1st Lecture

Linguistics & applied linguistics

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 & second language

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.

Language assumptions

- Language is a voluntary behavior.
- Language is a set of habits, patterns that are common to an entire group speaking the language and consistent to large degrees in individuals.
- Language as a form of communication is entirely arbitrary in its relation to what is communicated. The sounds we produce when referring to an object, e.g. a book, name the object no better than any other set of sounds would. There is nothing inherent in the thing that requires us to make a given set of noises.
- Language is a convention, a tradition, a social institution. It is something that has grown through the common living of a large number of people who carry on a tradition.

Ways to describe language

Language consists of :

1) Phonology: the study of the sound system of a language.
2) Morphology: the study of the structure of words.
3) Syntax: the sentence structure of the language. Grammar is the set of rules governing the use of the language so that people can communicate meaningfully and consistently with each other.
4) Semantics: the study of the meanings communicated through language.

Language teaching approaches

1) Grammar-Translation Approach.
2) Direct Approach.
3) Reading Approach
4) Audiolingualism Approach.
5) Situational Approach.
6) Cognitive Approach.
7) Affective-Humanistic Approach.
8) Comprehension-Based Approach.
9) Communicative Approach.

Grammar-Translation Approach

- Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
- There is a little use of the target language.
- Focus is on grammatical parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words.
- There is early reading of difficult classical texts.
- A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
- The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
- The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language.

Direct Approach

- No use of the mother tongue is permitted (i.e.' teacher does not need to know the students' native language).
- Lessons begin with dialogues and anecdotes in modern conversational style.
- Actions and pictures are used to make meanings clear.
- Grammar is learned inductively.

 - Literary texts are read for pleasure and are not analyzed grammatically.
 - The target culture is also taught inductively.
 - The teacher must be a native speaker or have native-like proficiency in the target language.

Reading Approach

- Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught.
 - Vocabulary is controlled at first (based on frequency and usefulness) and then expanded.
 - Translation is a respectable classroom procedure.
 - Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized.
 - The teacher does not need to have good oral proficiency in the target language.

Audiolingualism Approach

 - Lessons begin with a dialogue.
 - Mimicry and memorization are used, based on the assumption that language is a habit formation
 - Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively.
 - Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking– reading, writing postponed.
 - Pronunciation is stressed from the beginning.
 - Vocabulary is severely limited in initial stages.
 - A great effort is made to present learner errors.
 - Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context.
 - The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary that he/she is teaching since learning activities are carefully controlled.

2nd Lecture

Language Teaching Approaches

1) Grammar-Translation Approach.
2) Direct Approach.
3) Reading Approach
4) Audiolingualism Approach.
5) Situational Approach.
6) Cognitive Approach.
7) Affective-Humanistic Approach.

8) Comprehension-Based Approach.
9) Communicative Approach.

Situational Approach

a. The spoken language is primary.
b. All languages material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established).
c. Only the target language should be used in the classroom.
d. Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.
e. Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.
f. 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

a. Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation.
b. Instruction is often individualized; learners are responsible for their own learning.
c. Grammar must be taught but it can be taught deductively (rules first, practice later) and/ or inductively (rules can either be stated after practice or left as implicit information for the learners to process on their own).
d. Pronunciation is de-emphasized; perfection is viewed as unrealistic.
e. Reading and writing are once again as important as listening and speaking.
f. Vocabulary instruction is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels.
g. Errors are viewed as inevitable, something that should be used constructively in the learning process.
h. The teacher is expected to have good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language.

Affective-Humanistic Approach

a. Respect is emphasized for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his/her feelings.
b. Communication that is meaningful to learner is emphasized.
c. Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups.
d. Class atmosphere is viewed as more important than materials or methods.
e. Peer support and interaction is needed for learning.
f. Learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization experience.
g. The teacher is viewed as a counselor of facilitator.

h. The teacher should be proficient in the target language and the student's native language since translation may be used heavily in the initial stages to help students feel at ease; later it is gradually phased out.

Comprehension-Based Approach

a. Listening comprehension is very important and is viewed as the basic skill that will allow speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time given the right conditions.

b. Learners should begin by listening to meaningful speech and by responding nonverbally in meaningful ways before they produce and language themselves.

c. 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.

d. Learners progress by being exposed to meaningful input that is just one step beyond their level of competence.

e. 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.

f. Errors correction is seen as unnecessary and perhaps even counterproductive; the important thing is that the learners can understand and can make themselves understood.

g. If the teacher is not a native speaker (or near-native), appropriate materials such as audio/visual tapes must be available to provide the appropriate input for the learners.

Communicative Approach

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

b. The content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures.

c. Students regularly work in groups or pair to transfer meaning in situations where one person has information that the other(s) lack.

d. Students often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts.

e. Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands.

f. Skills are integrated from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and perhaps also writing (this assumes that learners are educated and literate).

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

h. The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately.

Summary

To sum up, we can see that certain features of several of the first five approaches outlined above arose in reaction to perceived inadequacies or impracticalities in an earlier approach or approaches. The four more recently developed approaches also do this to some extent; however, each one is grounded on a slightly different theory or view of how people can learn second/ foreign languages, or how people use languages, and each has a central point around which everything else revolves:

a. Cognitive Approach: Language is rule-governed cognitive behavior (not habit formation).

b. Affective-Humanistic Approach: Learning a foreign language is a process of self-realization and of relating to other people.

c. Comprehension Approach: Language acquisition occurs if and only if the learner comprehends meaningful input.

d. Communicative Approach: The purpose of language (and thus the goal of language teaching) is communication.

The four more recent approaches are not necessarily in conflict or totally incompatible since it is not impossible to come up with an integrated approach which would include attention to rule formation, affect, comprehension, and communication which would view the learner as someone who thinks, feels, understands, and has something to say. In fact, many teachers would find such an approach, if well conceived and well integrated, to be very attractive.

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).

We now understand that an approach is general (e.g., Cognitive), that a method is specific set of procedures more or less compatible with an approach (e.g., Silent Way), and that a technique is a very specific type of learning activity used in one or more methods (e.g., using rods to cue and facilitate language practice).

Historically, an approach or a method also tends to be used in conjunction with a syllabus, which is an inventory of things the learner should master; this inventory is sometimes presented in a recommended sequence and is used to design courses and teaching materials.

Final Thought

What is the solution for ESL/EFL teacher, given the abundance of current and future approaches? The only way to make wise decisions is to learn more about the specific approaches/methods/techniques available. There are also three other issues the teacher has to take into consideration to make a good decision concerning the choice of an approach or method (or a combination of both):

1. Assess students needs (why and for what purpose?
2. Examine instructional constraints (time, class size, and materials).
3. Determine needs, attitudes, and aptitudes of individual students to the extent that is possible.

3rd Lecture

Error Analysis

- Making errors is inevitable part of learning.
- Studying learners' errors serve tow major purposes:
  1. it provides data from which inferences about the nature of the language learning process can be made.
  2. it indicates to teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students have most difficulty producing correctly and which error types detract most from a learner's ability to communicate effectively.

- Error analysis has yielded insights into L2 acquisition process that have stimulated major changes in teaching practices.
- Among the most common errors are:
  • Omitting grammatical morphemes, which are items that do not contribute much to the meaning of sentences, as in He *hit* car.
  • Double marking: a semantic feature (e.g. past tense) when only one marker is required, as in She *didn't went* back.

  * Regularizing rules, as in womans for women.
  * Using archiforms: one from in place of several, such as the use of her for both she and her, as in *I see her yesterday. Her dance with my brother.*

  * Using two or more forms in random alternation even though the language requires the use of each only under certain conditions, as in the random use of he and she regardless of the gender of the person of interest.

* Misordering items in constructions that require a reversal of word-order rules that had been previously acquired, as in what you are doing?,

or misplacing items that may be correctly placed in more than one place in the sentence, as in They are all the time late.

Samples of Errors

Error	Example
a used for *an* before vowels	(a ant)
an used for a	(an little ant)
Omission of 's	(the man feet)
failure to attach –s	(He write letters)
Wrong attachment of –s	(The apple fall downs)
Omission of –ed	(She play tennis yesterday)
Adding –ed to past tense	(They calleded)
regularizing by adding –ed	(He putted the cookie there)
Omission of to be	(He in the water) (She going) (They studying)
Replacement of –ing by the simple verb form	(The bird was shake his head)
Subject verb agreement	(It rain in December)
Subject number agreement	(The apples was coming down)
Subject tense agreement	(I didn't know what it is)
Subject pronoun used as a redundant element	(My brother he go to Mexico)
Use me as a subject	(me forget it)
Omission of preposition	(He came (to) the water)
Formation of no and not without 'do'	(He not play anymore)
Multiple negation (They won't have no fun)	(They won't have no fun)

Major Findings of Error Analysis Studies

- Error analysis studies claim that the majority of learner's errors were intralingual (caused by the structure of L2) rather than interlangual (caused by L1 transfer). The major contribution of error analysis to language teaching was seen as an intensive contrastive study of the systems of the second language and the mother tongue of the learner; out of this would come an inventory of the areas of difficulty which the learner would encounter and the value of this inventory would be to direct the teacher's attention to these areas so that he/she might devote special care and emphasis in his/her teaching to the overcoming, or even avoiding, of these predicted difficulties. Error analysis advocates claim " you can't learn without goofing"

- Causes of errors:
    1. Language transfer
    2. Intralingual factors
    3. Transfer of training
    4. Learning strategies

- Classification of errors:
    1. Omission, addition, substitution, word order
    2. Errors of phonology, morphology, syntax, and vocabulary

- In the field of methodology, there have been two schools of thought in respect to learners' errors. Firstly the school which maintains that if we were to achieve a perfect teaching method, the errors would never be committed in the first place, and therefore the occurrence of errors is merely a sign of the present inadequacy of our teaching techniques. The philosophy of the second school is that we live in an imperfect world and consequently errors will always occur in spite of our best efforts. Our ingenuity should be concentrated on techniques for dealing with errors after they have occurred.

Shortcomings of Error Analysis

1. Stressing on learner's errors
 2. Overstressing of production data
 3. Focusing on specific language rather than viewing universal aspects of languages.

4th Lecture

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:
1. Limited knowledge of the target language
2. Knowledge about the native language
3. Knowledge about the communicative function of the language
4. Knowledge about the language in general
5. 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.

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.)
Native speaker: When?
Learner: 1996.
Native speaker: Oh, you went to Disney World in 1996.
Learner: Yes, I go Disney World in 1996.

The development of Interlanguage

1. Language transfer: Interfering; interlingual transfer from L1; borrowing patterns from the native language. Such as using ' the book of john' instead of john's book.

2. Transfer of training: Some elements of the interlanguage may result from specific features of the learning. For example, students make some errors because of a misleading explanation from the teacher……. incorrect presentation of a structure.

3. Strategies of second language learning: These strategies are part of the context of learning; resulting from a specific approach to the material to be learned.

4. Communication strategies: expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known by a learner with limited knowledge of the target language. Such as using 'That's my building. I live there' instead of ' That's the building where I live'.

5. Overgeneralization: The extension of using grammatical rules beyond its expected uses (e.g. mans instead men)

Final Thought

The interlanguage theory has been fluid, constantly changing, and incorporating new ideas. It played a crucial role in the transformation of thinking, prediction and understanding the process of second language learning.

5th Lecture

Krashen's Monitor Model

- 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.

The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

- Krashen maintained that adult second language learners have at their deposal two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language.
1. Acquisition: it is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language.

- Acquisition comes about through meaningful interaction in a natural communication setting.
- Speakers are not concerned with form, but with meaning.
- There is no explicit concern with error detection and correction.

2. Learning: A conscious process that results in (knowing about) language.

- Formal rules and feedback provide the basis for language instruction.
- Error detection and correction are central, as is typically the case in classroom setting.

Does learning become acquisition?

 * According to krashen " learning does not turn into acquisition". He argued that what is consciously learned through the presentation of rules and explanation of grammar does not become the basis of acquisition of the target language.

This is based on three claims:

1. Sometimes there is 'acquisition' without 'learning', that is some individuals have considerable competence in a second language but do not know many rules consciously.
2. There are cases where 'learning' never turn into 'acquisition', that is a person may know the rule and continue breaking it.
3. No one knows anywhere near all the rules.

   Critics:

   Gregg (1984) argued that this claim runs counter to the intuitive belief of many second language learners. He also argued that at least some of the rules can be acquired.

Can adults acquire a language as children do?

 Yes, Krashen argued, adults have access to the same Language Acquisition Device (LAD) that children use in acquiring their first language.

   Critics:

   - Gregg (1984) pointed out that Krashen appeared to be giving the (LAD) a scope of operation much wider than is normally the case in linguistic theory.
   - Chomsky (1968) argued that the ability to use (LAD) declines with age. However, it is possible to learn a language after children age by using other mental faculties as the logical or the mathematical.

The Monitor Hypothesis

Monitor: is the mental editor.
 - The Monitor is the part of the learner's internal system that appears to be responsible for conscious linguistic processing.

 - There are two functions of the Monitor:

1. In reception:
       a. when a person tries to learn a rule by reading about it in a grammar book
       b. by attending a class where the teacher describes a rule.

2. In production:
       a. when a person performs a drill that requires conscious attention to linguistic form,
       b. when a learner memorize a dialogue or a story.

- The hypothesis states that " learning has only one function, and that is as a monitor". Krashen argued that learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of our utterances, after they have been produced by the acquired system. Acquisition initiates the speaker's utterance and is

responsible for fluency. Thus the Monitor is thought to alter the output of the acquired system before or after the utterances are spoken or written.

 - Krashen argued that formal instruction in a language provides rule isolation and feedback for the development of the Monitor, but that production is based on what is acquired through communication, with the Monitor altering production to improve accuracy toward target language norms.

- Three conditions for Monitor use:
1. Time: In order to think about and use conscious rules effectively, a second language learner needs to have time.
2. Focus on form: The performer must also be focused on form, or thinking about correctness to get his message across in an understandable way to the listener(s).
3. Know the rule: This is very formidable requirement. If rules are not known (learner does not know the rule), the Monitor will not be helpful or used.

Critics:
- Hulstijn & Hulstijn (1984) pointed out that in teaching>>> form should be first before time. In their study, when the subjects were focused on form without time pressure, there were gains in accuracy. But when there was no focus on form, giving subjects more time did not make a difference in their performance.
- Houck & others (1978) ,in their studies, found out that focusing subjects on form by having them correct spelling and grammar in written composition did not result in the use of the Monitor.

The degree to which Monitor is used depends on the following:
1. Learner's age.
2. The amount of formal instruction the learner has experienced.
3. The nature and focus required by the verbal task being performed.
4. The individual personality of the learner (Individual Differences).

There are three types of Monitor users:
1. Monitor over-users: Those are people who attempt to monitor all the time and constantly checking their output. The results:
   a. They may speak hesitantly.
   b. No fluency.

2. Monitor under-users: Those are people who have not learned, who prefer not to use their monitor even if they have all the conditions (time, focus on form, knowing rules. The results:
   a. They are not influenced by error correction.
   b. They do not sound right/correct.

3. The optimal Monitor users: Those are people who use the monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication. The results:
   a. Better communicators.
   b. More accuracy.

Adult vs. child differences in using the Monitor:

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.
Critics:
- McLaughlin (1984) argued that adults/older learners are better in both syntactic and semantic variables. It is only in the area of phonological development that younger children do better.

<mark>6th Lecture</mark>

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 Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

*** Evidence for a " Natural Order" :

- The principle source of 'Natural Order' hypothesis comes from the so-called ' morpheme studies' ……..especially the study by Dulay & Burt (1974). Their study was based on Brown's study (1973) on children learning English as a first language. The purpose of Dulay & Burt's study was whether children who acquire English as a second language learn ' morphemes' in the same sequence as in Brown's study. Dulay & Burt's study included 60 Spanish-speaking children in Long Island and 55 Chinese-speaking in New York. The study revealed that sequence of acquisition of the ' morphemes' was virtually the same for both groups.

Critics:
Hakuta & Cancino (1977) argued that the semantic complexity of the morphemes may vary depending on learner's native language.

The Input Hypothesis

   - This hypothesis postulates that " humans acquire language in only one way--- by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input'…..

We move from i = our current level, to i + 1 = the next level, by understanding input containing i + 1. Krashen regarded this as ' the single most important concept in second language acquisition' in that ' it attempts to answer the critical question of HOW we acquire language?

 - There are two corollaries of the 'Input Hypothesis' :

1. Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech can not be taught directly but it emerges as a result of building competence via comprehensible input.

2. If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. The teacher does not need to teach grammar deliberately…… only if a sufficient amount of comprehensible is provided.

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

1. 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.

Critics:
-   The merely fact that some learners are hesitant to speak for a long time when they are put in a new linguistic environment does not address the question of language is acquired.

-   The silent period can be attributed to many factors…….among them are (anxiety, personality, individual differences).

-   Critics asked " How, in the silent period, does an individual come to understand language that contains structures that have not yet been acquired?"

-   Critics also asked " How does speech become comprehensible to a person who initially knows nothing about the language?"

2. Age Differences:

- 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.

3. The Effect of Exposure:

- Studies show that the longer people live in a country, the more proficient their language will be----unless they live in immigrant communities where they use the second language relatively little and rely on their first language.

- Krashen used the term ' **INTAKE'** : where language acquisition comes from that subset of linguistic input that helps the acquirer learn language.

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7th Lecture

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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".

<div align="center">Input ------> Filter -------> LAD ------> Acquired Competence</div>

- 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.

Filter: is that part of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language (the learner's motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states).

The Filter has four functions:-

1. It determines which language models the learner will select.
2. It determines which part of the language will be attended to first.
3. It determines when the language acquisition efforts should cease.
4. It determines how fast a learner can acquire.

- The filter is thought to limit what it is that the learner attends to, what will be learned, and how quickly the language will be acquired.
- Adult learners are likely to have higher 'Affective Filter' because of the events that occur in adolescence.
- Children learners are ' less inhibited, and are likely to have low 'Affective Filter'.

Krashen's View of Classroom Language Learning & Teaching

1. The principal goal of language teaching is to supply comprehensible input in order to facilitate 'acquisition'.

   - Krashen thought that the defining characteristics of a good teacher is someone who can make input comprehensible to a non-native speaker, regardless of his/her competence in the target language.
   - Optimal input is supplied when the teacher engages the learner in real communication which the learner finds interesting.

2. Teaching should be seen as a preparation for 'acquisition' in the wider world.

- Krashen argued that it is doubtful if the classroom can supply sufficient comprehensible input to ensure successful L2 acquisition.
- One of the aims of teaching must be to equip the learner to manage real-life conversations.

3. The teacher must ensure that learners do not feel anxious or are put on the defensive.

   - The learner has to feel relaxed and confident to ensure that the 'filter' is down so that comprehensible input gets in.
   - Krashen argued that if teachers insist on learner production too soon or if they correct errors in communicative activities, the learner will be inhibited from learning.

4. Grammar teaching should be restricted to simple forms and its goal is to enable the learner to monitor.

- Grammar teaching (inductive or deductive) is of limited value because it can only contribute to 'learning' and never to 'acquisition'.
- Grammar can be taught as 'subject matter', but this is not to be confused with the main goal of language teaching.

5. Errors should not be corrected when the goal is 'acquisition' but should be corrected when the goal is 'learning'.

  - Error correction has no role in 'acquisition' which only occurs as a result of the learner processing comprehensible input.
  - Given that the main goal of teaching is 'acquisition', error correction is generally to be avoided.

The main principles of Krashen's 'Monitor Model' can be summarized as:

1. The goal is communicative skills.
2. Comprehension precedes production.
3. Production emerges when the learner is ready.
4. Acquisition activities are central.
5. The 'Affective Filter' needs to be kept low.

Krashen's Monitor Model

Critics:
  - Many scholars critiqued that it is not clear how Krashen's claim that 'learnt' knowledge does not contribute to the development of 'acquired' knowledge.
  - It is difficult to see how the 'input hypothesis' can be properly tested.
  - The 'monitor hypothesis' has been criticized on the grounds that it is far too restricting; learners are capable of learning and using metalingual knowledge to a far greater extent than Krashen allows for.

Final Thought:

  The ' Monitor Model' is undoubtedly the best known theory of L2 acquisition. For a while the theory dominated the field of L2 acquisition to such an extent that researchers felt compelled to measure their results and theoretical position against those covered by the 'Monitor Model'. The ' Monitor Model is a courageous step in the field of second language learning and teaching that has many praiseworthy arguments. However, further research should be conducted regarding Krashen's 'Monitor Model' rather than only criticizing it.

8th Lecture

Personality Factors

1. The affective domain
2. Self-esteem
3. Inhibition
4. Risk-taking
5. Anxiety

6. Empathy
7. Extroversion & introversion
8. Language aptitude
9. Motivation
10. Age

The affective domain

- Affect refers to emotion or feeling. The affective domain is the emotional side of human behavior, and it may be juxtaposed to the cognitive side. The development of affective states or feelings involves a variety of personality factors, feelings both about ourselves and about others with whom we come into contact.

- Understanding how human beings feel and respond and believe and value is an exceedingly important aspect of a theory of second language acquisition.

Self-esteem

- Self-esteem is seen as a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself. It is a subjective experience, which the individual conveys to others be verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviors.

Self-esteem has three main levels:

1. Global level, which is thought to be relatively stable in a mature adult, and is resistant to change except by active and extended therapy.

2. Situational or specific self-esteem, which refers to one's appraisals of oneself in certain life situations, such as social interaction, work, education, communicative ability, or personality traits like sociability, empathy, and flexibility.

3. Task self-esteem, which relates to particular tasks within specific situations or refers to particular subject matter areas

Inhibition

- Human beings build sets of defenses to protect the ego.

- The newborn baby has no concept of his/her own self; gradually he/she learns to identify a self that is distinct from others.
- In Childhood, the growing degrees of awareness, responding, and the valuing begin to create a system of affective traits that individuals identify themselves.
- In adolescence, the physical, emotional, and cognitive changes of the preteenager and teenager bring on mounting defensive inhibitions to protect a fragile ego, to ward off ideas, experiences,

and feelings that threaten to dismantle the organization of values and beliefs on which appraisals of self-esteem have been founded.

Risk-taking

  - Risk taking is an important characteristic of successful learning of a second language learning. The four dimensions that underlies risk-taking are:

1. A lack of hesitancy about using newly encountered linguistic elements
2. A willingness to use linguistic elements perceived to be complex or difficult.
3. A tolerance of possible incorrectness in using the language.
4. An inclination to rehearse a new element silently before attempting to use it aloud.

Anxiety

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

 There are three components of foreign language anxiety:

1. Communication apprehension, arising from learners' inability to adequately express mature thoughts and ideas.
2. Fear of negative social evaluation, arising from learners' need to make a positive social impression on others.
3. Test anxiety, or apprehension over academic evaluation.

Empathy

  Empathy is the capacity for participation in another's feelings or ideas. It is also defined as the process of " putting yourself into someone else's shoes", of reaching beyond the self and understanding and feeling what another person is understanding or feeling. Language is one of the

primary means of empathizing, but nonverbal communication facilitates the process of empathizing and must not be overlooked.

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.

Language Aptitude

The four components of language aptitude:

1. Phonemic coding ability: The ability to make a link between sound and symbol.
2. Grammatical sensitivity: The ability to recognize the grammatical functions that words fulfill in sentences.
3. Inductive language learning ability: The ability to examine language materials, to notice and identify patterns of correspondence and relationships involving either meaning or syntactic form.
4. Memory and learning: People vary in the efficiency with which they make such bonds, vary ,therefore; in speech, vocabulary growth, and consequently in foreign language achievement.

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(e.g. a career)

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.
3. Assimilative motivation is the drive to become an indistinguishable member of a speech community.

Age

- Children appear to be much more successful than adults in acquiring the phonological system of the new language; many eventually attain native-like accents.
- Most Children are ultimately more successful than adults in learning a second language, but they are not always faster. Adults appear to progress faster than children in the areas of syntax and morphology, at least in the early stages of learning.

9th Lecture

How we read and Listen

- When we read a story or a newspaper, listen to the news, or take part in conversation, we employ our previous knowledge as we approach the process of comprehension, and we deploy a range of receptive skills; which ones we use will be determined by our reading or listening purpose.

- Understanding a piece of discourse involves much more than just knowing about the language. In order to make sense of any text, we need to have 'pre-existent knowledge of the world'. Such knowledge is often referred to as 'SCHEMA' (plural SCHEMATA). Each of us carries in our heads mental representations of typical situations that we came across. When we are stimulated by particular words, discourse patterns, or contexts, such schematic knowledge is activated and we are able to recognize what we see or hear because it fits into patterns that we already know.

Reasons for Reading and Listening

- When we read a sign on the highway, our motives are different from when we read a detective novel; when we take an audiotape guide round a museum, we have a different purpose in mind from when we listen to a stranger giving us directions on a street corner.

We can divide reasons for reading and listening into two broad categories:

1. Instrumental: a large amount of reading and listening takes place because it will help us to achieve some clear aim. Thus, for example, we read a road sign so that we know where to go. We read the instructions on a ticket machine because we need to know how to operate it.

2. Pleasurable: another kind of reading and listening takes place largely for pleasure. Thus people read magazines or spend hours reading newspapers. Others go to poetry readings and listen to Radio.

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

- The processes we go through when reading a novel or listening to a poem are likely to be different from those we use when we are looking for someone's number in a telephone directory, or when we are listening to a spoken 'alert' message on a computer.

1. **Identifying the topic:** Good readers and listeners are able to pick up the topic of a written or spoken text very quickly. With the help of their own schemata, they quickly get an idea of what is being talked about.

2. **Predicting and guessing:** Both readers and listeners sometimes guess in order to try and understand what is being written or talked about, especially if they have first identified the topic. Sometimes they look forward, trying to predict what is coming; sometimes they make assumptions or guess the content from their initial glance or half-hearing as they try and apply their schemata to what is in front of them.

3. **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.

5. **Reading and listening for detailed information**: Sometimes we read and listen in order to understand everything we are reading in detail. This is usually the case with written instructions or directions, or with the description of scientific procedures. If we are in an airport and announcement starts, we listen in a concentrated way to everything that is said.

6. **Interpreting text:** Readers and listeners are able to see beyond the literal meaning of words in a passage, using a variety of clues to understand what the writer or speaker is implying or suggesting.

Problems and Solutions

   - The teaching and learning of receptive skills presents a number of particular problems which will need to be addressed. These are to do with language, topic, the tasks students are asked to perform, and the expectations they have of reading and listening.

1. **Language**: What is it that makes text difficult? Is it words or sentences-length?

Solutions:
   a. One way of helping students is to pre-teach vocabulary that is in the reading or listening text.
   b. Extensive reading and listening: This suggests reading and listening at length, often for pleasure and in a leisurely way. Extensive reading and listening take place when students are in their own.
   c. Authenticity: Authentic material is language where no concessions are made to foreign speakers. It is normal, natural language used by native speakers of a language.

2. **Topic and genre**: Many receptive skill activities prove less successful that anticipated because the topic is not appropriate or because students are not familiar with the genre they are dealing with. If students are not interested in a topic, or if they are unfamiliar with text genre we are asking them to work on, they may be reluctant to engage fully with the activity.

Solutions:
   a. Choose the right topics.
   b. Create interest.
   c. Activate schemata.
   d. Vary topics and genres

3. **Comprehension tasks**: A key feature in the successful teaching of receptive skills concerns the choice of comprehension tasks. Sometimes such tasks appear to be testing the students rather than helping them to understand.

Solutions:

a. Testing and Teaching: The best kinds of tasks are those which raise students' expectations, help them tease out meanings, and provoke an examination of the reading and listening passage.

b. Appropriate challenge: When asking students to read and listen, we want to avoid texts and tasks that are either far too easy or far too difficult. As with many other language tasks, we want to get the level of challenge right, to make the tasks ' difficult but achievable'.

4. **Negative expectation**: Students sometime have low expectation of reading and listening. They can feel that they are not going to understand the passage in the book or on a tape because it is bound to be too difficult, and they predict that the whole experience will be frustrating and de-motivating.

Solutions:

a. Manufacturing success: By getting the level of challenge right (in terms of language, text, and tasks), we can ensure that students are successful. By giving students clear and achievable purpose, we can help them to achieve that purpose.

b. Agreeing on a purpose: It is important for teacher and students to agree on both general and specific purposes for their reading or listening. If students know why they are reading or listening, they can choose how to approach the text. If they understand the purpose, they will have a better chance of knowing how well they have achieved it.

<p style="text-align:center">10th Lecture</p>

Teaching Productive Skills

  - In order for communication to be successful, we have to structure our discourse in such a way that it will be understood by our listeners or readers.

 - Coherent writing makes sense because you can follow the sequence of ideas and points.

- When people with similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds get together, they speak to each other easily because they know the rules of conversation in their language and their shared culture.

- When they write to each other, they obey certain conventions.

- Such rules and conventions are not written down anywhere, nor are they easy to define. But at some cultural level, our schemata help us to communicate with each other successfully.

There are three areas of rules which we should consider:

1. Sociocultural rules: Speakers from similar cultural backgrounds know how to speak to each other in terms of how formal to be, what kind of language they can use, how loud to speak, or how close to stand to each other.
2. Turn-taking: In any conversation, decisions have to be taken about when each person should speak. This is ' turn-taking', a term which refers to the way in which participants in conversation get their chance to speak. They do this by knowing how to signal verbally or visually that they want a turn or, conversely, by recognizing when the other speakers are signaling that they want to finish and are therefore giving them space to take a speaking turn
3. Rules for writing: writing has rules too, which we need to recognize and either follow or purposefully flout (e.g. internet chat).

Different Styles and Genres

- Our language use is determined by a number of factors. First among these is the purpose of our communication, what we want to achieve.

- The form in which we try to achieve that purpose is determined by other parameters such as setting, the channel we are using to communicate by, and the type of communication (genre) which we are involved in.

- If we want to give people facts (our purpose) in a lecture theater (setting) through a microphone (channel), we will probably use a lecture genre with its typical patterns of rhetoric and organization, and this genre will determine the style of the language we use. The whole event will be different from how we might transmit the same information to a friend in an informal conversation. This in turn would be different from the kind of language we might use when writing the same information in a particular magazine or when writing an email to a colleaque

- In each of the above cases, the writer or speaker will operate at a different level of formality. We can characterize this as a level of intimacy, where the more distant a speaker or writer feels themselves to be from their audience, or the more tentative they feel about their messages, the greater will be their use of formal grammar and lexis.

- A feeling of distance will make the use of well-formed sentences in writing a priority. Closeness, on the other hand, leads to spontaneity so that in conversation the occurrence of ellipsis, non-clausal sentences, tags is more common.

- In order to speak and write at different levels of intimacy, students need practice in different genres and different styles so that as their level increases they can vary the grammar, functions, and lexis that they use.

Interacting With An Audience

- Part of our speaking proficiency depends upon our ability to speak differentially, depending upon our audience, and upon they way we absorb their reaction and respond to it in some way or other.

- Part of our writing ability depends upon our ability to change our style and structure to suit the person or people we are writing for.

Dealing With Difficulty

- When speakers or writers of their own or of a foreign language do not know a word or just cannot remember it, they may employ some or all the following strategies to resolve the difficulty they are encountering.

1. Improvising: Speakers sometimes try any word or phrase they can come up with in the hope that it is about right.
2. Discarding: When speakers simply cannot find words for what they want to say, they may discard the thought that they cannot put into words.
3. Foreignising: When operating in a foreign language, speakers and writers sometimes choose a word in a language they know well (such as their first language) and foreignize it in the hope it will be equivalent to the meaning they wish to express in the foreign language.
4. Paraphrasing: Speakers sometimes paraphrase, talking about something for cleaning the teeth if they do not know the word ' toothbrush'.

Problems and Solutions

- There are a number of reasons why students find language production difficult; however, there are a number of ways in which teachers can help students get as much out of the production classroom activities as possible.

1. **Language**: Learners engaged in productive task can become very frustrated when they just do not have the words or the grammar they need to express themselves.

Solutions:

   A. <u>Supply key language</u>: before we ask students to take part in a spoken or written activity we may check their knowledge of key vocabulary, and help them with phrases or questions that will be helpful for the task.

   B. <u>Plan activities in advance</u>: because of the time-lag between our students meeting new language and their ability to use it fluently, we need to plan production activities that will provoke the use of language which they have had a chance to absorb at an earlier stage.

   2. **Topic and genre**: When students are not interested in the topics we are asking them to write or speak about, they are unlikely to invest their language production with the same amount of efforts as they would if they were excited by the subject matter. If they are completely unfamiliar with the genre we are asking them to write in, for example, they may find it difficult to engage with the task we have given them.

Solutions:

   A. Choose interesting topics
   B. Create interest in the topic
   C. Activate schemata
   D. Vary topics and genres
   E. Provide necessary information

<mark>11th Lecture</mark>

Syllabuses & Coursebooks

   - Writers and course designers have to take a number of issues into account when designing their materials. Once they have a clear idea of how their theories and beliefs about learning can be translated into appropriate activities, they will have to think about what topics to include.

   - This will be based on perceptions of what students find engaging, what research shows in this area, and on the potential for interesting exploitation of the topics they might select.

   - It will also be necessary to consider what kind of culture the material should reflect or encourage, and to ensure some kind of appropriate balance in terms of gender and the representation of different groups in society, racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic.

   - Writers and course designers also have to decide what language varieties they wish to focus on or have represented, and they need to adopt a position on how authentic the language should be, especially at beginner levels.

- Once these decisions have been taken, coursebooks writers and language program designers can then turn their attention to the central organizing strand of their materials, namely the syllabus.

Syllabus Design

- Syllabus design concerns the selection of items to be learned and the grading of those items into an appropriate sequence. Every syllabus needs to be developed on the basis of certain criteria, such as ' learnability' and 'frequency', which can inform decisions about selection and ordering.

1. Syllabus design criteria: When designers put syllabuses together, they have to consider each item for inclusion on the basis of a number of criteria. This will not only help them to decide if they want to include the item in question, but also where to put it in the sequence.

A. **Learnability**: Some structural or lexical elements items are easier for students to learn that others. Thus we teach easier things first and then increase the level of difficulty as the students' language level rises. Learnability might tell us that, at a beginning level, it is easier to teach uses of *was* and *were* immediately after teaching uses of *is* and *are*.

B. **Frequency**: It would make sense, especially at beginning level, to include items which are more frequent in the language, than ones that are only used occasionally by native speakers…….
see is used more often to mean *understand*…..(e.g. I see) than it is to denote vision.

C. **Coverage**: Some words and structures have greater coverage (scope of use) than others. Thus we might decide, on the basis of coverage, to introduce the *going to* future before the *present continuous* with future reference, if we could show that *going to* could be used in more situations than the present continuous.

D. **Usefulness**: The reason that words like *book* and *pen* figure so highly in classrooms (even though they might not be that frequent in real language use) is because they are useful words in that situation.

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.
I'll do that……

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

Choosing Coursebooks

- Here are some Criteria for the assessment of course books:

1. Price
2. Availability
3. Layout & design
4. Instructions
5. Methodology
6. Syllabus type, selection and grading
7. Language study activities
8. Language skill activities

9. Topics
10. Cultural acceptability
11. Usability
12. Teacher's guide

<mark>12th Lecture</mark>

Planning Lessons

- Lesson planning is the art of combining a number of different elements into a coherent whole so that a lesson has an identity which students can recognize, work within, and react to --- whatever metaphor teachers may use to visualize and create that identity.

- Plans, which help teachers identify aims and anticipate potential problems, are proposals for action rather than scripts to be followed slavishly, whether they are detailed documents or scribbled notes.

Pre-Planning

- Before we start to make a lesson plan, we need to consider a number of crucial factors such as the language level of our students, their educational and cultural background, their likely levels of motivation, and their different learning styles.
- Such knowledge is, of course, more easily available when we have spent time with a group than it is at the beginning of a course. When we are not yet familiar with the character of a group, we need to do our best to gain as much understanding of them as we can before starting to make decisions about what to teach.
- We also need a knowledge of the content and organization of the syllabus or curriculum we are working with, and the requirements of any exams which the students are working towards.
- Armed now with our knowledge of the students and of the syllabus, <u>we can go on to consider the four main planning elements:</u>

1. **Activities**: When planning, it is vital to consider what students will be doing in the classroom; we have to consider the way they will be grouped, whether they are to move around the class, whether they will work quietly side-by-side researching on the internet or whether they will be involved in group-writing activities. Our first planning thought should center round what kind of activity would be the best for a particular group of students at a particular point in a lesson, or on a particular day. By deciding what kind of activity to offer them, we have a chance to balance the exercises in our lessons in order to offer the best possible chance of engaging and motivating the class. The best lessons offer a variety of activities within a class period.

2. **Skills**: We need to make a decision about which language skills we wish our students to develop. This choice is sometimes determined by the syllabus or the coursebook. However, we still need to plan exactly how students are going to work with skill and what sub-skills we wish to practice.

3. **Language**: We need to decide what language to introduce and have the students learn, practice, research, or use.

4. **Content**: Lesson planners have to select content which has a good chance of provoking interest and involvement.

The Plan

- Having done pre-planning and made decisions about the kind of lesson we want to teach, we can make the lesson plan.

1. The planning continuum: The way that teachers plan lessons depends upon the circumstances in which the lesson is to take place and on the teacher's experience.

2. Making a plan: The following example of making a plan exemplifies how a teacher might proceed from pre-planning to a final plan.

A. **Pre-planning background**: for this lesson, some of the facts that ffed into preplanning decisions are as follows:

- The class is at intermediate level. There are 31 students. They are between the ages of 18 and 31. They are enthusiastic. They participate well when not overtired.
  - The students need ' waking up' at the beginning of a lesson.
  - They are quite prepared to ' have a go' with creative activities.
  - Lessons take place in a light classroom equipped with a whiteboard and an overhead projector.
  - The topic involves forms of transport and different traveling environments.
  - The next item on the grammar syllabus is the construction *should have + DONE.*
  - The students have not had any reading skills work recently.
  - The students need more oral fluency.

B. **Pre-planning decisions**: As a result of the background information listed above, the teacher takes the following decisions:
- The lesson should include an oral fluency activity.
- The lesson should include the introduction of *should have + DONE.*
- It would be nice to have some reading in the lesson.

C. **The Plan**: On the basis of our pre-planning decisions, we now can make our plan. The teacher has taken the decision to have the students read the text about a space station, and build activities around it. The probable sequence of the lesson will be:

- An oral fluency with 'changing groups'.
- Reading for prediction and then gist, in which students are asked to say what they expect to be in a text about a space station, before reading to check their prediction and then reading again for detailed understanding.

 - New language introduction in which the teacher elicits ' should have' sentences and has students say them successfully.
 - Language practice in which students talk about things they did or did not do, and which they should not or should have done.
  - A space job interview in which students plan and role-play an interview for a job in a space station

The Formal Plan

 - Formal plans are sometimes required, especially when, for example, teachers are to be observed and/or assessed as part of a training scheme or for reasons of internal quality control. A formal plan should contain some or all of the following elements:

1. Class description and timetable.
2. Lesson aims (example…… to give students practice in reading both for gist and for detail).
3. Activities, procedures, and timing.
4. Problems and possibilities.

13th Lecture

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. 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. 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.

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:

1. 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.

2. 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.

Types of Test Items

Direct and indirect test items: A test item is *direct* if it asks candidates to perform the communicative skill which is being tested. *Indirect* test items, on the other hand, try to measure a student's knowledge and ability by getting at what lies beneath their receptive and productive skills. Whereas direct test items try to be as much like real-life language use as possible, indirect items try to find out about a student's language knowledge through more controlled items, such as multiple choice questions or grammar transformation items. These are often quicker to design, easier to mark, and produce greater scorer reliability.

Writing and Marking Tests

- At various times during our teaching careers, we may have to write tests for the students we are teaching, and mark the tests they have completed for us. These may range from a lesson test at the end of the week to an achievement test at the end of a term or a year.

A. [Writing Tests](#): Before designing a test and then giving it to a group of students, there are a number of things we need to do:

1. **Assess the test situation**: Before we start to write the test, we need to remind ourselves of the context in which the test takes place. We have to decide how much time should be given to the test-taking, when and where it will take place, and how much time there is for marking.

2. **Decide what to test**: We have to list what we want to include in our test. This means taking a conscious decision to include or exclude skills such as reading comprehension or speaking.

3. **Balance the elements**: If we are to include direct and indirect test items, we have to make a decision about how many of each we should put in our test. Balancing elements involves estimating how long we want each section of the test to take.

4. **Weight the scores**: If we give two marks for each our 10 Multiple Choices Questions (MCQs), but only one mark for each of our 10 transformation grammar items, it means that it is more important for students to do well in the former than in the latter.

5. **Making the test work**: It is absolutely vital that we try out individual items and/or whole tests on colleagues and students alike before administering them to real candidates.

Teaching The Test

When students are preparing for an exam, it is the teacher's responsibility not only to help them get their English to level required, but also familiarize them with the kinds of exam items they are likely to encounter, and give them training in how to succeed. Students can be prepared for future tests and exams in a variety of ways:

1. [Training for test types](#): We can show the various test types and ask them what the items is testing so that they are clear about what is required. We can help them to understand what the test or exam designer is aiming for; by showing them the kind of marking scales that are used, we can make them aware of what constitutes success.

2. [Discussing general exam skills](#): Most students benefit from being reminded about general test and exam skills, without which much of the work they do will be wasted.

3. [Doing practice tests](#): Students need a chance to practice taking the test or exam so that they get a feel for the experience, especially with regard to issues such as pacing.

4. <u>Having fun</u>: Just because students need to practice certain test types does not mean this has to be done in a boring or tense manner. There are a number of ways of having fun with tests and exams.

<mark>14th Lecture</mark>

Types of Test Items

The questions on a test are called items. The word item is preferred because it does not imply the interrogative form. The most common types of items used in language classes are multiple-choice items, short answer items, and communication items.

1. <u>Multiple-choice items</u>: Multiple-choice test items are designed to elicit responses from the students. Since there is only right answer, the scorer can very rapidly mark an item as correct or incorrect. More important, when a group of scorers is reading the same test paper, each of them arrives at the same score (This arrangement is called scorer reliability). The reliability of multiple-choice items and the increased use of electronic computers have led to widespread acceptance of machine-scored answer sheet. The items present the students with four of five options from which they must select the correct answer.

Although the scorer reliability of these machine-scored multiple-choice tests is almost perfect, the validity of each test or each section of the test must be determined separately. Just because a test is 'objective', it is not automatically a good test. Before using any standardized objective test, the teacher should carefully go over the specifications to determine whether they correspond to his or her own reasons for giving the test.

A. **The item**: In a multiple-choice item, the stem is the initial part: either a partial sentence to be completed, a question, or several statements leading to a question or incomplete phrase. The choices from which students must select their answers are known as options, responses, or alternatives. One response, the key, is distinctly correct or more suitable than the others. Incorrect responses are called distractors and should be worded that they seem attractive to the uninformed or poorly informed student. If a distractor is obviously wrong that is never selected, it plays no useful role in the item and should be eliminated or replaced by a new alternative.

B. **Passage items**: Passage items, as the name suggests, are two or more items that refer to a single 'passage': a paragraph, a poem, a conversation, or a visual. The passage may printed in the test booklet, recorded and played over a tape recorder, or projected on a screen. The items that accompany a linguistic passage evaluate how well the students understand what they have just read or heard. Effective passage items should be so constructed that an intelligent native speaker could not arrive at the correct answer without having read or heard the passage. In other

words, students should not be able to answer passage items merely with common sense and a knowledge of the target language. Visual passage items consist of a group of items referring to a single picture, slide, or film. The meaning of the visual should be clear to the students, while the linguistic problems to be tested are found in the responses.

C. **Discrete Items**: Discrete items stand alone. The most common discrete are utterly independent of each other, and their order on a given test could be transposed without changing

their effectiveness. To obtain greater economy in test administration, a series of discrete items employing identical options could be presented as a group. Here is an example in English, where the stem is understood.

**** Indicate whether the following statements refer to past events or to present events. Mark your answer sheet as follows: *A= past, B= present*.

    - They sing beautifully.
    - We came together.
    - You went with my car.

Correct responses: B, A, A .

Discrete language items may also be developed around visual stimuli: drawings, a sequence of clock faces, overhead transparencies, and flash cards.

2. Short-answer Objective items: An objective test item is any item for which there is a single predictable correct answer. Whereas the multiple-choice item format is most often selected for standardizing tests, the classroom teacher typically makes heavy use of short-answer-items. These items may require one-word answers, such as brief responses to questions (oral and written), or the filling in of missing elements. At other times, several words or full sentences may be required.

Like multiple-choice items, the short-answer items may be classified as passage items (for example, questions on a reading) or discrete items. The stimulus may be printed, spoken, visual, or a combination of these presentations. In order to assure the objective nature of short-answer items, the teacher must prepare a scoring system in advance.

3. Communication items: In tests of communicative competence, it is usually impossible to predict precisely how students will respond, for communication allows and indeed encourages creativity on the part of the students. Although one can develop objective items to evaluate listening and reading comprehension, tests of oral and written self-expression elicit free responses that must be scored subjectively.

Communication items are not, therefore, as objective as multiple-choice or short-answer items. However, through the development of an appropriate scoring procedure, it is possible to evaluate student performance with a good degree of objectivity. If communication is one of the major goals of the foreign language course, teachers must give the students the opportunity to demonstrate their ability to communicate, even if such tests are not totally objectives.

General Testing Terminology

1. **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.

2. **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.

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