITING

Word processing programs have undoubtedly become one of the most widely accepted means for writing. They facilitate the flexible manipulation of text, enable drafting and redrafting to occur easily, and the eventual product may be presented to a professional standard (see Pennington 2004). However, modern, multimedia word processing-software offers much more. Modern word processors and presentation tools are multifunctional and can be used to do much more than text processing: for example, they can easily incorporate audio and video files, comments, and links to language learning resources, thus extending their original functionality and making the application potentially more useful to the language learner.

A key differentiating factor among the technologies used for writing hinges on the level of formality expected or required. A number of writing tools are readily available for more personal, informal kinds of writing. A blog, which is basically a Web page with regular diary or journal entries, using text, audio or video, fits well into this category. Here generally, a particular focus is on self-expression, creativity, ownership, and community building. For example, Miceli and Visocnik Murray (2008) describe a class blog called *La Mensa* (the cafeteria) that was created using the blog function in Lotus Notes as an integral part of a third-year Italian course, Italy through Food. The pedagogical goals for the blog

were to extend time on task outside of class by providing an arena for further practice of informal writing and reading skills, together with the equally important aim of providing a forum for sharing of information, opinions, personal reflections, and analysis.

Numerous other technological tools have been employed in L2 writing. These include "student-designed webpages, photo-editing, PowerPoint presentations, weblogs, and wikis" (Murray and Hourigan 2006). Many of these technologies relate to the online construction of texts (word and image), social networking, and electronic learning environments built around Web 2.0.

READING

Chun (2006) describes the technologies that are important for reading and includes "electronic dictionaries, software that provides textual, contextual, and / or multimedia annotations, computer-based training programs that aim to accelerate and automatize word recognition, Web-based activities that seek to teach a variety of components (from text structures and discourse organization to reading strategies), and the Internet as a source of materials for extensive reading" (p. 69). Of course, there is potentially a mass of authentic reading materials available on the World Wide Web. Also, Web sites such as Linguascope (www.linguascope.com) offer a very wide variety of online materials suitable for reading activities.

With electronic dictionaries, research findings have shown that even when a variety of information sources are made available, most students opt for simple definitions, or translations, or both (Laufer and Hill 2000). Chun (2006) observed that the "pedagogical issue is then to determine whether and how to encourage readers to use the multimedia glosses available to them, particularly when vocabulary acquisition is one of the concomitant goals of reading" (p. 78). Making multiple annotation types available is one thing, getting learners to use them and to use them appropriately is quite another. Here learner training is the key, and the skills learners require will vary according to their preferred learning style and proficiency level.

SPEAKING

Of the language skills, attending to the oral skill has perhaps attracted the most diverse range of technologies and approaches. Broadly speaking, the relevant technologies enable the computer to mediate communication via voice, to transmit audio or video through audio- and video-conferencing of some description, or to facilitate user participation and interaction via voice chat (and text chat), audio blogs, or voiced bulletin boards. Learners may also send or post sound files using voiced e-mail, or simply have a conversation via a VoIP such as Skype. The language learning problems being addressed concern the need for oral production, interaction, and dialogue via audio, or practice of the oral skill in conditions where access to conversational partners in the L2 may be limited. On the other hand, limitations typically concern the quality and speed of transmission, and generally the technologies involved require relatively high-performance technologies and applications and a robust infrastructure.

Recent options for spoken interaction online involve various forms of audio interaction such as audio blogs and voice e-mail. Hsu, Wang, and Comac (2008) used audio blogs to "manage oral assignments, to interact with learners, and to evaluate performance ontcomes" (p. 181). Oral assignments were recorded through cell phones, and the audio blog was used to submit and archive oral assignments.

GRAMMAR

In the early days of technology use in language learning, grammar-oriented tutorial exercises were thought to be one of the most valuable applications. Discrete-point activities for grammar and vocabulary learning practice are common and have been employed for many years. The well-known Hot Potatoes software (hotpot.uvic.ca/), which includes six straightforward tutorial activities for vocabulary and grammar learning, is a good example. Although the six activities are discrete and conceptualized largely around the word and the sentence, which some teachers may consider a limitation, there is a considerable amount of flexibility provided within the default formats, such as the option of including a simple Flash audio player to play sound files to complement the question format and feedback options.

In recent years, sentence-based, grammar-oriented tasks created by teachers for their own learners using commercially produced software or authoring software remain a component of many language learning programs, although generally they are now more firmly embedded in a communicative context. While there are many exciting prospects for more sophisticated programs for grammar learning (Heift and Schulze 2007), they do not yet appear to have reached the wider language education market, and it is fair to say that most grammar programs are still somewhat basic in the ways they process learner input, diagnose errors, and provide feedback.

PRONUNCIATION

In an overview of computer-aided pronunciation training (CAPT) pedagogy, Pennington (1999) assessed its potential, its limitations, and likely directions for the future. Although this work is a little dated now, its insights and conclusions remain valid. The strengths of CAPT included the ability to motivate and to raise awareness of individual difficulties using technologies that were quick, precise, tuned to the individual learner, and highly salient; the main limitation concerned the fact that "certain aspects of pronunciation do not show up well in the visual representations of the speech analysis such as (simplified or modified) waveforms and so cannot generally be trained by such representations" (Pennington, p. 431). Turning a simple display into an effective tool for learning is by no means straightforward, and in some ways CAPT software is still a matter of potential rather than realization. Nonetheless, progress is being made in the design of pronunciation software either by targeting the design to a homogeneous student group (L1 or L2), or by more nuanced approaches to input evaluation and feedback (see Carnegie Speech, www.carnegiespeech. com/).

DISCUSSION

A number of key issues emerge from the brief, preceding analysis of the language skills and areas and their attendant technologies. These relate to the importance of the following:

- understanding the in-class / out-of-class relationship: time on task;
- integrating the elements into an effective, fully functioning whole, including assessment;
- the pivotal role of the language teacher.

Compared to recent times, in the early days of technology use in language learning it was considerably easier to draw a line between the language classroom and out-of-class work using new technologies. Typically, out-of-class materials would be available in the form of software preloaded onto computers in the computer laboratory, or delivered a little more flexibly through a floppy disk, CD, or videodisk containing teacher-developed or commercial, third-party materials. Again, typically, the technologies were available to the language learners only outside the classroom and the content tended to be separate from the work in the class. Today, the in-class / out-of-class relationship is much more fluid and

complex. As described in this chapter, a wide range of technologies is now available both within classrooms and beyond them. Learners may access the Internet in class, just as they would from the library or from home. Meanwhile, teacher and learner expertise in new technologies is very high compared to earlier times.

These developments lead to new and different conceptions of the in-class / out-of-class relationship, both in terms of teacher roles and materials development. Out-of-class work via informed technology use allows for an extension of class contact time into out-of-class time, and thereby provides extra time on task beyond what is possible in a limited number of classroom contact hours – especially extra practice at macro-skills, and extra contact with appropriate material for exploring linguistic and cultural content. This has been increasingly important in recent years as class sizes have increased and contact hours decreased.

An important way to move the use of technology in the classroom beyond novelty and toward integration is to build technology use into assessment and evaluation. Of the language teachers who are using new technologies for assessment and testing, there are many creative examples and a wide variety of test types, technologies, and strategies, usually corresponding with a particular language skill. These include photo stories, PowerPoint for oral presentations, listening / reading items from Internet sources, Web-based assignments, MP3-based exercises for listening assessment, student production of audio or video slideshows, and podcasting tasks as a speaking assignment.

Also, as noted earlier, a number of teachers use participation rates in blogs or discussion forums as an assessable component for a course. A good example is the Italian blog mentioned earlier. Here, the students' participation in the blog was assessed in terms of frequency of contribution and quality of content, but not accuracy or complexity of language. Each student was expected to make two, major, thread-initiating posts during the semester and also to comment on a regular basis in other threads, i.e., those initiated by other students and those initiated weekly by the teachers on various themes relating to class discussions. Only a small amount of class time was necessary to dedicate to the blog, to provide basic training in using the tool and to show the students around the various sections, thus motivating students and, again, extending time on task.

CONCLUSION

As described in the introduction, the contemporary context for language teaching and learning is complex and challenging. It requires much of the language teacher to successfully integrate the elements into an effective, fully functioning whole. Like the conductor of an orchestra, the language teacher has to be able to understand and assess the varied contributions of the elements and contrive to enable them to work together effectively. This requires an intimate knowledge of the students, the curricula goals, and the strengths and limitations of contributing technologies. This is possible, if the teacher keeps foremost in mind pedagogical goals and a step-by-step approach to the introduction of new technologies and practices.

It is also important to remember that the introduction of new technologies precipitate change. By way of example, in relation to the blog for Italian described earlier, to operate successfully, the development of the blog required a sustained commitment week by week by both the teachers and students. Contributions to the blog were also made inside and outside of scheduled class hours. Such was the power and penetration of the blog and the processes that were generated by such technology-aware teachers that on completion of this course the teachers reached the conclusion that the course simply could not have been conceived without the blog. In other words, the introduction of a new technology into the classroom – together with appropriate materials and a detailed, well-informed pedagogy – led

to the whole concept of the "language classroom" being revisited. In this example, and others like it, lay both the challenge and the value of using new technologies in language learning.

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CHAPTER 30

Online and Blended Instruction

Hayo Reinders

INTRODUCTION

Blended and online courses involve the use of technology for the delivery of language instruction. Both have been shown to place considerable practical and pedagogical demands on teachers. One obvious difference with classroom teaching is the (increased) use of technology. Teachers need to master the tools for communicating with students online, developing electronic materials, and assessing students' online work. Perhaps more importantly, at the pedagogical level online instruction requires the ability to observe and direct classroom interaction and group dynamics from a distance. Monitoring student engagement, placing students in virtual pairs or groups, and giving feedback are only some of the aspects of language instruction that can be quite different, and challenging, online. More broadly speaking, blended and online instruction offer potential for a greater focus on the learner, and a change in the role of the teacher to one of a facilitator of learning both inside and outside of the classroom. Online and blended instruction can increase opportunities for flexible learning, with the delivery of instruction and further learning opportunities at any time and the potential for increased self-directed learning. But the realization of this potential depends on the ability of teachers to draw on the pedagogical advantages of these particular learning contexts, while avoiding their pitfalls. In this chapter we look at current thinking and best practice in online and blended learning.

BACKGROUND

Blended and online learning have been used in language education since the arrival of the Internet, but have gained dramatically in popularity in recent years because of the widespread availability of computers and – crucially – faster Internet access, making the real-time use of multimedia possible. Sometimes the term *blended learning* is used to describe the use of different approaches to teaching within one course (White 2003), but

generally (and in this chapter) it is used to refer to the combination of face-to-face and online teaching. Similarly, blended learning is sometimes used to describe classroom teaching that uses technology (such as an interactive whiteboard) but here we focus on online delivery. The previous chapter deals with the broader use of technology in computer-aided language learning (CALL). Blended learning thus sits on a continuum from less to more inclusion of online delivery, with purely online courses delivering all instruction online (see figure 30.1).

Face-to-Face	Blended	Online
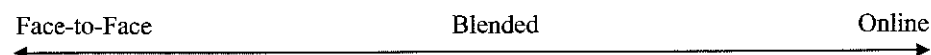
Figure 30.1 Use of technology

Online learning is not necessarily the same as distance learning. Although distance education can be delivered entirely online, other forms of instruction and communication are possible (and in many countries are still the norm), such as through printed self-study materials, the use of audio CDs, and communication via mail. Another difference is that distance education takes place away from the host institution, whereas in online instruction this is not necessarily the case. Unlike in distance education, students may all be local to the institution and may even participate in the online class from within the institution. They are certainly likely to use central facilities such as libraries and to meet other students in person.

In the 1990s high hopes were expressed for online instruction. Some predicted the end of classroom teaching and the delivery of all language teaching online, enabling everyone to get access to education cheaply, easily, and from anywhere. It soon became clear, however, that in reality there were many challenges, both technical as well as pedagogical, as a result of which blended learning became more popular as a way to draw on the strengths of both face-to-face and online instruction. This also meant that the initial link between online and flexible or open learning became less clear. Although online instruction can be used to deliver courses flexibly, for example by allowing participants to learn at their own pace and by allowing them to choose different course modules based on individual needs, it is probably now more common to see online instruction delivered as a "regular" language course, with a set curriculum, led by a teacher, and delivered within a given time frame. Blended learning, in particular, is now a regular part of language classrooms around the world.

Many reasons are given for the use of online instruction but an important part of the rationale is the increased opportunity for exposure to (authentic input in) the target language and opportunities for interaction. Recent research has reiterated the importance of giving learners ample access to the target language (e.g., Ellis 2002a, 2002b). Online instruction can offer this, especially in foreign language learning contexts, for example, by building on authentic materials available on the Internet and delivered in the context of task-based instruction (for an investigation of the relationship between task-based language teaching and technology, see Thomas and Reinders 2010). Similarly, the roles of output (Swain 1985) and interaction (Long 1996) have been shown to be crucial in the development of L2 competency. Computer-mediated communication (CMC) has been shown to be beneficial in encouraging communication between language learners and to have a number of benefits over face-to-face contexts, such as the opportunity for the development of intercultural communicative competence (Peterson 2010). In addition to these pedagogical benefits, blended and online instruction can allow for a degree of flexibility in the delivery, and as such can offer practical advantages for students who may be unable to attend classes in situ or at fixed times. One possible effect of this is that by encouraging learners to work more with other learners, and possibly without the direct or constant intervention of the teacher, blended and online learning can help to foster learner autonomy, or at least to make learners aware of the opportunities for continued (self-)study after completion of the course. Finally, the use of online technologies has been shown to be a motivator for many students. Although it is not clear to what extent this is as a result of a novelty effect that will wear off as the use of technology becomes more commonplace, but at least the use of online instruction allows teachers to choose a delivery format that is more in line with learners' expectations and the ways in which they are likely to use the language outside the classroom (Benson and Reinders 2011).

The challenge for blended and online instruction is to establish best practice, based on research into how learners learn online and how teachers teach online. We will now look at the different approaches to blended and online instruction.

KEY ISSUES

DELIVERY FORMATS

There are different options for including an online component into an existing course. These range from the occasional use of online resources to the delivery of (part of) the course online. Many textbooks include supplementary materials that students can complete in their own time and several publishers produce online repositories that can be used as stand-alone materials or as part of a course. Building on materials that are linked with the classroom textbook has the advantage that there is a continuity between what the students do in class and online. Well-designed materials encourage students to expand on what has been covered online and provide the necessary scaffolding for further independent exploration of the language. Many materials, however, are more limited in scope and simply offer additional practice materials. In this case, teachers will have to create their own materials, or devise tasks that require interaction with real-life resources, such as, for example, Web quests (Godwin-Jones 2004).

A common way to include an online component in a blended course is by using computer-mediated communication (CMC) to encourage interaction in the target language. Learners in the course can be paired or grouped and given specific tasks or more general guidelines for interaction. Similarly, learners can be encouraged to communicate with native speakers to further practice the language. CMC can be done through text chatting, or by using voice (and video). For many years text chatting was the most widely used technology, and a substantial body of research exists to show that it significantly increases student participation, that it lowers anxiety (most likely because it is perceived to be more anonymous and thus less threatening), and increases motivation (Kötter 2003). Studies such as those by Chun (1994) and Smith (2003) have also shown that the type of interaction in a chat environment can lead to instances of negotiation of meaning and focus on form, which have been shown to be beneficial for L2 acquisition. Recently, the use of voice communication has become common, especially through the use of VoIP (voice over internet protocol) applications such as Skype. With such programs now becoming available on mobile phones, the opportunities for spoken interaction between learners, even those located in different countries, becomes more feasible.

Materials, tasks, and communication tools can be made available through virtual learning environments, or VLEs. Many institutions use VLEs such as Blackboard or Moodle and make these available to students. Such programs make it easy for teachers to monitor students' participation and to give feedback. Recently, more informal tools that emphasize "horizontal" communication and learner participation, such as social networking sites like Facebook and multi-user virtual environments like Second Life, are starting to be used as

ways of motivating students and to encourage them to actively contribute to the online course community. A detailed description is beyond the scope of this chapter but such programs do seem to offer particularly accessible ways of including an online component into a course (Thomas 2009).

BEST PRACTICE IN ONLINE INSTRUCTION

All of the delivery formats mentioned above have in common that they place certain demands on teachers that are not normally found in "traditional" classrooms. One obvious skill set teachers will need to have is to be able to use the technology effectively. This applies at the practical level, in terms of the ability to use computers and software, but also, and perhaps more importantly, in terms of the ability to find appropriate online materials. The textbook used in class may come with a supplementary Web site, and it is the teacher's job to determine the relevance and appropriacy of that resource. Another skill is the ability to find *opportunities* for learning and teaching online. What is the best technology for the pedagogic goal at hand? Should use be made of oral or written communication tools? Of synchronous or asynchronous communication? What is the best tool for the job? In many cases the tools may be there but the teacher will need to find ways to package them together with appropriate instructions, activities, and support: What is the best combination and how can they be best put together? Questions such as this have recently been investigated more explicitly (Hubbard and Levy 2006). Clearly, the practical and the pedagogical soou overlap and we therefore now consider the specific *teaching* skills that are needed online.

One starting point is to look at how teachers and students themselves experience online instruction and to identify key skills from this. A number of studies have found (cf. Mechaca and Bekele 2008) that teaching online is perceived by many teachers to be exciting and frustrating at the same time. Technical problems (poor computer facilities, unreliable Internet connections, poor IT support) are a common concern, but many teachers also feel ill-prepared for relinquishing some of the comfort and control that a familiar classroom offers. Useful insights also come from the end-users, the students who participate in online courses (White 2003, chap. 5). Students commonly report a sense of isolation, eveu loneliness, when working online without direct contact with other students. Clearly, teachers have an important role to establish and maintain group dynamics (see below). Students also frequently report finding it difficult to work without clear guidelines. Tasks that may seem exciting and motivating to the teacher, perhaps especially those that ask students to interact with native speakers, can be daunting to learners, unless sufficient scaffolding takes place and students feel they are supported throughout. This also helps to mitigate a further problem, which is the (perceived) need to maintain greater self-discipline in online study. The greater flexibility and independence students have on the one hand, may, without proper preparation and guidance, become a liability to learning.

From the above information, it is clear that teachers need certain skills to successfully teach online. Many of these relate to supporting the learning process and establishing and encouraging participation in an online community. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, one rationale for language teaching online is the opportunity it offers for interaction, either between learners, or between learners and members of the target language community. It is crucial, then, for teachers to know how to encourage this communication. Simply creating an online forum or setting up a discussion group has been shown not to be successful (Mason 1998). Learners need to understand what is expected of them in terms of the topic, the type of language, its purpose, and the amount and frequency with which to post. Writing or speaking activities that do not build on the available resources online or make some real-world connections are less likely to be motivating to students, and are less likely to be successful (Reeder 2010).

Online interaction is less likely where learners do not feel they are part of a community and do not feel comfortable communicating. An important role for the teacher is to create a sense of community, which has been shown to correlate highly with student achievement (Brown 2001). In blended learning this may be easier as students know each other from class, but in all cases, group dynamics can change dramatically online. Shy learners may become vocal and confident ones disappear altogether. Managing group dynamics online is a delicate task that involves taking into account the social and affective aspects of learning, and how these differ between the physical and the virtual domain. This involves a certain amount of learner training as well; no matter how tech savvy, not all students are naturally good at *learning* online, especially not with and from others (Pegrum 2009). Another way to ensure student participation is to create tasks that *require* collaboration to be completed, such as information gap or opinion gap activities. Although each context is different, a general guideline for teachers is to be active (plan ahead, prepare the online component of your course), proactive (notice problems early on), and present (be online frequently and be visible: post, reply, communicate).

The presence of the teacher is a key characteristic of successful online interaction. Learners should not simply be left to themselves but be encouraged, supported, and where helpful, directly taught. Online interaction requires a great deal of monitoring on the part of the teacher, and because signals that may help to identify problems early on in class are absent or less visible (students showing up late, not contributing to class discussions), it is important to have mechanisms in place to know when to intervene (for example, by counting the number of blog posts or discussion threads a student has replied to). Related to monitoring is the topic of feedback. Because the teacher is not as visible online, it is easy for learners to feel as if they have been abandoned. Frequent, individualized, and detailed feedback is as important online as it is in the classroom (if not more so). It is also important to consider the format of the feedback; mostly, feedback online consists of written comments (either though posts or chat). Different learners respond differently to different modes of feedback, and it is useful to combine oral as well as written feedback, in a variety of forms (e.g., a one-to-one Skype conversation to discuss overall progress, a reply to a blog post with a brief evaluative comment, a "thumbs up" [the "like" option] on Facebook, etc).

What the above implies is that teaching online involves a great deal of *support* and *facilitation* of learning, perhaps even more than direct instruction. The benefits of online delivery are mainly in the area of language *use*. Although explicit teaching, controlled practice, and exercises can certainly be presented online, the added value over classroom instruction is the ability to encourage learners to learn by doing, to learn from others, and to explore opportunities *outside* the immediate pedagogical environment offered by the course. The ability to coach learners, to encourage risk-taking, to make them feel supported, to develop positive group dynamics, are, then, some of the types of skills that a successful online teacher needs. These are not easy skills to develop, but they are rewarding and help to create a more successful learning experience for the students.

CONCLUSION

Blended and online teaching share a potential to enhance regular language instruction by opening up the language classroom to the outside world. Both can be motivating for learners, exciting for the teacher, and meaningful for language development. However, both also come with specific challenges and many of these are only now starting to be addressed. For example, what is the ideal "blend" between online and classroom instruction? Although it is clear that explicitly linking classroom and online instruction is pedagogically sensible, it

.s not always clear how to do this. Mechanisms for facilitating interaction and feedback, and balancing direction instruction with the need to encourage a more independent exploration of the language through using it, are challenging at the best of times but become even more demanding online. The challenge for individual teachers, as well as for language teaching as a profession, is to work out how to avoid the drawbacks and build on the best that both worlds have to offer.

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is not always clear how to do this. Mechanisms for facilitating interaction and feedback, and balancing direction instruction with the need to encourage a more independent exploration of the language through using it, are challenging at the best of times but become even more demanding online. The challenge for individual teachers, as well as for language teaching as a professiou, is to work out how to avoid the drawbacks and build on the best that both worlds have to offer.

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