المحاضرة الأولى :

Linguistics: The discipline that studies the nature and use of language.

Applied linguistics: The application of linguistic theories, methods, and findings to the elucidation of language problems that have arisen in other domains. The term is especially used with reference to the field of foreign language learning and teaching.

Linguistic competence: Speakers' ability to produce and understand an unlimited number of utterances, including many that are novel and unfamiliar.

First Language: (native language) – the first language learned by a child, usually the language of his/her home.

Second/foreign language: a language learned subsequent to a speaker's native language.

Acquisition: the gradual development of ability in a first or second language by using it naturally in communicative situations.

Learning: the conscious process of accumulating knowledge, in contrast to acquisition.

Grammar-Translation Approach

- Instruction is given in the native language of the students.

- A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.

Direct Approach

No use of the mother tongue is permitted (i.e.' teacher does not need to know the students' native language).

Grammar is learned inductively

Reading Approach

Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught.

Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized

Audiolingualism Approach

Lessons begin with a dialogue

- Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking– reading, writing postponed.

Situational Approach

. The spoken language is primary.

. New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced in real situations (e.g. at the post office, at the bank, at the dinner table).

Cognitive Approach

Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation.

Pronunciation is de-emphasized; perfection is viewed as unrealistic

Affective-Humanistic Approach

. Respect is emphasized for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his/her feelings

The teacher is viewed as a counselor of facilitator

Comprehension-Based Approach

. Learners should not speak until they feel ready to do so; this results in better pronunciation than when the learner is forced to speak immediately.

Rule learning may help learners monitor (or become more aware of) what they do, but it will not aid their acquisition to spontaneous use of the target language

Communicative Approach

. The goal of language teaching is learner's ability to communicate in the target language.

The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors

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Approaches, Methods, & Techniques

Approach: An approach to language teaching is something that reflects a certain model or research paradigm- a theory if you like.

Method: is a set of procedures, i.e., a system that spells out rather precisely how to teach a language.

Technique: is a classroom device or activity(e.g. imitation and repetition).

المحاضرة الثالثة

Causes of errors:

Language transfer

Intralingual factors

Transfer of training

Learning strategies

اسباب الأخطاء في اللغة

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المحاضرة الرابعة

Interlanguage Theory

- Two Modals of Foreign Language teaching:

1. Foreign language learning is seen as a process of imitation and reinforcement; learners attempt to copy what they hear, and by regular practice they establish a set of acceptable habits in the new language. (Behaviorists' view)

2. Learners use their cognitive abilities in a creative way to work out hypotheses about the structure of the foreign language. They construct rules, try them out, and modify them if they prove to be not enough. In this sense, language learning proceeds in a series of transitional stages, while learners acquire more knowledge of L2. At each stage, they are in control of a language that is equivalent to neither L1 nor L2. (Cognitivists' view)

- Interlanguage is the type of language produced by second language learners who are in the process of learning language. It refers to a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native language and the target language.

Interlanguage Sources

The interlanguage system is based on a learner's hypothesis about the target language made from a number of possible sources of knowledge:

Limited knowledge of the target language

Knowledge about the native language

Knowledge about the communicative function of the language

Knowledge about the language in general

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Knowledge about life, human beings, and cultures

The Main Premises of Interlanguage Theory

1. The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlies comprehension and production. The system of rules is referred to as ' interlanguage'. The learner draws on these rules in much the same way as the native speaker draws on linguistic competence. The rules enable the learner to produce novel sentences. They are also responsible for the systematicity evident in L2 learner language. An interlanguage is ' a linguistic system…..in its own right'. As such it is a natural language and is entirely functional.

2. The learner's grammar is permeable. The grammar that the learner builds is incomplete and unstable. It is amenable to penetration by new linguistic forms and rules, which may be derived internally(i.e. by means of transfer from L1 or overgeneralization of an interlanguage rule) or externally (i.e. through exposure to target language input).

3. The learner's competence is transitional. As a result of the permeability of an interlanguage system learners rapidly revise it. They pass through a number of stages in the process of acquiring the target language. Each stage constitutes ' an interlanguage – transitional competence'. These stages are not discrete but overlap because every part of an interlanguage is subject to a constant revision.

4. The learner's competence is variable. At any one stage of development the language produced will display systematic variability. This variability reflects the particular form—function correlation which comprise the rules of the learner's grammar at that stage of development.

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5. Interlanguage development reflects the operation of cognitive learning strategies. The process by which interlanguages are constructed has been explained in various ways. One type of explanation identifies a number of cognitive learning processes such as L1 transfer, overgeneralization and simplification.

6. Interlanguage use can also reflect the operation of communication strategies. When learners are faced with having to communicate messages for which the necessary linguistic resources are not available, they resort to a variety of communication strategies. These enable them to compensate for their lack of knowledge. Typical communication strategies are paraphrase, code-switching and appeals- for – assistance.

7. Interlanguage systems may fossilize. Fossilization refer to the tendency of many learners to stop developing their interlanguage grammar in the direction of the target language. Instead they reach a plateau beyond which they do not progress. This may be because there is no communicative need for further development. Alternatively, it may be because full competence in a L2 is neurolinguistically impossible for most learners. Fossilization is a unique feature of interlanguage systems.

Example

Learner: I go to Disney World.

Native speaker: You're going to Disney World?

Learner: What (doesn't understand what the native speaker asks about.)

Native speaker: You will go to Disney World?

Learner: Yes. (notice they key word ' go ' but doesn't notice the verb tense.)

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Native speaker: When?

Learner: 1996.

Native speaker: Oh, you went to Disney World in 1996.

Learner: Yes, I go Disney World in 1996.

لاحظوا المحاضرة الرابعة كلها معنا

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المحاضرة الخامسة

كلها معنا ماعدا آراء النقاد

ولكن فيه أشياء ركز عليها مثل:

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The theory evolved in the late 1970s.

 - The most ambitious theory of second language learning.

 - It became popular among language teachers in the U.S. due to Krashen's ability to package his ideas in a way that makes them understandable to practitioners.

 - Krashen's theory constitutes of a set of five basic hypotheses:

1. The Acquisition – Learning Hypothesis.

2. The Monitor Hypothesis.

3. The Natural-Order Hypothesis.

4. The Input Hypothesis.

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis.

 - <u>Adult vs. child differences in using the Monitor</u>:

1. Children are thought to be superior language learners, because they do not use the monitor and are not as inhibited as older learners.

2. Krashen argues that adults are faster language learners in the initial stages, but young children out-perform adults with more time.

The Natural Order Hypothesis

• Krashen argued that " we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tending to come early and others late. The order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes".

• Those, as krashen argued, whose exposure to second language is nearly outside of language classes do not show a different order of acquisition from those who have had most of their second language experience in the classroom.

• *The Input Hypothesis*

*** Some lines of evidence for the Input Hypothesis:

The silent period:

- In the silent period, Krashen argued that learners are making use of the comprehensible input they receive. Once competence has been built up, speech emerges.

- The phenomenon has been observed to occur in some children who come to a new country where that are exposed to a new language, and are silent for a long period of time. During that time, they are presumably building up their competence in the language by listening.

Krashen maintained that older acquirers progress more quickly in the early stages because the obtain more comprehensible input than do younger learners. WHY?.....because older learners knowledge of the world makes the input more meaningful than it is for children.

Older learners are able to participate in conversations earlier that   - younger learners relying on their background knowledge and first language.

Older learners do better initially because they gain more   - comprehensible input via their superior skills in conversational management.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

- Krashen Argued that " comprehensible input may not be utilized by second language learners/acquirers if there is a 'mental block' that prevents them from fully profiting from it".
- Input ------> Filter -------> LAD ------> Acquired Competence

- If the ' Affective Filter' is down, the input reaches the LAD and becomes acquired competence.

- If the 'Affective Filter' is up, the input is blocked and does not reach the LAD.

- *The 'Affective Filter' is up when the acquirer is unmotivated, lacking confidence, concerned with failure, or uncomfortable with the teacher's attitude toward him/her.*

- *The 'Affective Filter' is down when the acquirer is not anxious and/ or has an intent on becoming a member of the group speaking the target language.*

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Self-esteem

Self-esteem is seen as a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself

Risk-taking

Risk taking is an important characteristic of successful learning of a second language learning.

Anxiety

is almost impossible to define in a simple sentence. It is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry.

Extroversion & Introversion

The typical extrovert is sociable, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to, and does not like studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of moment, and is generally impulsive individual. He/she has ready answers, and generally likes change

The typical introvert, on the other hand, is a quiet, retiring sort of person, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant, except with intimate friends. He/she tends on to plan ahead and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes a well-ordered mode of life.

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Intelligence

There are seven different forms of knowing:

1. Linguistic
2. Logical-mathematical abilities
3. Spatial intelligence; that is the ability to find your way around environment
4. Musical intelligence; that is the ability to perceive and create pitch and rhythmic patterns
5. Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence; that is the fine motor movement
6. Interpersonal intelligence; that is the ability to understand others, how they feel, what motivates them, how they interact with one another.
7. Intrapersonal intelligence; that is the ability to see oneself, to develop a sense of self-identity.

Motivation

Motivation is the inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action. In more technical term, motivation refers to " the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of efforts they will exert in that respect.

There are two types of motivation

1. Instrumental motivation refers to motivation to acquire a language as means for attaining instrumental goals

2. Integrative motivation is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group, and become a part of that society.

Top-down and Bottom-up

- **In top –down processing, the reader or listener gets a general view of the reading or listening passage by, in some way, absorbing the overall picture. This is greatly helped if the reader or listener's schemata allow them to have appropriate expectations of what they are going to come across**

In bottom-up processing, the reader or listener focuses on individual words and phrases, and achieves understanding by stringing these detailed elements together to build a whole.

Different Skills

Reading and listening for general understanding (SKIMMING): Good readers and listeners are able to take in a stream of discourse and understand the GIST of it without worrying too much about the details. Reading and listening for such 'general' comprehension means not stopping for every word, not analyzing everything that the writer or the speaker includes in the text.

4. Reading and listening for specific information (SCANNING): In contrast to reading and listening for gist, we frequently go to written and spoken text because we want specific details. We may listen to the news, only concentrating when the particular item that interests us comes up.

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Syllabus Design

2. Different syllabuses: There are different syllabuses:

A. The grammar syllabus: This the commonest type of syllabus, both traditionally and currently. A list of items is sequenced in such a way that the students gradually acquire a knowledge of grammatical structures, leading to an understanding of the grammatical system.

B. The lexical syllabus: It is possible to organize a syllabus on the basis of vocabulary and lexis to create a lexical syllabus (the vocabulary related to topics…e.g. art, clothes, crime). A problem with lexical syllabuses is the relationship between lexis and grammar.

 C. The functional Syllabus: A functional syllabus might look like this:

- Requesting

- Offering

- Inviting

- Agreeing and disagreeing

The syllabus designer then chooses (ways of expression) for each function. For example, for offering, the designer could choose from the following:

Would you like to……?

Do you want some help?

I'll help you if you want.

Let me give you a hand.

D. The situational Syllabus: A situational syllabus offers the possibility of selecting and sequencing different real-life situations

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rather than different grammatical units, vocabulary topics, or functions. A situational syllabus might look something like this:

- At the bank

- At the supermarket

- At the travel agent

- At the restaurant

Where students have specific communicative needs, organizing teaching material by the situations which students will need to operate in is attractive, since the syllabus designer will be able to define the situation, the likely participants, and communicative goals with some certainty. (Business & tourism students vs. students of general language)

E. The topic-based syllabus: Another framework around which to organize language is that of different topics (e.g. weather, sport, music). The weather topic, for example, can be subdivided into items such as the way weather changes, weather forecasting, weather and mood, and the damage that weather can cause.

F. The task-based syllabus: A task-based syllabus lists a series of tasks, and may later list some or all of the language to be used in those tasks. (India experience). Six task types can be used with almost any topic. These are: listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experience, and creative tasks. As with situations and topics, it is difficult to know how to grade tasks in terms of difficulty.

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**The Characteristics of Tests**

There are four main reasons for testing which give rise to four categories of test:

1. Placement test: Placing new students in the right class in a school is facilitated with the use of placement tests. They usually test grammar and vocabulary knowledge and assess students' productive and receptive skills.

2. Diagnostic tests: While placement tests are designed to show how good a student's English is in relation to a previously agreed system of levels, diagnostic tests can be used to expose learner difficulties, gaps in their knowledge, and skill deficiencies during a course. Thus, when we know what the problems are, we can do something about them.

3. 3. Progress or achievement tests: These tests are designed to measure learners' language and skill progress in relation to the syllabus they have been following. Achievement tests at the end of a term (like progress tests at the end of a unit) should reflect progress, not failure. They should reinforce the learning that has taken place, not go out of their way to expose weaknesses. They can also help us to decide on changes to future teaching programs.

4. 4. Proficiency tests: They give a general picture of a student's knowledge and ability (rather than measure progress). They are frequently used as stages people have to reach if they want to be admitted to a foreign university, get a job, or obtain some kind of certificate.

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Characteristics Of A Good Test

In order to judge the effectiveness of any test, it is sensible to lay down criteria against which the test can be measured, as follows:

Validity: A test is valid if it tests what is supposed to test. Thus it is not valid, for example, to test writing ability with an essay question that requires specialist knowledge of history or biology. A particular kind of validity that concerns most test designers is face validity. This means that the test should look, on the 'face' of it, as if it is valid.

Reliability: A good test should give consistent results. For example, if the same group of students took the same tests twice within two days----without reflecting on the first test before they sat it again ---- they should get the same results on each occasion. If they took another similar test, the result should be consistent. In practice, reliability is enhanced by making the test instructions clear, restricting the scope for variety in the answers.

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General Testing Terminology

. Test and Quiz: Both tests and quizzes play a role in the language classroom. The distinction between test and quiz is one of dimension and purpose rather than of item content.

The test is announced in advance and covers a specific unit of instruction, be it part of a lesson or several lessons. In reviewing for a test, students pull together the work of several class periods. Classroom tests may be given every two or three weeks. Such tests may be constructed to last the entire class period; in this case, optimum learning efficiency requires the teacher to return and discuss the corrected test as soon as the class meets again.

The essence of the quiz is brevity. In contrast to the test, it may be unannounced. Frequent quizzes encourage students to devote time regularly to their language study. Moreover, the quiz enables the teacher to acquaint students with types of items that will subsequently be used in tests.

. Objective and subjective test items: An objective item is one for which there is a specific correct response; therefore, whether the item is scored by one teach or another, whether is scored today or last week, it is always scored the same way (Multiple-choice items & fill-in the blank). A subjective item is one that does not have a single right answer (interview & short composition).

3. Speed and power tests: On a speed test, the student works against time (typing & translation). On a power test, the student is given sufficient time to finish the test. Some students may not answer all the questions, but this is because they are unable to do so, not because they were rushed.

4. Formative and summative evaluation: The formative test is given during the course instruction; its purpose is to show which aspects of the chapter the student has mastered and where remedial work is necessary. The formative test is normally graded on a pass-fail basis, and students who fail are given the opportunity to study and then take the test again. The summative test, on the other hand, is usually given at the end of a marking period and measures the 'sum' total of the material covered.

5. Norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests: The norm-referenced test compares a student's performance against the performance of other students (Curve). The criterion-referenced test indicates whether the student has met predetermined objective or criteria.

6. Discrete-point and global testing: Discrete-point tests measure whether or not the student has mastered specific elements of the second language. Global language tests measure the student's ability to understand and use language in context.

7. Pure vs. hybrid test items: On a pure test item, the student uses only one skill. In hybrid test item, two or more skills are used.

8. Pre-testing and post-testing: The pre-test is given prior to teaching a course or a unit of instruction. It is similar in form and content of the post-test that is given at the end of the course or the unit.