Self-Access Booklets

for Student-Teachers of English at CFE

FIRST SERIES

Introducing Didactics (1)

Programa de Políticas Lingüísticas
Consejo Directivo Central
Administración Nacional de Educación Pública

(1) This subject belongs to the curricula of CFE-*Profesorado de Inglés*, first year.

ADMINISTRACIÓN NACIONAL DE EDUCACIÓN PÚBLICA
CONSEJO DIRECTIVO CENTRAL
Colonia 1013 Piso 8 oficina 5
Montevideo-Uruguay - C.P. 11100
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Administración Nacional de Educación Pública

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Grupo Asesor en Políticas Lingüísticas

Laura Motta, Rosario Estrada, Ana Gómez, Ana María Lolli, Arcángela Meliande, Anamaría Moreno, Jorge Nández, Shirley Romano, Antonio Stathakis, Gabriela Zaspe

Grupo de Trabajo en Políticas Lingüísticas

Laura Motta, María José González, Cecilia Juri, Gabriela Kaplan, Ana Radesca, María Isabel Rodríguez, Carmen Vaucheret

Compilación y Edición de la Publicación

Gabriela Kaplan

Autor

Gabriel Diaz Maggioli

Dear Reader,

Welcome to the first series of the Self-Access Booklets prepared to enhance the learning of open students at the *Consejo de Formación en Educación de Anep!*

If you are opening this booklet it is because you are on the right track to continue your studies with success, since these texts have been prepared by your teachers in order to actively accompany you in your learning paths, and ensure that self-access means access to pass exams.

The main idea behind these Self-Access Booklets is that knowledge does not belong to any institution or person in particular, but that it is open to be appropriated by all those who are willing to tread upon the path of reading, thinking, analysing and creating their own ideas about the set syllabus which each discipline has designed for your professional development and growth.

The essential objective of these Self-Access Booklets hence, is to make learning democratic by giving a fair chance to every and each one of our students who wants to become a professional teacher of English, whether they are regular or open students.

It is for this reason that the *Programa de Políticas Lingüísticas* at CODICEN has given enthusiastic support to this endeavor.

We sincerely hope you may enjoy your learning!

Laura Motta
Coordinadora
Programa de Políticas Lingüísticas

Gabriela Kaplan
Coordinadora Operativa
Programa de Políticas Lingüísticas

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MODULE 1: Didactics

WHAT IS DIDACTICS?

Didactics is one of the Sciences of Education. In particular, it deals with the processes of teaching and learning. It is different from other Education Sciences in that it concentrates specifically on how teachers, learners and knowledge interact and support one another. Because of this reason, it is a key subject in the teacher education curriculum. Given its emphasis it acts as a hinge between the general education subjects and the subject-specific disciplines, which make up the core of a teacher's knowledge.

However, this definition is quite broad and it can be interpreted from many different perspectives. For example, is Didactics about classroom techniques? Is it about planning? Is it about evaluation?

Also, the very term "Didactics" has positive and negative connotations depending on where it is used. For example, when you talk about Didactics in a North American context, it is taken to mean "traditional education" (e.g. a didactic approach means a teacher-centered approach). On the other side of the Atlantic, though, the meaning is similar to the one adopted by Spanish or Portuguese speakers.

Hence, given that the field and the term are complex ones, we will first explore the history of Didactics and, in so doing, we will try to come to understand it as it is conceived nowadays.

However, at all times, keep in mind that, as with any other professional term, the meanings associated with it vary given the socio-historical conditions in which it is used. After all, any field of human activity is but the response that communities of practice can give to the problems of their day.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF DIDACTICS

There has always been a concern with teaching and learning, since these two processes were first established as a form of ascertaining the continuity of civilization. The first accounts of teaching are those of Socrates and Plato.

Socrates taught through questioning, a teaching method known as "Socratic questioning" even to this day. This method was made explicit by Socrates's pupil Plato in "*The Republic.*" Socrates is generally seen as the first great teacher and this may be because of his tumultuous life and death but also because of his effort to engage students in finding answers on their own (and also because through Plato, we had the opportunity to read about his teaching). His ideas have permeated the educational field and were taken up by other educators.

One such follower was Saint Augustine (354—430) who, in his *De Magistro* adapts the questions to require an expected, dogmatic answer. This was in

keeping with a catechistic approach to teaching and learning. We must remember that in the Middle Ages, education was the task of monks in monasteries, who also held the key to knowledge since they were the ones who copied old manuscripts by hand, since there were no printing presses.

Education in those days was a privilege of the rich and powerful and it was done mainly as apprenticeship: a young man would be put in the service of a wiser, older man who would teach him whatever the young person needed to know. The same was true for the different trades that made up commerce in medieval society.

However, it is not until 1613 when the term *Didactics* is used for the first time by Ratke (1571—1635), one of Jan Amos Komenskyìs ('Comenius' 1592 – 1670) teachers, in his *Aphorismi Didactici Praecipui*. In this particular work, Ratke conceptualizes Didactics as an intuitive kind of learning about reality, stressing the role that induction, psychology and the absence of pressure have on experience.

But it will be his pupil, Comenius, who will define the field for the first time in history and who will establish the basis for Didactics as a science. Comenius' *Didactica Magna* (1640) sets a series of classical principles for the discipline, amongst which we may count:

- Didactics is both an art and a science.
- Teaching should have as its main aim the learning of everything by everyone.
- Teaching and learning should be characterized by speed and effectiveness, prioritizing the key role that language and images play in each of the two processes.

Comenius' greatest achievement was the systematization of the construction of Didactics as a valid science and art. He sets Didactics as separate from Pedagogy and introduces de concept of "method." However, his approach to the matter is a very specific one. He proposes that each discipline should develop its own didactic methods congruent with the purposes and content of the discipline. This stands in stark contrast with previous proposals, which saw the existence of one sole method that could be applied to any area of knowledge. If one looks at Comenius' proposal one can clearly perceive a change from standardization to individualization. To him, each person has the potential to learn anything in so far as the right methods and resources are organized in such a way that allow for the person's intuition to come into contact with a specific area of knowledge. This stands in stark contrast with previous elaborations of the field which saw it as more standard.

Comenius' work will be followed by further efforts towards the individualization of education as those proposed by Rousseau (1712-1778), Pestalozzi (1746-1827) and Froebel (1782-1852). Also, from this moment on, we will be able to perceive a constant swing of a pendulum between two extreme positions: those who saw education as dealing with the transmission

of knowledge via a sole method and those who saw it as happening via specific individualized means. Incredibly enough, even today, there is no agreement and neither should there be, because one thing is certain: there is no best method. Teaching should be at the service of learning and, as Comenius said, teachers should look for all possible alternatives to help everyone learn.

DIDACTICS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE EDUCATION SCIENCES

Because Didactics relates to the processes of teaching and learning, the influence of other education sciences has been rather overwhelming. For example, Psychology helps teachers understand how students learn so they claim that Didactics is part of Psychology. By the same token, Pedagogy is concerned with how people are educated and they also claim that Didactics is part of Pedagogy.

It was not until the twentieth century that Didactics could ascertain its rightful role amongst the sciences of education, independent from Pedagogy, Biology, Sociology, Anthropology or Psychology (Frabboni, 1998). During that century, the process of validation of Didactics as a self-standing and essential discipline in education, oscillated amongst three main perspectives: a traditional perspective emphasizing a technical and prescriptive view of the process of teaching (this is the era of the method and perpetuates the tradition set by St Augustine), a cognitive perspective which positioned the discipline as a problem solving approach to the task of turning knowledge into an object of teaching (this second view was more in keeping with the views of Comenius and his followers), and a "new dimension" (Fiore and Leymonié, 2007) which focuses on the analysis of the processes of teaching and learning through specific curriculum contents in order to develop new strategies for the appropriation of knowledge by students in highly situated contexts.
The constant state of flux to which the discipline has been submitted has rendered it difficult to conceptualize, and has acted in detriment of its epistemological identity, at best.

The advent of the twenty-first century has seen different authors (Vadillo & Klinger, 2004; Camilloni, et. al., 2007; Imen, 2007; Tenti Fantini, 2009) advocating for a reconceptualization of the field which positions it as a theory "necessarily committed to social practices which are oriented towards the design, implementation and evaluation of teaching and learning programs, the design of teaching and learning situations and the orientation and support of students' learning, while identifying and analyzing problems stemming from the teaching and learning processes with a view to providing the best possible learning opportunities for all students and in any educational institution" (Camilloni, 2007: 22).

In this sense, Didactics has evolved from a position of subservience to other disciplines into a subject-specific field of inquiry into teaching and learning serving the purpose of developing situated theories and practices as potential—though tentative—solutions to the problems stemming from the

encounter of individuals with two complementary drives: the drive to share what they know and the drive to gain new knowledge.
It can be rightly claimed that Didactics has transitioned from being a discipline whose sole purpose was the description and prescription of the "art of teaching" to becoming a discipline, which is deeply concerned with the elaboration of context and subject-specific knowledge. This elaboration—be it construction or transmission—results from the interplay of situated cognitions (Feldman, 1999). To this author, cognition does not reside in the minds of individuals, but emerges in the possibilities for their interaction.

This new scenario, might serve as the backdrop to positioning the discipline, within the teacher education curriculum, as the space where theorizing practice and practicing theory (Bullough, 1997) will happen. In other words, in this context, Subject Didactics becomes the realm of praxis, (Freire, 1972) action and reflection which transform the world, and by doing so, claims a crucial role in the development of socially just practices.

If, as Horace Mann claimed, Education "is the great equalizer of the condition of man," then Subject Didactics, the preeminent curriculum area dealing with teaching and learning, should be understood as a space where teacher capacity for social justice can be constructed, negotiated and developed. Giroux (2005: 99) explains that "A social justice stance is, in part, a disposition through which teachers reflect upon their own actions and those presented by others. Rather than passively accepting information or embracing a false consciousness, teachers take a much more active role in leading, learning and reflecting upon their relationship with their practice and the social context in which the practice is situated."

DIDACTICS: GENERAL OR SPECIFIC?

So, what constitutes the field of Didactics? How do teaching and learning interact with knowledge? What is, in short, the structure of Didactics? Is Didactics the same as Methodology? These and other related questions have guided developments in the field of Didactics. For many years, it was considered that Didactics possessed a generality of purpose. If, as many authors claimed, it had to do with teaching and learning, then it could be defined in terms of things that teachers do and things that students do in the classroom. In fact, teaching and learning were seen as one and the same process, a two-way street where knowledge was transmitted from the teacher to the student who, in turn, returned his or her understanding of the teacher's transmission as proof of learning. In this paradigm then, we talk of the teaching and learning process (singular).

However, if we go back to the conceptions of Comenius, we can readily see that each discipline is, in fact, made up on inherently particular knowledge (concepts, facts, skills and dispositions), which is unique and makes the discipline unique as well. For example, the way in which historians approach the study of history is not the same way in which a physicist approaches the study of a natural phenomenon. If we take this example, we can clearly see that

a historian will look for artifacts and documents, which provide accounts of a certain event. They may interview witnesses, look at photos, read documents, and once they have collected all this information, they will provide their own interpretation of the event. This interpretation can be the same that other historian may provide or not.

In the case of the physicist, he or she will first of all observe a certain natural phenomenon in order to develop a hypothesis. This hypothesis will guide the way in which the physicist will collect information and come to conclusions. If the conclusions are in line with the hypothesis, then what will be developed is a thesis, a general statement, which will hold true for all occurrences of this kind of natural phenomena. If the hypothesis proves false, then the physicist will go on to reformulate the hypothesis and collect further data until a plausible, generalizable explanation of the phenomenon can be given.

As you can see, the very nature of the discipline (History or Physics), as well as its modes of thinking about and perceiving reality, is inherently different and unique for each area of human knowledge. Hence, in teaching, we should be able to account for this difference so that learners can have access to the modes of thinking which are specific to each discipline in the curriculum. In this sense, it can be clearly seen that different approaches are needed for each discipline. As a result of this realization, the concept of General Didactics, a unified body of knowledge about teaching and learning which can be applied in all the different disciplines, ceases to make sense. What is needed, then is a Specific Didactics, which allows teachers of a certain discipline or subject to help their learners learn it with rigor and efficacy.

DIDACTIC INTERACTIONS

Didactics is the science of education concerned with the processes of teaching and learning. These are two different processes even though, to some authors, they are two sides of the same process.

For our intents and purposes, we will conceptualize them as two separate although interrelated processes: one dealing with the transformation of knowledge into teachable objects (teaching), and the other dealing with the construction of knowledge via interaction with knowledge but also with teachers and peers (learners). Teaching is concerned with how the teacher adapts his or her knowledge of the subject matter in order to transform it into an object of learning. Teachers generally know much more than their students and their knowledge is both complex and diverse.

For example, back in 1990, Grossman provided a characterization of teacher's knowledge, based on the work of Elbaz and Shulman, which clearly depicts this complexity and diversity. To this author, teacher's knowledge evolves out of the interaction of four interrelated and mutually inclusive areas:

a. Subject matter knowledge: which includes the various paradigms within a field which affect both how the field is

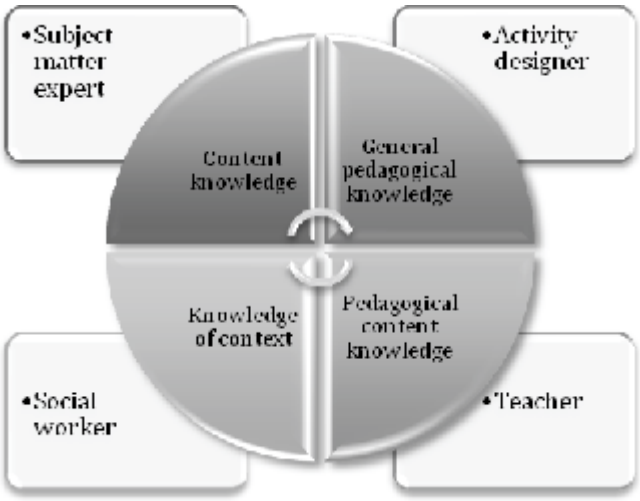
organized and the questions that guide further inquiry together with an understanding of the canons of evidence and proof within a discipline which help members of the discipline evaluate the knowledge claims made. If a teacher only possesses this kind of knowledge, we cannot claim that person is a teacher, but a subject expert.

b. Pedagogical knowledge: to include knowledge about learners and learning, classroom management, curriculum and instruction. Again, this kind of knowledge is not sufficient to make a teacher. Those who possess strong pedagogical knowledge but lack the necessary content knowledge cannot be called teachers but a pedagogues or activity designers.
c. Knowledge of context: encompassing students' backgrounds and identity configurations, knowledge of the educational institution and the community within which it develops its social role and last, but not least, knowledge of the requirements of the school system and the purposes of education in society. If teachers only possess this kind of knowledge then they cannot be called teachers either, but social workers.

What sort of knowledge *makes* a teacher, then? To Grossman (op. cit), besides a strong grounding on all the previously mentioned kinds of knowledge, teachers need to possess a fourth kind of knowledge unique to the profession

d. Pedagogical Content Knowledge: the kind of knowledge that distinguishes between the subject matter expert, the activity designer, the social worker and the experienced teacher. It includes a multitude of facets and is, in itself, an integral part of a teacher's professional landscape. Pedagogical Content Knowledge encompasses: knowledge and beliefs about the purposes for teaching a subject at different grade levels; knowledge of students' understanding, conceptions and misconceptions of particular topics in the subject matter; knowledge of curriculum materials available for teaching the subject matter; knowledge of both horizontal and vertical curriculum alignments for the subject and, knowledge of istructional strategies and representations for teaching particular topics, etc.

The following diagram summarizes these points



Teachers are also influenced by other factors. One such factor is what we can call Teaching Style. A teacher's teaching style is their preferred way of teaching, or, in other words, the teacher's own "method." One basic and classic depiction of teaching styles is the one distinguishing between traditional teachers and progressive teachers. One word of caution about this kind of classifications: Reality is seldom dichotomous, so we cannot claim that only these two styles exist.

Perhaps it would be more useful to conceive of these terms as two ends of a continuum along which teachers move throughout their careers, depending on their needs, the context in which they teach and the challenges posed by their students. Further on in these materials, we will see that, in the same way that teachers have teaching style preferences, students have learning styles preferences and there can be potential conflicts between the teacher's preferred style and that of the students'.

This brings us to the issue of students and the learning process. If we conceptualize the learning process as one in which learners interact with knowledge, their peers, teachers and other school personnel in order to construct new understandings, then we have to pay special attention to what is brought to bear in learning. For a start, learning originates in what the learner already knows.

Human beings are not *tabula rasa*, they are members of social groups and participants in social activities which are meaningful to them. In participating in these activities, learners accrue a baggage of knowledge, which constitutes what we can call background knowledge. This comprises everything that a human being learns inside and outside the classroom, formally or informally, because of observation or as a consequence of interaction with other human beings. This knowledge is neither systematic nor organized. Hence, background knowledge is prone to contain both mistakes and correct information. These are brought to bear when students begin to learn

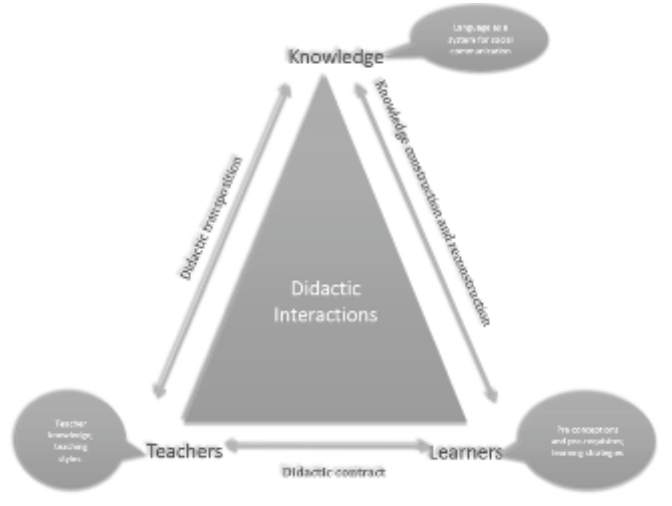
something new. If their background knowledge has a positive correlation to what we want to teach them, then we call this knowledge a pre-requisite. Otherwise, if it does not correlate to what we want to teach, we call it a preconception.

Example:
The teacher is explaining something to students and she uses the word "international" /ʔntʔr'næʔʔnʔl/. One student corrects her by saying: "It's /ʔntʔr'neʔʔʔnʔl/." To which, the teacher replies with "No, it's /ʔntʔr'næʔʔnʔl/" Then, the student says "But I heard it on TV and on the radio!" which is true, in all likelihood, as this word tends to be mispronounced by anchors who do not know English.

Because preconceptions are generally developed outside the classroom, and because students have not had them questioned before, they constitute a very powerful construct, which is difficult to break. However, the skillful teacher will help the students see why their preconceptions are not correct, and also help them build strong pre-requisites.

Another important issue at play in the learning process is that of learning strategies. Learning Strategies are thoughts or actions that we use in order to help ourselves learn. Examples of strategies are planning for a task at hand, monitoring our performance or evaluating it. We all possess and use strategies all the time when we are learning. Some of us may sing to ourselves so as to remember some information, others may draw or order information in a visual way, while others prefer to plan and think before committing to action. These are all ways we have developed to help us remember information, cope with new situations or develop an idea. However, not everyone has the correct strategy for the right situation or is able to apply strategies in those contexts where they are most needed. Hence it is important that teachers help students see what strategies are needed in order to accomplish certain tasks.

We can depict the interactive processes of teaching and learning as a triangle where teachers, learners and knowledge constitute the angles, and the relationships which are established between two of the angles are the place where interactions surface. The following diagram makes this explicit:



Looking at the diagram, we can see that LEARNING is the process in which students interact with knowledge and with learners constructing new meanings from experience. That is to say, each new experience learners have, puts into play the learners' previous knowledge (both pre conceptions and pre-requisites) as well as their learning strategies. This knowledge is contrasted with the new experience and accommodated into what students know. Learning then, is about constructing new meanings from experience and incorporating those new meanings into our background knowledge.

TEACHING, on the other hand is a process teachers go through in their interaction with knowledge by which teachers transform "scientific" or "academic" knowledge into objects of learning. However, in order to do this, teachers need to understand how students learn, and, more importantly, how these particular students learn, what learning strategies they use, which are the most suitable strategies to teach these students this specific content, etc. As we have said before, teachers need to possess high levels of pedagogical content knowledge in order to be able to transpose disciplinary knowledge in such a way that it results in positive student learning.

Finally, out of the interaction between teachers and students, a third form of relating to one another is born. We will call this the "Didactic contract." This refers to the unsaid but ever-present ways in which teachers relate to students. When we talk of discipline in the classroom and also teacher—student rapport, we are talking about this contract. In everyday terms, we say that students "test" how far they can go with one teacher during the first weeks of class, these "testing" results in implicit rules which govern classroom culture. One should be vigilant of the didactic contract implicit in one's teaching because, many times, it may be counter productive in terms of students' learning.

CONCLUSION

In this module we have defined Didactics as the Science of Education, which most directly addresses the processes of teaching and learning. We conceptualized teaching as a process of interaction between teachers and knowledge by which teachers make successive adaptations to scientific or academic knowledge so that it becomes an object of learning. Learning, on the other hand, is a process of interaction between students and knowledge in which learners construct new meanings from experience. In order to do this, they resort to their background or prior knowledge to make sense of the new experiences.

Read Appendices I & II in this Self-Access Booklet

MODULE 2: Learners

> *We can no longer assume that our students are 'simply' students, nor that they are bundles of discrete variables. They are complex human beings who bring with them to the classroom their own individual personality as it is at a given point in time, and this influences how they interact with what we do as teachers.* (Tudor, 2001:14)

LEARNERS AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

In Module 1 we saw how teaching and learning are two complementary processes that come together when two or more people with complementary drives meet. One has the drive to share what he or she knows, while the other has the drive to learn so as to better function in a complex world. Also, in Module 1 we looked at what constitutes teacher knowledge and how that knowledge comes about. It is the turn now to look at the contributions which learners can make to both the teaching and learning processes.

For much of the history of English Language Teaching (ELT), and mostly as a consequence of research carried out in Psychology and Applied Linguistics, learners tended to be seen rather as homogenous "generic and classes entities" (Hall, 2011: 123).

Research has homogenized the perception that all language learners might share common traits thus developing a 'universalist' approach to learner analysis which overlooks the inherent individuality of each learner and the contributions he or she can make to their learning process and also their teacher's teaching endeavors.

In Module 2, we will look at how learners differ as well as to how they are similar. We will explore what research has informed in terms of learner variation from the perspective of the different cognitive, affective and sociocultural variables that influence their learning processes.

The importance of such an approach cannot be overstated because of a multitude of reasons. First of all, language teaching as a profession is experiencing enormous advances and a sustained period of change. An understanding of how students will function amidst these changes is crucial in ascertaining their learning success. Likewise, if learners have contributions to make to the teaching process, these have to be taken into account as a way of guaranteeing their sustained motivation and involvement in the course. Thirdly, having access to this knowledge about learners' variables will allow the teacher to be better prepared to support learners in their quest for conquering the new language. Lastly, in a world where more and more people are learning English at progressively earlier ages, knowing what learners can contribute will help teachers discover new ways of teaching the new learners.

In reviewing the contributions learners can make to the teaching and learning processes, one should be wary that, oftentimes, there are popular beliefs that may or may not have been supported by theory. In approaching each particular learner contribution we will base our opinions on what research has concluded, even if that conclusion is that the research is inconclusive!

LEARNER INDIVIDUALITY (ATTRIBUTES)

AGE

The issue of age in language teaching can raise all sorts of arguments. On the one hand, we have the popular belief that young learners learn better than older learners as it can be clearly seen by the worldwide emphasis on starting English language instruction at a progressively younger age. While it might be true that younger learners may have a more steady and easier phonological development in L2, research is inconclusive as to other aspects. For example, research supports that adult learners generally outdo young learners in the learning of vocabulary. If we review further research, exceptions can always be found for all age groups.

Hence, it would be more useful to approach the influence of age on language learning as a factor to help inform the methods used to teach different age groups instead of as a collection of principles on what works and what does not.

While popular belief asserts that adults have a harder time learning an L2, research has confirmed that in fact, they make more steady and rapid progress than children achieving higher levels of language proficiency over short periods of time. Whether this is a consequence of age or of the teaching approaches espoused by their teachers, cannot be ascertained. What is true is that adults draw on more extensive cognitive capabilities than children and thus they are able to learn about and understand language in more abstract ways, as well.

As for children, they are more likely to profit from informal and naturalistic methods emphasizing hands-on concrete learning experiences through which they can engage in communicating in the new language.

APTITUDE

Notions of aptitude for language learning—having a "natural" capacity for learning languages easily—has received support from both popular belief and research. If we interview teachers, they will certainly acknowledge that there are some learners who seem to possess a "flair" for languages and this is often provided as an explanation as to why these learners succeed. Research is also supportive of the view that language aptitude can be perhaps the best predictor of success in language learning (Skehan, 1989).

Language aptitude is generally determined by the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT). This is a test which originated in the field of Applied Linguistics in the 1950s and which defines language aptitude in terms of phonemic coding ability, awareness of grammatical structures in sentences, the ability to infer the rules of the language (i.e. the ability to learn inductively) and the ability to memorize lexical items. However popular this test is, it also possesses severe limitations. For a start, it favors a teaching method based on memorization of a fixed body of language knowledge with a heavy dependence on the analysis of grammar and vocabulary. Hence, it may not yield true aptitude information in cases where learners learn language through more holistic methods (for example, by being immersed in the language). In the latter case, learners do not memorize lists of words or analyze the grammar of individual sentences but rather engage in natural communication.

So, we know that language aptitude exists and can be measured but a serious dilemma with the concept is that it is generally conceived of as a genetic and stable learner endowment. If this is the case, then it cannot be influenced through teaching. Hence, learners who do not have a natural ability for languages are doomed. What research has failed to account for is how aptitude works in relation with other learner factors such as motivation, or how language aptitude can be assessed when learners have been exposed to methods with reduced language analysis. It can be concluded that, while a useful concept to help teachers shape courses, language aptitude does not by itself explain success in language learners. Other relevant factors need to be taken into consideration.

PERSONALITY

Personality has to do with WHO learns, and deals with issues of identity which cannot stand on their own but connect to all other areas of learner contribution. Larsen Freeman (2001) identifies several aspects of learner variation regarding personality. Some of these are:

- extraversion / introversion
- self-esteem anxiety
- sensitivity to rejection
- empathy inhibition
- tolerance of ambiguity

In order to illustrate the relevance of this area of learner contribution, we will expand on two of the above.

Introversion and extraversion

These factors will change with age, but also with motivational and learning styles. However, understanding how some of these factors impact learning can be a useful tool for teachers to organize learning experiences.

For example, research has explained that extravert students—who are

characterized by their sociability and impulsivity—will profit more from an approach to teaching which emphasizes communication and oral language development activities. In contrast, introvert students who tend to be introspective, reserved and good at planning prefer an academic style of teaching which allows them to display their logical and precision-oriented style of thinking.

ANXIETY

Anxiety has been defined as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with L2 contexts" (McIntyre and Gardner, 1994, in Larsen-Freeman, 2001:17).

Anxiety, like age, is an issue over which there is no agreement. For example, anxiety can be the root cause of poor performance or it can be caused by it. Also, there exist different kinds of anxiety, such as:

- acceptance anxiety – the fear of not being accepted by other group members.
- orientation anxiety – the fear of not being able to cope with course requirements.
- performance anxiety – the fear of not doing well in class.
- competitive anxiety – the tension of having constantly to outdo your peers.

Alongside these differences, there is research supporting the fact that a certain degree of anxiety is necessary for learners to be able to actually learn effectively. This claims points out that, when learners do not experience any tension while learning, their levels of motivation tend to plummet. However, given that research is inconclusive as to the actual impact of anxiety, teachers need to keep a vigilant eye on how high the levels of anxiety generated in their classes are so as to help students avoid unhelpful forms of anxiety that could have a severely negative effect on their learning.

GENDER

Sunderland (2004: 229) defines gender as "the socially shaped (as opposed to biologically determined) characteristics of women and men, boys and girls." With this quote, he is emphasizing that gender identity is a socially-constructed personal self-concept we use to label our conception as being male, female, something in between or something different altogether. It should not be confused with the category sex, which refers to our biological makeup, and uses certain biological markers (such as our genitals or our chromosomal makeup) to create the distinction between males and females.

Gender is a frequently neglected area of language teaching and learning research. However, in the broader field of education, significant research has been carried out on gender differences particularly in relation to how girls perform in school and this research has been extrapolated to the ELT field. Popular belief holds that girls are better than boys at academic tasks, while boys tend to outperform girls at oral interaction in the classroom. However, one can attribute these claims to social and cultural roles and expectations.

Research on gender differences in ELT is, again, inconclusive as there is evidence that all are equally capable of learning. The challenge for teachers, though is to find ways to best support their learners.

LEARNER CONTRIBUTIONS (ATTITUDES)

MOTIVATION

According to Dörnyei (2001:1) motivation is "an abstract, hypothetical concept that we use to explain why people think and behave as they do. It is obvious that in this sense the term subsumes a whole range of motives—from financial incentives such as a raise in salary to idealistic beliefs such as the desire for freedom—that they have very little in common except that they all influence behavior. Thus, 'motivation' is best seen as an umbrella term that covers a variety of meanings." Williams and Burden (1997:120) argue that motivation is "a state of cognitive and emotional arousal that leads to a conscious decision to act during a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort so that they can attain a previously set goal or (goals)."

There are as many conceptualizations of motivation as there have been research projects on the issue. Again, research has failed to provide one clear-cut categorization of what motivation is, how it operates and how teachers can best adapt their teaching so as to ascertain that learners are motivated. What is certain is that motivation exerts a powerful influence on learners and their learning process and that it is an individual trait over which teachers have little influence. Hence, we should be familiar with the different theories, which attempt to explain motivation so as to be able to provide our students with their best chances. The following table summarizes four of the most popular theories on the subject:

Name of the theory	Main motivational components	Main motivational tenets and principles
Self-efficacy theory Bandura (1997)	*Perceived self-efficacy*	Self-efficacy refers to people's judgment of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks, and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine their choices of the activities attempted, the amount of effort exerted and the persistence displayed
Attribution theory Weiner (1992)	*Attributions about past successes and failures*	The individual's explanation of why past successes and failures have occurred has consequences on the person's motivation to initiate future actions. In school contexts ability and effort have been identified as the most dominant perceived causes, and it has been shown that past failure that is ascribed by the learner to low ability hinders future achievement behavior more than failure that is ascribed to insufficient effort
Self-determination theory Deci and Ryan (1985); Vallerand (1997)	*Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation*	Intrinsic motivation concerns behavior performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity. Extrinsic motivation involves performing a behavior as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment. Human motives can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation.
Social motivation theory Weiner (1994); Wentzel (1999)	*Environmental influences*	A great deal of human motivation stems from the sociocultural context rather than from the individual.

Table 2.1 – Motivation Theories (adapted from Dörnyei, 2001)

BELIEFS, PREFERENCES AND MISCONCEPTIONS

The next set of learner contributions is inextricably linked to student's motivation. Beliefs exert a powerful influence on the teaching and learning processes since they are generally coded in childhood and through sustained interaction with family and other community members. Hence, the way in which students perceive the target language or target language community will have a direct influence on students' motivation.

Students bring to class different kinds of beliefs. They have beliefs about themselves as people, but also as learners and, more specifically as language learners. Likewise they hold beliefs about language and language learning in general. These beliefs can help boost motivation if students perceive themselves as able to learn the target language but they can also act against that motivation if students have had prior experiences of failure in learning the language or languages in general.

Besides these beliefs inherent to each individual, learners also bring to class the beliefs of "influential others" (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). These can be family members, friends, the media or former teachers who have exerted their influence and led the individual to believe strongly in certain aspects of teaching and learning. Some examples of these beliefs are: how lessons should the taught, the role of translation in the language classroom, the role of grammar in the language classroom, or how errors should be corrected. These are generally based on their own prior experiences and not necessarily, the experiences of the learner. However, they are brought to bear in the language classroom.

As we have seen in Module 1, these beliefs can also lead students to develop misconceptions which may stand in the way of their progress in the target language. The skillful teacher will use these beliefs and misconceptions to help students see how they learn and what can be done to enhance their learning experience. This kind of awareness-raising has the potential of leading learners towards more self-directed and autonomous behavior, which is why teachers should grab any chance of these beliefs surfacing to provide clarification.

LEARNING STYLES

Skehan (1998:237) defines learning styles as "the characteristic manner in which an individual chooses to approach a learning task." To Diaz Maggioli (1995:5) "When it comes to learning, we tend to adhere to techniques and procedures to help ourselves come to grips with whatever new knowledge we may encounter. This way of handling new information by making use of our habitual or preferred methods is called our learning style.

Everyone possesses various learning styles. These derive from personal dispositions (how I am most comfortable learning), personal choices (what helps me learn better), prior learning experience (how I succeeded in learning

this content before) and innate endowments (my brain is 'wired' to learn in a certain way). While some of the literature tends to view learning styles as permanent learner characteristics, there is evidence that we all possess multiple learning styles that we develop as our experience in certain fields or with certain tasks evolves. Hence, when addressing the topic of learning styles it is best approached from an inclusion rather than exclusion perspective. In other words, teachers should look for the individual learning style preference of all their learners and differentiate their teaching accordingly but bearing in mind that what learners display in terms of preferred styles is not set in stone.

Some of the most popular depictions of learning styles stem from cognitive psychology applied to teaching. Such is the case of the field-dependence vs. field-independence depiction of learning styles developped by Witkin, et al (1977). The table below summarizes the main characteristics of this categorization of learning styles.

Field independence	Field dependence
1. Impersonal orientation i.e. reliance on internal frame of reference in processing information	1. Personal orientation i.e. reliance on external frame of reference in processing information
2. Analytic i.e. perceives a field in terms of its component parts; parts are distinguished from background	2. Holistic i.e. perceives field as a whole; parts are fused with background
3. Independent i.e. sense of separate identity	3. Dependent i.e. the self view is derived from others
4. Socially sensitive i.e. greater skill in interpersonal/social relationships	4. Not so socially aware i.e. less skilled in interpersonal/social relationships

Table 2.2 – Field-dependent and field-independent learning styles

During the 1980s other categories of learning styles also appeared. One popular classification is based on the work of David Kolb (1984) and his model of *experiential learning*. This theory presents a cycle in which all humans engage when learning. According to Kolb, when humans are given the chance to apply knowledge, skills and feelings to concrete situations they engage in an experiential learning cycle comprising four distinct stages. While the learner could start the process at any of the four given stages, the experiential cycle follows to the next immediate step (for example, you cannot start your learning process with a concrete experience stemming from a particular situation and

jump off to applying it without previously reflecting and deriving generalizations from it, if you truly intend to learn. The experiential learning cycle has been generally depicted as a circle comprising the following four quadrants:

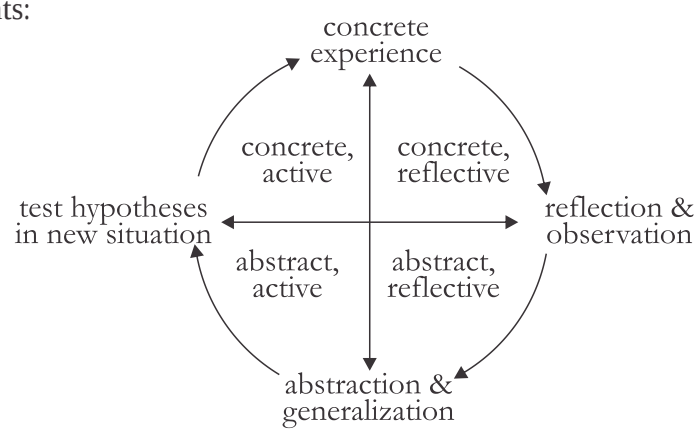


Figure 2.3 – Kolb's experiential learning cycle.

These four stages of the experiential learning cycle, give rise to the notion of four distinct (albeit complementary) learning styles: accommodating, diverging, converging and assimilating.

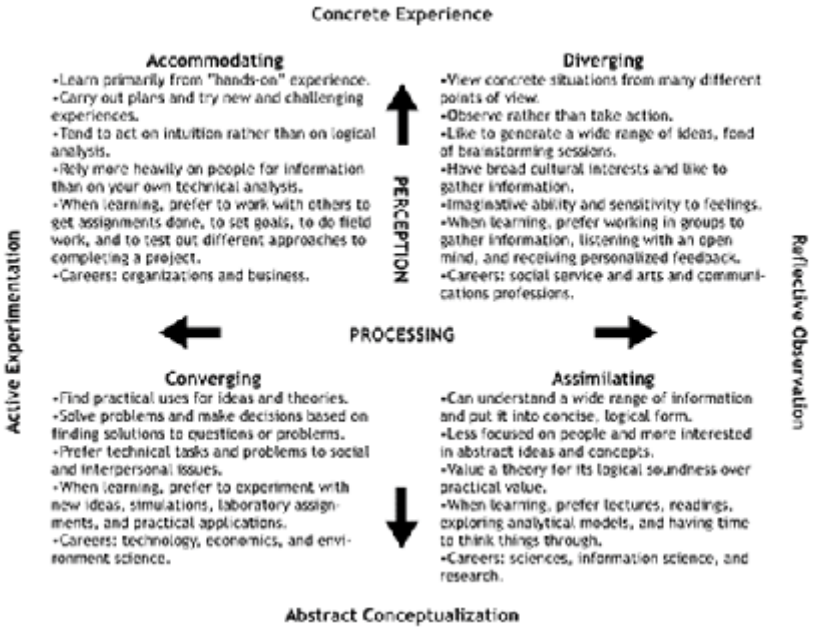


Figure 2.2 – Learning styles based on Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory.

Other categorizations of learning styles seek to describe typical learning behaviors students who have particular sensory preferences use at the time of learning. Generally described as the VAK model, these learning styles address learning as stemming from the engagement of one of four channels: visual (learning by looking), auditory (learning by listening), kinesthetic (learning by emotion and action) and tactile (learning by concrete experiences).

No matter what categorization is used, learning styles provide a useful heuristic teachers can resort to at the time of planning their lessons, designing practice or application activities, assessing their learners and engaging them in further learning opportunities. While there is no agreement on which is the right theory, the fact remains that every individual is different and teachers should strive to differentiate their teaching in order to reach every single of their students.

THE GOOD LANGUAGE LEARNER (ACTIONS)

At the beginning of this module we mentioned that second language acquisition research has prompted a view that understands learners as unspecific, and the classes they are in as homogenous. This trend started particularly in the 1970s with the shift of research from what teachers did in order to promote learning, toward what learners contributed to the process. In this context, it seemed relevant to study what good language learners did in order to enhance their learning experience.

The first groundbreaking characterization of the good language learner was provided by Joan Rubin (1975) and set the tone for further research on what differentiates successful language learners from those who are not so. Rubin's research provided the following characterization of "good language learners." They:

- are willing and accurate guessers who are comfortable with uncertainty;
- have a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication, and are willing to do many things to get their message across;
- are often not inhibited and are willing to appear foolish if they can achieve reasonable communication results;
- are prepared to attend to form, constantly looking for patterns in the language;
- practice, and also seek opportunities to practise;
- monitor their own speech and the speech of others, constantly attending to how well their speech is being received and whether their performance meets the standards they have learned;
- attend to meaning, knowing that in order to understand a message, it is not sufficient to attend only to the grammar or surface form of a language.

(Adapted from Rubin, 1975: 45-46)

Further research on the topic existed throughout the 1970s and 1980s but this monolithic view of learners soon encountered criticisms. To start with, critics claimed that the traits identified by Rubin and her followers are characteristic of Western students and do not necessarily apply to other cultures. Along the same lines, other critics emphasized that the ability to consciously behave in a

certain way is contingent upon students' personality traits, learning style and motivation, among many other factors, and cannot be taken as a given. Hence, we get to see once again how the fact that research results are inconclusive nevertheless opens up doors for teachers to revisit their beliefs and begin to take student differences into consideration. Just as is the case with learning styles, the generalizations about this mythological "good language learner" remind us of the need to examine our way of teaching in light of what students can potentially contribute to the teaching and learning processes.

LEARNING STRATEGIES

If learning styles are students' preferred ways of accessing new information, then learning strategies are the tools students use in order to process that information. Learning strategies have been defined as thoughts or actions which people use in order to help themselves learn better. The fact that the definition includes both thoughts and actions, indicates that learning strategies are one feature of active, experiential learning as well. Research on learning strategies, (Oxford, 1990; Uhl Chamot, 2009) seems conclusive in terms of the inherent value of explicitly teaching students how to manage information and their own learning process.

This trend to explore language learning strategies surfaced as a natural follow-up to prior research focusing on the "good language learner." In the words of Rubin (1975: 45) "The differential success of second/foreign language learners suggests a need to examine in detail *what strategies successful language learners employ*...In addition to the need for research on this topic, it is suggested that *teachers can already begin to help their less successful students improve their performance by paying more attention to learner strategies already seen as productive*." [emphasis added]

With this assertion, the ground for research on what learners can do in order to learn better was set. From among the many theories on learning strategies two gained immediate popularity given their clarity and readiness for application to concrete classroom situations.

Oxford (1990: 8) defined learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to other situations." Oxford speaks of direct and indirect strategies.

- Direct strategies for dealing with the new language itself:
    - Memory strategies to remember more effectively, e.g., using flashcards to remember new vocabulary;
    - Cognitive strategies to use all one's mental processes; e.g., trying to identify patterns in the L2;
    - Compensation strategies to compensate for missing knowledge; e.g., guessing the meaning when a word is unfamiliar.

- Indirect strategies for the general management of learning:

    - Metacognitive strategies for organizing and evaluating learning; e.g., noticing mistakes and using that information to develop;
    - Affective strategies for managing emotions; e.g., noticing anxiety when using English;
    - Social strategies for learning with others; e.g., asking people to slow down or repeat themselves.

    (Oxford, op.cit.: 14—16; 293—6)

At about the same time Oxford developed this model of learning strategies, Uhl Chamot (2001:25), originally working with J. Michael O'Malley, presented an alternative framework in which they defined learning strategies as "the techniques and procedures that facilitate a learning task." Chamot and O'Malley's framework (2009: 58) addresses three kinds of strategies:

- Metacognitive strategies-executive processes used in planning for learning, monitoring one's own comprehension and production, and evaluating how well one has achieved a learning objective;
- Cognitive strategies-manipulating the material to be learned mentally (as in making images or elaborating) or physically (as in grouping items to be learned or taking notes); and
- Social / Affective strategies-either interacting with another person in order to assist learning, as in cooperative learning and asking questions for clarification, or using affective control to assist learning tasks or overcome anxiety.

Two questions arose as a consequence of the publication of these frameworks. Is effective learning about having enough learning strategies? Is effective learning about using the right strategies in the right context? Further research on these questions seems to confirm that both are important. This opened up interesting pathways to begin valuing what students contribute to the class.

LEARNING AUTONOMY AND LEARNER TRAINING

The extensive and intensive work on learning strategies also gave rise to a multitude of approaches and developments. Amongst the most interesting developments the movement towards learner autonomy needs to be highlighted. Spearheaded by the growing interest on learning strategies, the learner autonomy movement developed as a form of essential teacher support. Learner training refers to providing students with explicit instruction on learning strategies so that they can become more self-directed and autonomous. Holec (1981, in Hall 2011: 154) defines learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". The certainty that remains, though is that learners have the potential to significantly affect their learning process either by nature or nurture. Hence, recognising that our students need tools that will allow them to extend their learning both in and beyond our classrooms is crucial. We should instruct our learners in a range of strategies that will help them learn independently; these strategies may include effective reading strategies, deducing meaning from context, awareness of how paralinguistic features affect communication, use of monolingual dictionaries and effective recording of vocabulary. By introducing these strategies, we hope to increase both learner autonomy and learner confidence. This development took two main forms. One, which we can call explicit, involved textbooks, which began incorporating elements of learning strategies as part of the coursework. In this context, learning strategies were presented alongside the learning materials acting as a scaffold for new learning. In contrast, the implicit movement dedicated specific time and materials to training students in the use of strategies regardless of the context.

Both Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) built a very strong case for explicit instruction closely tied to the context in which they should be applied. However, research has proved inconclusive as to the effectiveness of decontextualized learning strategy training. While research is again inconclusive as to which of the two ways is preferable, there seems to be consensus that, just for the sake of saving students' time, learner training is best done in the context of language teaching and not as a separate subject.

CONCLUSION

Learners' attributes, attitudes and actions play a fundamental role in their language learning success. Although these attributes, attitudes and actions have disparaging support from research, the fact remains that, when taken into consideration, they afford teachers the opportunity to frame their teaching in ways which best support student learning. As such, they should become one of the cornerstones of any teaching approach for as Cook (2008:117) reminds us *"students often know best. It is the learners' involvement, the learners' strategies and the learners' ability to go their own way that count, regardless of what the teacher is trying to do."*

Read Appendix III

MODULE 3: Language

WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Throughout the history of language teaching, there have been competing conceptualizations of language. Language is a complex social phenomenon, which has many dimensions. Hence, it is impossible to agree on a single definition.

However, taking a look at different learning theories and assessing the role that language plays in them can shed light on this complex phenomenon. For a language teacher, the definition of language plays a pivotal role. It is through that espoused definition that language teachers will interpret language and turn it into an object of teaching. Hence, it is fundamental that we are clear as to what we understand by language and how that view affects our teaching.

The definitions of language have been closely tied to learning theories stemming mostly from Psychology although Linguistics has also played an important role in shaping our understanding of language.

Current understandings of language claim that it should be understood in relation to the contexts in which language is used. This understanding has important ramifications. For a start, it points to the fact that language is much more than a linguistic code we use to label the world around us. It is a powerful semiotic system for the negotiation of meanings, which evolve from engagement in concrete activities. This implies that the language one uses in one context may or may not be appropriate in other contexts. Hence, language learning should emphasize not just the mastery of linguistic codes, but of the social uses of those codes in light of the communicative needs of the speakers who interact.

However, this was not the case with previous conceptualizations of the term. We will now look at three relevant theories of learning in order to be able to understand the relevance of the current definition we are proposing.

BEHAVIOURISM

The first half of the twentieth century was dominated by a view, which saw learning as a matter of habit-formation. Influenced by the work of theoreticians such as John B. Watson, or B.F. Skinner (who based their theory in experiments carried out by the Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov), Behaviourists saw learning as stemming from habit formation. To them, effective learning was a matter of reinforcing good habits, while errors were seen as bad habits.

B.F. Skinner, in particular, developed a radical form of Behaviourism and posited that learning happened through a three-step reinforcement cycle. This cycle started with a stimulus, which triggered a response in the organism (in

our case, humans). If the response was correct, it was to be reinforced positively. However, if the response was incorrect, it was to be punished or negatively reinforced. Skinner based his theory in his study of rats in laboratory conditions. He invented what is known as the Operant Conditioning Chamber, a maze with levers where rats and pigeons were put in order to study them. The procedure involved the animals in trying to get out of the maze by going through it. At some points, there were levers, which the animals were supposed to press. If they pressed the right levers they got food (positive reinforcement), but if the lever they pressed was the wrong one they received an electric shock (negative reinforcement). With time, animals learned to press the correct levers and stay away from the ones that would give them no food or an electric shock.

Skinner also invented a "learning machine," an apparatus that asked learners questions, which could be responded by pressing the correct button. If learners answered the question correctly, they were rewarded by a certain sound. If the answer was incorrect, learners could not progress to the next question and this was indicated by a different sound.

The influence of behaviourism is still felt in many areas of education. For example, the use of the blackboard / whiteboard, the way classrooms are set up with chairs facing the front of the class, the use of questions and answers to review materials, multiple choice and true / false questions, and, in language teaching, repetition drills are all products of Behaviorism.

Skinner understood language as a series of habits to be acquired. He denied that the mind or internal cognitive processes could have any kind of role in learning. To him, because internal mental processes could not be observed, they were rendered ineffective to analyze. Instead, he posited, we should focus on the overt, observable effect of those mental states and study them as proof of learning. Skinner's theory of learning, and particularly language learning, was laid out in a book that became the main reference for educators around the world. In 1957, he published *Verbal Behavior* through the US-based Copley Publishing Group. While this book was the peak of his research and a synthesis of his life's work, it would also be his downfall.

CHOMSKY'S CONTRIBUTIONS

In 1959, Noam Chomsky, a linguist at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) published a review of Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* in which he discredits behaviourist theory and advances a new understanding of how language is learned.

According to Chomsky, behaviorism cannot account for the fact that children produce original sentences they have never heard before or above and beyond any language they have been exposed to before. If, as Skinner proposed, stimuli are the reason why responses are given, how is it possible for children to produce new language formations without ever having received that stimulus?

To Chomsky, there should be something else, beyond overt behaviour that accounts for the capacity to learn and use language. In his view, we are born with a predisposition to learn and use language. Hence, his view of language and language learning is termed “innatism.” We are innately endowed with the power of language learning. However, it should be noted that we are not born with a language. Instead, our mind has the innate capacity to hypothesize and discover rules based on the language we have received. This ability to create new language depends on an intuitive knowledge of rules. Given that children are exposed to “messy” language in use, it is notable that with some trial and error and, in a relatively short period of time, children are able to discover rules of language, which are inevitably correct. This realization led Chomsky to hypothesise about the existence of an innate Language Acquisition Device (L.A.D.) responsible for supporting the existence of a Universal Grammar (U.G.). This UG shapes all human languages in much the same way as we are born with the ability to learn to run.

Alongside these concepts, Chomsky also marked a clear difference between knowledge of the language (which he calls “competence”) and the actual use of that knowledge for communication (which he calls “performance”). To Chomsky, UG is primarily concerned with competence; hence the deep structure of any language is made up of very few elements that can be combined in various forms to express different meanings at the performance level. By putting the intentional element in his theory, Chomsky managed to override behaviorist theory completely. Our linguistic competence allows us to create completely original sentences we have never heard before such as “The small pink elephant spread its wing and dove into the heights of the ocean.” While the sentence is completely grammatical, it is totally meaningless. Unless we are intentionally using these words to create poetical images, it is clear that language use is much more than just responding to outside stimuli.

Chomsky's ideas took the world of language learning by storm, and although he based his research only on L1 acquisition and explicitly claimed that he was “frankly, rather skeptical about the significance, for teaching languages, of such insights and understandings, as have been attained in linguistics” (Chomsky, 1966: 152), his ideas also had an impact on L2 learning and teaching.

Accepting the theory of UG implies, for L2 learning, that learners have their own transitional form of their language, which is internally developing and follows an in-built learning path. This is called “interlanguage.” Interlanguage is a theory created by S.P. Corder (1967), which regards the learner's L2 as a system in its own right – a system with its own grammar, lexis and pronunciation. One difference is that the learner's system has a much smaller lexicon (vocabulary) than the native speaker's – not only of words, but crucially of multi-word lexical items such as collocations and fixed expressions. Perhaps more interesting and complex are the differences in grammatical systems. The learner's system has simpler and fewer rules. For example, the grammatical system of a beginner student of English may contain the rule 'all verbs for all persons and all time references use the base

form'. Of course this rule is never explicitly expressed but can be inferred from the student's output.

The learner's grammatical system may also be influenced by rules from their L1, a theory generally known as “L1 interference” and which affects all language systems: syntax, lexis, phonology and pragmatics.

One way of looking at Interlanguage is as a kind of learner dialect. At lower levels this dialect is simple, with a restricted lexicon, few grammatical rules and a pronunciation system borrowed from their L1. At higher levels, this dialect is more similar to the target language with a large lexicon, a grammatical system similar to that of native speakers and native-like pronunciation. Interlanguage is therefore a continuum with the learners' language gradually moving towards that of a native speaker.

Chomsky's ideas have given rise to many pervasive influences felt today in language teaching. One such influence is the marked emphasis on the explicit teaching of grammar present in many textbooks and classes. Also, the whole area of feedback to students has been affected, with many proponents suggesting that indirect correction is better than direct correction since we are dealing with students' interlanguage.

CONSTRUCTIVISM

Chomsky's ideas need to be understood within the frame of a theory of learning, which challenged Behaviorism and proposed a radically different view of learning and teaching. This theory is called Constructivism and it originated in the work of epistemologist Jean Piaget. Piaget was interested in discovering the origin of knowledge or, in other words, how we come to know the world.

Piaget's theory relies heavily on a cognitive view of the processes involved in learning. He posited that the development of cognitive structures is a matter of biological regulation. He carried out his studies with children and adolescents and concluded that learning is a matter of two interrelated processes: assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is the taking of new information or experiences and incorporating them into our existing “knowledge bank” or schemata. Encountering this new information causes an imbalance in our schemata. Hence, through an experiential process we progressively accommodate this new knowledge or experience so as to reestablish balance in our cognition through a process called accommodation. This process entails changing our existing schemata or ideas, as a consequence of new knowledge or experience.

Piaget views these processes as occurring throughout an individual's lives with individuals being in a constant search for equilibration. However, he considers that there needs to exist a certain biological predisposition for an individual to be able to engage in the process of assimilation.

However, the best-known part of Piaget's theory is that of the stages of development. He distinguished the following stages with their respective characteristics:

- Sensorimotor stage (birth to 2 years of age)
  - Children experience the world through their five senses. During this stage children are very egocentric, i.e. they cannot perceive the world through others' points of view. During this stage, children move from simple reflexes to progressively developing control over their senses.
- Preoperational stage (2 to 7 years of age)
  - During this stage, motor skills are developed. Children are still egocentric, but this tendency decreases as they become older and begin to take perspective. Children's imagination is at its peak during this period but they cannot think logically, yet.
- Concrete operational stage (7 to 11 years of age)
  - During this stage, children begin to think logically if presented with practical, concrete aids. They are also able to "decenter," that is to say, to perceive the world from others' point of view. The egocentric phase disappears.
- Formal operational stage (11 to 16 years of age and onwards)
  - It is during this stage that children develop their abstract thinking and are fully capable of using logical thinking. Egocentrism has disappeared and is replaced by a feeling of belonging to groups.

Piaget's ideas about learning and development have left an important imprint in education. Methodologies, such as Active Learning and Discovery Learning, stem from his conceptualization of development as a precursor of learning. His ideas became really potent during the second half of the twentieth century and spurred the "student centered" movement in Pedagogy.

We should bear in mind that Piaget's education came mostly from the natural sciences. Hence, his thinking is highly typological. The description of human development in stages is a clear example of this. Although he did not directly address the process of language acquisition, he did consider it a fundamental cognitive process, which aids both development and learning. In the field of linguistics, his ideas were used as the basis for models of language acquisition such as Krashen's Input Hypothesis.

STEPHEN KRASHEN

Stephen Krashen is a linguist and researcher based in California. During the late 1970s and early 1980s he developed a model of language acquisition, which borrows heavily from the work of Chomsky and Piaget and is also influenced by the work of the Russian psychologist Lev S. Vygotsky.

Krashen's work posits that language is acquired in a natural way. He makes a parallelism between the learning of the first language and the learning of the second language. His theory of language acquisition is built around a series of hypotheses. These hypotheses speculate about the process of language development taking examples from the interaction between children and their caretakers and how this interaction affects the way in which children develop their language. His five hypotheses are the following:

- Acquisition / Learning Hypothesis
    - Krashen sustains that there are two ways in which we develop language skills. We can do it in a natural way, through sustained exposure to the language and an emphasis on comprehension or through conscious focus on language features. He calls the first process "language acquisition" and in his theory, it is the stronger of the two in that it has supposedly more lasting effect than the second process. The second process involves the learner consciously working, studying the different systems and committing that information to memory. Krashen calls this process "language learning" and he claims that it is less effective than language acquisition.

- Monitor hypothesis
    - When we acquire language we are able to do so because we possess an internal mechanism, which allows us, as our process of acquisition develops, to identify correct and incorrect statements. This can be equated with Chomsky's L.A.D. in that it is an innate capacity inherent to all humans. However, there are different kinds of "monitor users." Krashen describes monitor overusers as those speakers who are constantly assessing and planning what they are going to say. In this scenario, their expression is slow and cumbersome. In contrast, there can be monitor underusers, who are very fluent but who are very inaccurate in their use of the language. Krashen assumes that both these situations can be remedied if we focus on acquisition more than learning, sincev acquisition is supposed to foster optimal monitor use: subconscious intuitive knowledge of correctness.

- Input hypothesis
    - According to Krashen, we understand input, which is comprehensible, that is to say, input which is only slightly above our current level of understanding. He

posits the formula *i+1* to represent comprehensible input. In this formula, "i" stands for input, or language the learner is exposed to. The "+1" element in the formula refers to the difference between what learners actually know and what they can understand but do not yet know. This relates heavily to the next hypothesis: Natural Order. Many people see a connection between this framework and Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development construct. However, this is not the case. Vygotsky's theory presupposes that learning precedes development whereas in Krashen's model acquisition (i.e. language development) precedes and even supersedes learning.

- Natural Order hypothesis
    - In Krashen's model, language acquisition occurs through predictable stages and following a predictable path, which is not affected by direct instruction. In other words, teachers may teach students a new grammar item but, if it is not the one specified in the sequence of acquisition, it will not be learned. In this sense, he considers that all humans go through the same predictable path in acquiring new syntactic features of the target language and he offers a list of these features for English. In his elaboration of the "i+1" formula, the "+1" refers to the next syntactic feature in his path to acquisition. This conceptualization borrows heavily from Piaget's idea of readiness for learning.

- Affective filter hypothesis
    - In this final hypothesis, Krashen attempts to explain why different learners exposed to the same comprehensible input show different levels of acquisition of that input. The affective filter is a kind of barrier to acquisition, which goes up when the student is tense, angry, threatened, over-faced or just has a negative attitude to the language. The filter stays down when the learner is relaxed and well motivated. When the filter is "up" the learner cannot pay attention to the learning because he or she is uncomfortable. However, when the filter is "down" the learner is able to focus on meaning and the language learning experience at hand.

LEV S. VYGOTSKY

No analysis of learning theory or language learning would be complete without addressing the contributions of Lev S. Vygotsky. Working at the same time as Piaget, and also adopting the view that language acquisition was driven by external factors rather than being led by an innate acquisition device, Lev Vygotsky believed both first and second languages are learned via social interaction. Learning a language requires *mediation* by a more able party (such as a parent, teacher or more knowledgeable peer) who provides a supportive framework (or 'a mediated learning experience') for the learner until the new knowledge is *appropriated*, at which point learning has occurred and the mediation can be removed.

Learning is therefore seen as a 'joint enterprise' involving two or more people, so that whereas learners are unable to function independently, they can function successfully if given assistance. In devising this 'sociocultural learning' theory, Vygotsky referred to a learner's *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD), this being the difference between what learners can do by themselves and what they can do with the help of others.

Vygotsky's theory of learning has also other important ramifications. He explained that all forms of human cognition happen first as external forms of social mediation and become internalized through interaction with others and the use of psychological tools. To him, language is one of the most important of these tools. To him, language and thought start as two separate processes in the child. However, through socialization, the child progressively acquires control over the language (through interaction with parents, caretakers and other speakers) so that it becomes a tool for thinking. Once the child is able to “think in words” his thinking develops in such a way that the more he thinks, the more his language also develops. So, language is both a tool for and a product of thinking.

Contrary to Piaget's view, Vygotsky emphasized that in order for development to occur, learning must precede it. He cites examples of children of different ages playing together in which a child who is not supposedly "organically ready" to do something learns how to do it through the mediation of a play partner who can.

Unfortunately, Vygotsky died very young in 1936 and left few writings (mostly transcripts from his lectures). Also, his ideas were not brought to the Western world until the late 1970s and that is why we have only recently begun exploring his theory and its influence for language learning.

The table in the following page summarizes the main tenets of the learning theories we have discussed so far:

	Behaviourism **Skinner**	**Constructivism** **Piaget**	**Social Interactionism** **Vygotsky**
What is Knowledge?	Fixed body to acquire. Stimulated from the outside	Changing body of knowledge, individually constructed in social world. Built on what learner brings.	Socially constructed knowledge. Built on what participants contribute, construct together
What is Learning?	Acquisition of facts, skills, concepts. Occurs through drills and guided practice	Active construction, restructuring prior knowledge. Occurs through multiple opportunities and diverse processes to connect what is already known.	Collaborative construction of socially defined knowledge and values. Occurs through socially constructed opportunities.
What is Teaching?	Transmission Presentation Telling	Challenge, guide thinking towrds more complete understanding.	Co-construct knowledge with students.
What is the role of the Teacher?	Manager, supervisor. Correct wrong answers	Listen for students' current conceptions, ideas, thinking.	Facilitator, guide, co - participant. Co-construct different interpretation of knowledge; listen to socially constructed conceptions
What is the role of peers?	Not usually considered	Not necessary but can stimulate thinking, raise questions. Active construction (within mind)	Ordinary part of the process of knowledge construction. Active co-construction with others and self.
What are possible roles of Learners?	Passive reception of information. Active listener, directions-follower.	Active thinker, explainer, interpreter, questioner.	Active thinker, explainer,

Table 3.1 – Learning theories in a nutshell

WHY ARE THESE THEORIES IMPORTANT?

As we have said before, the different learning theories can be correlated to various linguistic theories that tried to explain language as a human phenomenon.

LANGUAGE AS STRUCTURE

A contemporary of Behaviourism, Structuralism posits that language is a bottom-up system in which syntax (e.g. grammar) is built "up" from the smallest unit of sound (phonemes) to the broader unit (discourse). Structuralists break language down into its component parts and analyze it in terms of phonemes, morphemes (the smallest unit of sound with meaning) and then words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, passages and last of all discourse.

This view of language originated in the work of anthropologist Franz Boaz who developed it to study Native American dialects, which were about to become extinct. In a structuralist approach, meaning takes second stage to grammar and syntax. Correctness is emphasised over the communicative function of words and the unit of analysis is the sentence.

Influences of structuralism in teaching are, for example, syllabi that describe language learning as a series of grammatical "points" to be learned in a sequential fashion. This is a characteristic of many language teaching textbooks which organize their contents around grammar items, even calling the different units in the textbook by the grammatical category they teach in that unit (e.g. Simple Present: affirmative, negative and interrogative)

LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM OF SYSTEMS

Chomsky's work reinforced, up to a certain extent, the key role of grammar in language learning. However, by adding the element of intentionality and context, and describing language learning as comprising both competence and performance, it opened up the door to other forms of conceptualizing grammar.

The focus on performance and on the social purposes for which language is used gave rise to the Functional movement in linguistics. Thanks to Chomsky's work and that of his followers, we realized that while grammatical competence is important, there are also other dimensions which impact directly on how language functions in communicative settings.

In 1981 Canale and Swain proposed that being competent in a language entailed competence in four distinct domains:

- Grammatical competence – the knowledge of the rules of language.
- Sociolinguistic competence – the knowledge of how language is used in particular settings.

- Discourse competence – the knowledge of how to structure messages beyond the level of the sentence.
- Strategic competence – the knowledge of strategies, which allow language users to compensate for their deficiencies in the other three competences.

This describes what has been termed "Communicative Competence" and it gave rise to a number of innovations in language teaching. One such innovation was the promotion of meaning-based descriptions of language. For example, during the 1970's the idea of functions (specific purposes for which language is used, e.g. asking for advice) became the preferred mode of describing language and organizing it for language teaching purposes.

While beneficial in this respect, the move away from structuralism failed to truly innovate our understanding of language since, instead of breaking it down in discrete syntactic unit, it still broke it down into similar units: functions. Hence, language continued to be seen as a "system of independent systems" (syntax, lexis, morphology, phonology, etc.).

LANGUAGE AS A SEMIOTIC SYSTEM FOR THE EXPRESSION OF MEANING

Over the course of 50 years, M.A.K. Halliday developed an alternative approach to language descriptions, which sought to truly capture the complex dynamics of language use. His approach to language description is called Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL).

Contrary to previous approaches to language description that placed the syntagmatic element first, Halliday's approach places the act of communication at the centre. To him, any communicative act involves choices and these choices are mapped using networks of meaning-making systems. The term functional added to the theory developed by Halliday stresses the fact that language has evolved under the pressure of the particular functions that the language system has to serve. In other words, the point of departure for a systemic functional analysis is not the syntactic structure of the language but the context in which the language is used and how relationships between language users, media through which meaning is conveyed and purpose for communication are structured. Language is thus seen as a semiotic system for the generation of meaning.

Since Chomsky developed his theory of universal grammar, there is a sense in which theories of language learning and teaching have been absorbed into the more general approach to education and sociology which can be described as 'humanism.' In terms of language theory, this is perhaps reflected in the clear change of emphasis from *form* to *meaning*.

Language itself is increasingly seen as a complex living system which can be described in almost ecological terms, and this has accordingly fed classroom teaching. For example, the theory of affordances, lifted directly from ecology,

provides theoretical backing for adopting a 'multiple intelligences' approach in the classroom, employing 'neuro-linguistic programming' techniques to help ensure all learners are afforded equal learning opportunities, whatever their preferred learning style. Michael Halliday's model of systemic functional linguistics also sees language in ecological terms, as a huge network of systems, the function of which is to 'make meanings'. In this model, grammar is not so much part of the language as a description of it, determined by its functions in society, and the model has had significant practical implications in communities where language knowledge, and in particular *genre* knowledge, is viewed as a way to access and become part of a society or sub-culture.

CONCLUSIONS

At the confluence of these many notions of language and the psychological views that attempt to explain learning, we can also find a series of theories which attempt to explain how language learning or acquisition (depending on the theory) happens.

For practical purposes, we can break these theories down into three main trends:

BEHAVIOURISM

Language learning is a matter of habit formation. These habits consist of being able to use the different systems that make up the language in a correct way. Errors should be avoided at any cost, since they are "bad habits." Language itself is the result of the combination of phonemes into phonemes, these into words, words into phrases and so on, until we reach the discourse level.

INNATISM

Language is a uniquely genetic human capacity. We come to the world "wired" for language. We learn language by discovering its underlying rules on our own. This is possible thanks to a blueprint for language which Chomsky called Universal Grammar. The innatist view sustains that language learning is the building up of knowledge systems that can eventually be called on automatically for speaking and understanding. Non-native speakers develop a transitional system of systems called interlanguage.

INTERACTIONISM

Proponents agree with Krashen that *i+1* is necessary for language acquisition. However, they are more concerned with *how* input is made comprehensible. They see interactional modifications as the necessary mechanism for this to happen. Interactional modifications make input comprehensible. If we take as a working premise that comprehensible input promotes acquisition, then we have to admit that interactional modification promotes acquisition in the same way that L1 speakers consistently modify their speech to make their meaning clear.

MODULE 4: Teaching

DIDACTICS, METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

All professions have specialized terminology they use in order to name and organize the activities that distinguish them from other human endeavors, as well as to provide shared reference points and key concepts. In our profession, when teachers talk about the "methods" they tend to use the term in a variety of ways.

Methodology is a term used to refer to pedagogical practices in general irrespective of the particular method the teacher is using. This is an important distinction in that it allows teachers to focus both on the insights into the theories behind particular methods, as well as how they are enacted in the actual classroom. When one looks at the history of language teaching, from Roman times until today one cannot help but wonder why there have been so many methods. Nunan (1991:3) explains that is so because all methods "have one thing in common. They all assume that there is a single set of principles, which will determine whether or not learning will take place. Thus, they all propose a single set of precepts for teacher and learner classroom behaviour, and asset that if these principles are faithfully followed, they will result in learning for all."

This tendency has led some authors in recent times to become skeptical about the usefulness of studying Methodology in teacher preparation. For example, Alwright (1998:128) claims that "Methods are relatively unhelpful…The concept of method may inhibit the development of a valuable, internally-derived sense of coherence on the part of the classroom teacher."

Other authors such as Kumaravadivelu address methods as a myth. He claims that the myth of method implies that there is, in fact, a best method ready and wanting to be discovered and that this is the organizing principle for language learning having a universal and ahistorical value thus rendering teachers as consumers of knowledge generated by theorists, with total disregard of teacher expertise.

Kumaravadivelu (2006) bases his claims on four simple, common-sense facts:

- Teachers who claim to follow a particular method do not conform to its theoretical principles in classroom procedures at all.
- Teachers who claim to follow different methods often use the same classroom procedures.
- Teachers who claim to follow the same method often use different procedures.
- Teachers develop and follow in their classrooms a carefully crafted sequence of activities not necessarily associated with any particular method.

He goes on to propose a "Post-method condition" which replaces the notion of method for three parameters that can serve as the organizing principles of a study of language teaching:

a) The parameter of Particularity
Any postmethod pedagogy must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu.

b) The parameter of Practicality
Professional theories are generated by experts, personal theories are those that are developed by teachers by interpreting and applying professional theories in practical situations while they do their job. Hence, a theory of practice is conceived when there is a union of action and thought.

c) The parameter of Possibility
Pedagogy is closely linked to power and dominance, and is aimed at creating and sustaining social inequalities. It is important to acknowledge and highlight teachers' and students' individual identities. "..develop theories, forms of knowledge and social practices *which work* with the experiences that people bring to the pedagogical setting" (Giroux, 1988:134)

This view is more empowering than the concept of "method" as traditionally understood. However, methods still have the potential to inform teaching, particularly for beginning teachers. As Johnson (2008) remarks, the further back in time we start a review of methods, the more sense of direction it will give us.

Finally, it would be useful to review some key terms before proceeding any further. Brown (1994: 15-16) defines the following terms thus:

Methodology: pedagogical practices in general (including theoretical underpinnings and related research). Whatever considerations are involved in "how to teach" are methodological.

Approach: Theoretically well-informed positions and beliefs about the nature of language, the nature of language learning, and the applicability of both to pedagogical settings.

Method: A generalized set of classroom specifications for accomplishing

linguistics objectives. Methods tend to be concerned primarily with teacher and student roles and behaviors and secondarily with such features as linguistic and subject-matter objectives, sequencing and materials. They are almost always thought of as being broadly applicable to a variety of audiences in a variety of contexts.

Technique (also commonly referred to by other terms): Any of a wide variety of exercises, activities, or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives.

WHY STUDY LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS?

More recently, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) provide a case for the study of methods in teacher education, claiming that such study may prove invaluable in at least five ways:

i. Methods serve as fodder for reflection that can help teachers become conscious about their thinking behind their own actions. As we saw in Module 1, we all come to teaching with deeply held beliefs about teaching and learning. The study of Methodology can help us make those tacit assumptions explicit thus becoming clearer about what we do and why we do it.
ii. If we are clear about where we stand, we open up the doors to being able to teach in a different way from the way in which we were taught. In this sense, the knowledge about methods liberates us instead of conditioning us by allowing us to break away with traditional patterns of thought by experimenting with new alternatives to what we think and do.
iii. Knowledge of methods is an important part of the knowledge base of teaching particularly in that they provide the language that helped create our community of practice. Having access to that language allows us to become full members of the community.
iv. By becoming full-fledged members of our professional community of practice, we are afforded the opportunity to interact with others and their own conceptions of practice,

thus keeping our teaching fresh and preventing it from becoming stale and routinary.

v. Finally, a knowledge of methods is instrumental in allowing teachers to gain access to a varied repertoire of teaching techniques that has the potential of enhancing their teaching and also their students' learning. More importantly, the selection of these techniques will not be arbitrary or uncritical, but properly informed by theory and practice.

We agree with Larsen Freeman and Anderson about the usefulness of methods in this sense. However, we are also mindful of Kumaravadivelu's understanding of the post-method condition and wary of a conception of "method" that binds teachers to concrete theories and practices thus curtailing their freedom to adapt their teaching to the needs of their students. As Larsen-Freeman and Freeman (2008: 168) concur: "It is clear that universal solutions that are transposed acritically, and often accompanied by calls for increased standardization, and which ignore indigenous conditions, the diversity of learners, and the agency of teachers are immanent in a modernism that no longer applies, if it ever did"

Hence, in the remainder of this module, we will engage in a detailed analysis of some of the methods which have populated our profession in the belief that learning about them will help future teachers become better teachers.

WHAT IS A METHOD?

But what is a method? How have methods been described over the years? The concept of method is definitely connected to positivism and science, and particularly with the scientific method. In 1963, Edward Anthony was the first linguist to attempt a description of the term with specific reference to language teaching. He developed a hierarchical tri-partite model composed of approach, method and technique.

Figure 4.1 – Anthony's understanding of "Method"

In this model, as we have said before, the arrangement is hierarchical and the organizational key is that the techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach. He defines the term approach as a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. In this sense, the approach is axiomatic in that it describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught and prescribes a specific way in which this should be done.

A method, then, is an overall plan for the presentation of the subject matter, which is consistent with the approach that guides the implementation of

classroom activities. In this sense, while approach is axiomatic, method is procedural and this understanding allows for different methods to be part of the same approach. Finally, techniques are implementational or, in other words, what actually takes place in the classroom. Techniques are procedures used to accomplish the immediate objective proposed by the method, which in turn is guided by the principles prescribed by the approach. Techniques have to be consistent with the method, which, in turn, makes them consistent with the approach.

In contrast to Anthony's position, Richards and Rodgers (2001) take the unit of Method, instead that of approach, as the organizing principle for their analysis of trends in teaching. They suggest that behind every method, there is an approach comprising a theory of language and a theory of language learning. These will determine much of the design of the method, as well as the procedures.

The design elements specify various levels of classroom activity. There are, first of all, the objectives of the method, or what this method is supposed to achieve when implemented. There may be competing purposes for different methods. For example, currently, we have methods aimed at developing communicative competence through the use of a variety of texts, whereas others attempt to achieve the same purposes via the study of subject matter content found in the learners' curriculum. These objectives help map out the content of the courses or syllabus.

The syllabus is also congruent with the concept of language and language learning espoused in the approach. We may have structural syllabi, functional syllabi or even task-based syllabi. The first has as its main objectives the learning of the syntactic structures of the language, whereas the second one attempts to teach how the language is enacted in real life and the third focuses on particular social activities, which can be carried out via the language. Both the objectives and the syllabus will also determine the kind of teaching and learning activities which are supposed to help the teacher achieve the objectives of the method and which are also based on the approach. These teaching and learning activities or techniques will give different prominence to the roles that students, teachers and materials play in the enactment of the syllabus and consequently on the achievement of the objectives of the method which are guided by the approach.

Finally, the procedure specifies how time, resources and interaction are played out in the actual classroom in order to achieve the goals of the method while covering the contents of the syllabus. Richards and Rodgers' description of method is more pedagogical than Anthony's and provides clearer direction for teachers, learners and curriculum developers alike, while providing a useful framework for understanding what actually goes on in the language classroom when a particular method is used.

These authors represent their model thus:

Figure 4.2 – Richards and Rodgers' understanding of the term "Method"

By including the element of "design" Richards and Rodgers'model departs from Anthony's conceptualization and bring the concept of "method" from one of theory to one of classroom practice.

WHERE WE'VE BEEN

There is a long and distinguished history of language teaching that dates back centuries and centuries. Every approach, method or attempt at teaching foreign languages that has been implemented has left a "residue" of theories, practices and techniques, which inform the way we teach even today. What follows is a description of how this process evolved in what we can call classical times, that is, before the concept of method was systematized.

INSTRUCTION IN ROMAN TIMES

Languages were taught as early as the second century B.C. When Roman children were very young, their parents had them study Greek starting at a very young age and with tutors at home. Greek nurses, slaves or tutors provided years of immersion in the target language so that when children entered school, they were fluent in both Greek and Latin. Boys attended school from age 7 to 12 and they learnt to read, write and count. Children read about their daily life as well as mythology, fables, simple narratives, and conversations.

After this literacy training, boys who could afford it, moved into rigorous grammatical and rhetorical instruction. The ultimate aim of this kind of instruction was to prepare the young for service in the Forum. Marcus Fabius Quintilian lived between A.D. 35 – 95 and set the first principles of second language instruction. He advocated for an immersion concept, which would start with learners listening to a fable read to them by the teacher. Learners would then give the fable in their own words, followed by writing a simple paraphrase. The complexity of texts was increased to include poems and other forms of polished literature. He advised teachers to teach the usage of the educated majority. In short, this master teacher promoted practical, contextualized instruction underpinned with valid usage principles.

THE MEDIEVAL PERIOD

Greek instruction decreased during the Middle Ages and Latin progressively took over its place as the medium of instruction. What is more, Latin was perceived to be "the logically normal form of human speech" (Bloomfield 1933:6). While Latin instruction matched the classical methods used to teach Greek, a number of modifications arose as time went by. First, and more importantly, the clergy took it as their responsibility to teach the language in the upper (higher monastic and cathedral) levels. Oral classroom activity took various forms and to the extent they were available, Latin classics were read. Grammatical analysis became prominent, with mastery of rules becoming as significant as communication skills. It is at this time that the first grammars appeared. As time went by, adaptations to the Roman classical method for teaching languages were implemented: the initial oral phase was dropped, exposure at home was non-existent and children were introduced to the language mainly through grammar. However, the purpose for which languages were to be used influenced the approach and the cultural content of the lessons. There was a practical need for argumentation and written expression in both theology and philosophy hence, grammar appeared appropriate for the precision and analysis inherent in logical argument.

THE RENAISSANCE

During this time, Latin became firmly established as the language of school and of virtually all educated men in the West. Grammar reemerged as the central focus of instruction. Some modifications were made to the method, mainly the separation of Grammar from Literature and advocates for a more inductive approach to grammar appeared. One such advocate was the eminent Dutch scholar Desiderius Erasmus (1466-1536). With the expansion of trade and travel, and the consolidation of the vernacular languages, there was a need for educated men to learn a foreign language besides Latin. This instruction was generally provided privately by native-speaking immigrants and also by the troubadours of southern France and northern Italy. Translation from the L2 into L1 became a popular practice. With regards to the focus of instruction and regardless of the language taught, grammar still held a very prestigious position. Erasmus contended, "a true ability to speak correctly is best fostered both by conversing and consorting with those who speak correctly and by the habitual reading of the best stylists." (Erasmus [1978]. 24; 669). Based on this principle, he proposed a method which started with conversation, naming and

describing, followed by talking about stories based on history or mythology, dialogues on domestic subjects, and descriptions using pictures to increase vocabulary without translation. In the third stage grammar received increased emphasis but it was explained and practiced in the context of the conversational materials. Other scholars such as John Amos Comenius (1592 – 1670) also made their contributions. Comenius' approach to language teaching started with a contextualized presentation of syntax, inductive instruction in grammar and lexical mastery through controlled vocabulary and visual association. He also suggested that grammatical structures be organized from the simplest to the most complex.

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

The 18th century witnessed the demise of Latin as the medium of instruction, although it was still considered an important subject because of the supposed mental discipline it provided. This same century also witnessed the birth of English grammar and the enthronement of reason and prescription in grammar. Along with the emphasis on grammar, the translation techniques developed in the 1600 continued to be popular. However, many reformers in France and Germany strove for revision of language teaching methods. A typical example of the methods used at the time is provided by the German scholar Johann Valentin Meidinger (1756 – 1820) who wanted to speed up instruction by starting with grammar rules and using these as the means for translation *into* the foreign language. It was Johann Bernard Basedow (1723 – 1790) who came up with a better alternative. He stressed that languages should be learnt first by speaking and later by reading and that grammar study was to be delayed until later. Learning was facilitated through an impressive variety of involvement activities: conversations, games, pictures, drawing, acting plays, and reading on interesting subjects. But the power of the grammarians, who were shaping the first comprehensive grammars of the vernaculars, out ruled these innovative attempts.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY: GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Meidinger's approach contributed to the formalization of the Grammar Translation Method and this method has been with us ever since he proposed it. Grammar Translation instruction consisted of the memorization of grammatical rules and vocabulary lists which would later be used to translate sentences into and from the foreign language. Teachers did not need to be fluent in the L2 since it was easily translated in the textbooks. Oral interaction consisted solely of repetition exercises (where learners were asked to repeat grammatical rules or verb conjugations) and learners took a very passive role. Foreign language instruction consisted merely of "committing words to memory, translating sentences, drilling irregular verbs, later memorizing, repeating and applying grammatical rules with their exceptions – that was and remained our main occupation; for not until the last year of the higher schools with the nine-year curriculum did [L2] reading come to anything like prominence, and that was the time when free compositions in the L2 were to be written" (Bahlsen in Titone, 1968: 28) As can be imagined, the main limitations of this method were tedium, inefficiency of instruction and limited results in terms of communication – notably, limited oral proficiency.

THE NATURAL METHOD

The excesses of Grammar-Translation began to spark reactions, which collectively became known as the Natural Method Movement. Proponents of this method tended to avoid the use of textbooks in class. Like the child at home the learner was to be immersed in the language and allowed to make his own generalizations. Activity, games and demonstrations were advocated to enhance motivation and understanding. Rules were not given to learners but they were to be induced by the learners through the involvement in those activities. Highlights of this method were the ideas of George Ticknor (1791-1871) who emphasized the spoken language and stressed the fact that no single method for teaching languages would ever exist that would suit all learners. He suggested that while an inductive, oral presentation might be useful fro children, other approaches would better suit adults and persons of varying language background. Another proponent of this method, the French Francois Gouin, provided a more systematic approach than had previously been apparent. Gouin involved students actively in doing what they spoke about, first in their L1 and then in the L2. Familiar subjects and connected conversational discourse characterized the language that his learners acted out. However, these innovators faced criticism themselves: lack of systematicity, heavy demands on teachers to create their own teaching procedure, extensive linguistic proficiency required from teachers, and the fact that many of those who taught L2 were only native speakers and had no teacher training whatsoever.

LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS POPULAR IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY (2).

The twentieth century saw a plethora of methods come to life. This was due mostly to the fact that there was widespread dissatisfaction with the result of the methods that had been previously implemented and mostly to the fact that with education becoming more democratic and reaching more people, there was a need for an improvement in language education that would give all students the same linguistic rights. At the same time, technological developments brought the world closer and made it necessary for people to become proficient in languages other than their own if they wanted to be able to communicate with people abroad for educational, cultural or economic reasons. One such example, the conformation of the European Union, made it imperative for people in that area of the world to become multilingual. Lastly, with the technological revolution under way and the onset of the information age in the last decades of the twentieth century, English became the preferred language for international communication, thus propelling many of the developments in English Language Teaching pedagogy.

GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION (GT)

Context and background

Grammar Translation was the most popular method used to teach Latin and Greek and our profession inherited it from the classical times. In this method, the main goal was not to learn the language to communicate, but to develop mentally by the exercise of reason and deduction so as to be able to read literature in that language. We begin to see the demise of this method when

(2) Adapted from Lambie, 2008.

developments in transport and world trade made it necessary for people to learn *modern* languages, something which these methods failed to provide.

Theory of Language

In Grammar Translation language was seen as a body of knowledge to be understood and learned, not as a skill to be practised and developed. Grammar and vocabulary, particularly those found in examples of classical literature were regarded as the superior and purest form of the language. Correctness was therefore highly valued, especially grammatical correctness, so grammar was the main pillar of the syllabus and seen as 'the building blocks' of the language.

Theory of learning

In Grammar-Translation, learning was equated with a conscious understanding of how the language is formed, purely at the syntactic level. Meaning was therefore not taken much into consideration. In order to access meaning, the analysis of grammar was combined with the memorisation of word for word translations of vocabulary but always in the context of the memorization of the patterns of the language (verb forms, conjugation tables, etc.). Hence, in Grammar Translation, learning was a matter of memorization of the expert knowledge of the teacher, which had to be passed unchanged to the students.

Techniques

The teacher would give students vocabulary lists in L2 with their counterpart in L1 to memorize, so that they could read literary texts. The texts were selected because of the grammar they contained and were introduced after students had memorized the vocabulary. In a typical grammar-translation class, the teacher would choose a student, who had to read a sentence in the text and translate it. The teacher corrected any mistakes and chose a new student for the next sentence until the text was done. Correction techniques varied from simple correction, to asking another student to make the correction, to eliciting self-correction. Explanations of mistakes were all done in the students' L1. Following the reading, there was often a set of comprehension questions, written and answered in the students' L1. New language was then 'practised' in the form of grammar exercises and fill-the-gap exercises for new vocabulary. Homework often involved memorisation of the new language, which was formally tested in the next lesson. For vocabulary tests, this often involved the teacher reading a list of words in the students' L1, for which the students had to write down the L2 equivalents.

Criticism

From today's perspective, where people learn languages for practical purposes, many aspects of grammar-translation are not suitable.

- Nowadays students need to learn to actually communicate in a foreign language rather than just read its literature. For

modern students, knowledge of grammar is just a part of the more important goal of language skills, not the final aim in itself.

- The emphasis on the memorization of language patterns in Grammar-Translation meant a conscious understanding of rules and knowledge of the L2 equivalents for L1 vocabulary items as the key to language production. However, this conscious knowledge generally detracts from the ability to communicate more spontaneously and freely. Different studies show that conscious knowledge and understanding of form and meaning are not only unnecessary for speech production, but sometimes even hinder it, thus reducing their importance in modern language teaching.
- We now have a wide array of information on how students best come to understand new language. In Grammar-Translation, the preferred technique was explanation of rules followed by exemplification – a deductive approach. Nowadays, an inductive approach, where students are given the examples and then helped to work out or discover the rules for themselves is generally seen as more effective.
- At a more practical level, and leaving theoretical considerations aside, there is one detail that makes Grammar Translation unsuitable for many foreign language classrooms: the teacher must be fluent in the students' L1.

Grammar-translation today

Although our teaching context and general approach are completely different to Grammar-Translation, some aspects of the approach still remain:

- the present-practise shape, which still dominates language teaching.
- some exercise types we use today (filling in the blanks exercises, finding synonyms or antonyms in texts, and comprehension questions).
- the organization of courses and materials around grammatical categories.
- the general disregard for the teaching of vocabulary as an important learning element independent of the texts and grammar in which it appears.
- the organization of tests into segments that test only control over grammatical or vocabulary features of the language.

Unfortunately, Grammar Translation is still the method of choice in many high school systems around the world, which means that not few students who cannot afford private language education, fail to learn the languages they are intended to learn.

THE DIRECT METHOD (DM)

Context and background

The Direct Method developed as a response to the growing importance of being able to communicate spontaneously in a foreign language and as a consequence of the widespread failure of the Grammar Translation method to achieve that. The basic assumption behind the method was that to be able to speak in L2, you had to think in L2 and that thinking in L1 hindered this process. The method grew mostly out of the experiences in the Natural Method (not to be confused with the Natural Approach) proposed by François Gouin in the nineteenth century.

Theory of Language

In the Direct Method, language is considered a tool for communication and as something produced spontaneously with little or no conscious thought, especially L1 thought. It was assumed that a learner could make a direct association between L2 and its meaning, without the need to translate into L1. As a practical tool, language was divided into functional or topical areas with everyday spoken language being emphasised.

Theory of learning

Language learning was equated with the development of a skill. So, the teacher's role was to help students develop this skill and not just to pass his knowledge of the language off to them, as was the case with the Grammar Translation method. The role of the teacher was that of a model (that is why so many teachers in this method *had* to be native speakers of the language) and a coach. As a skill, language was seen as something to be learned consciously and through association. For example, vocabulary was learned in the context of a full sentence – never by translation – and grammar was learned inductively with the students working out the rules for themselves from examples, but without ever formulating them as explanations. The Direct Method was the first of many methods that tried to make L2 learning reproduce the processes of L1 acquisition.

Techniques

The main premise of a Direct Method classroom was that neither the teacher nor the students ever spoke in L1. Language was often presented in context through situations or stories, which were read aloud, always concentrating on meaning not form. The meaning of new language was always conveyed as directly as possible by using pictures, realia, actions or gestures. The teacher checked understanding by asking questions in L2 and the students answering in L2. If the student made a mistake in the answer, the teacher would elicit self-correction.

Criticism

- Although the ability to think in L2 is an admirable goal, there is a question of how early this can happen. Even if students and teacher only use L2 in class, the students may still be doing a lot of conscious processing in L1.
- L1 can be a necessary prop for certain types of learners, who would feel lost without explanation. There is one piece of evidence that shows there are differences in the way we learn our first and second languages, meaning that trying to mimic L1 learning does not provide everything the learner needs.
- The idea of always answering in full sentences is often criticised as a contradiction. The Direct Method wanted to teach people the everyday language of communication, but very often we do not communicate in full sentences. As a result student-student interaction was less communication-centred and more form-focused.

The Direct Method today

Traces of the Direct Method remain popular to this day. Some of these are:

- the contextualization of grammatical items in dialogues or texts popular in most textbooks.
- the insistence on teaching English through English in many foreign language contexts.
- the role of the teacher as model and coach.
- the inductive approach to learning grammar.
- The valuing of the native speaker as the optimal model to be emulated.

Although popular and, and to a certain extent, effective, the Direct Method failed to deliver its promise particularly in the teaching of adults. While it was effective for the teaching of young learners, the characteristics of the adult learner (previous experiences, the capacity to deduce, etc.) were left aside in this method. This fact notwithstanding, the Direct Method contributed the first theoretical basis for language teaching in that it brought to bear a specific theory of language and a specific theory of learning.

THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

Context and background

Audiolingualism appeared in the United States during World War II in response to the need for military personnel to learn languages quickly and effectively and as a result of new developments in the theories of language and learning which will be described below.

Theory of Language

As in the Direct Method, language is seen as a communicative tool, which must be produced spontaneously and automatically, but the form of the language becomes more important. The sciences of descriptive linguistics and contrastive analysis had led linguists to detailed descriptions of the systems of different languages, which they compared for areas of difference and similarity. The list of forms present in a language became the syllabus and fluency was equated with the mastery of these forms – the ability to use them spontaneously, automatically and correctly in speech. This process was seen as a matter of choosing the right pattern and filling the slots correctly. For example, here is a simple pattern consisting of four slots:

Subject	verb 'like'	verb+ING	Object

The slots in this pattern can be filled in a number of ways.

I	like	playing	cards.
You	like	reading	these notes.
Mike	likes	riding	his bike.

Contrastive analysis was then used to identify areas of difference between the L1 and L2, which were assumed to be the areas of greatest difficulty for the learners and were therefore given the greatest attention in the syllabus.
These developments coupled with the development of structuralism made it very easy for linguists to create and sequence grammatical content and tailor it to different language learners. Also, the ability to analyse language outside its context of use promoted a false illusion of scientism and objectivity that was not popular in language learning.

Theory of learning

The theory of learning that permeated Audiolingualism was Behaviourism. The grammatical patterns identified by linguists were 'over-learned' using repetition exercises called drills that reproduced the StimulusResponseReinforcement sequence prescribed by the operant conditioning school. If the behaviour (response) was successful, students received positive reinforcement and continued with the behaviour until it

becomes a habit. If it was unsuccessful they received negative feedback to eventually stop the behaviour. For language production, negative feedback meant correction. Positive reinforcement would either mean praise or lack of correction. So, in the behaviourist perspective, we learn a language by repeating correct language until it becomes a habit. With SLA there is the added complication that we have already formed the habit of our first language, which interferes with the habit of the second language. This meant that our new language habits had to be learned so thoroughly that they overruled the old habits, hence the emphasis on repetition.

Techniques

Language was organized and sequenced into grammatical categories and then presented through dialogues, which were primarily designed to exemplify the target structure. Vocabulary played the supporting role of creating a context for the dialogue.

The purpose of dialogues was to exemplify the new target structure, while reviewing previously learned structures in an incremental way, since language learning was supposed to be a sequential and incremental process. Dialogues were modelled by the teacher, then drilled for correct pronunciation, with errors immediately corrected, helping the student to memorise the dialogue at the same time. Grammatical competence was then worked on through a series of drills such as substitution drills, chain drills, transformation drills and question and answer drills, which all involved the students in correctly filling one or more slots in the target pattern. Here are some examples:

Chain drill:
T: What time do you get up?
S1: I get up at 7 o'clock. What time do you get up?
S2: I get up at 8 o'clock. What time do you get up?
S3: I get up at 8 o'clock. What time do you get up?

Substitution drill:
T: I am going to the bank..... He.
Ss: He is going to the bank.
T: They.
Ss: They are going to the bank.

Transformation drill: (for negatives)
T: He is going to the bank:
S: He isn't going to the bank
T: It is 8 o'clock in New York.
S: It isn't 8 o'clock in New York.
T: It is summer in Uruguay.
S: It isn't summer in Uruguay.Criticism

- Audiolingualism allowed mastery of the grammar of the language in a very quick and easy way. However, when put to use in real life, this knowledge was ineffective because of the unpredictability of the communicative situation.
- There is also a contradiction: the method attempts to teach students to communicate in the target language without them ever trying to do so.

- There is a similar contradiction in the actual language taught. In reality, learning through the Audiolingual approach was not different from memorizing a tourist phrase book. The social dimensions of language (adequacy, sensitivity to other speakers, genre and register) were not learned by students.
- Finally there are humanistic criticisms of the method particularly because of the behaviourist orientation. Humans are not circus animals that can be conditioned to act in a certain way. The approach did not allow for students' self-expression, language was rarely personalised or given an affective value and most lessons follow the same pattern of presentation – drill – drill – drill – drill – drill...

Audiolingualism today

In mainstream language teaching, Audiolingualism survives in various forms:

- the use of dialogues to present new language.
- the large variety of drills, which are popular in most language learning textbooks.
- the over-reliance on "objective" techniques for language testing (T/T, multiple choice, answering questions, completing dialogues.
- the sequencing of grammatical items in terms of their syntactic similarities rather than according to their pragmatic values.

Audiolingualism in its pure form is still very popular around the world and particularly in the area of self-directed language learning.

THE POST-AUDIOLINGUAL ERA

The generalised discontent with the results of the Audiolingual approach and the work of Noam Chomsky propelled a multitude of new methods, amongst which we find a handful that radically departed from established procedure. These have been called "fringe" methods or "alternative" methods by some theoreticians and they all show a desire to stray away from common methodology by combining techniques and ideas from psycholinguistics, psychology, sociology and anthropology with current conceptions of language. However, it should be noted that, at heart, all these methods rested on a view of language, which still saw it as comprising different systems that were organized hierarchically within a strong structural

THE SILENT WAY

This philosophy of teaching which aims at subordinating teaching to learning became popular in the early 70's although its creator, Caleb Gattegno, had been implementing it since the mid 50's. In this method, learners start off by learning the sounds of the language from a color-coded chart called the Fidel. Then the teacher, using some cultured rods, creates linguistic situations from which the basic structures of the language can be taught. The instructor remains silent most of the time (hence the name of the method) while learners collectively produce the new structures. Charts with color-coded spelling reinforce the core language learners learn. Vocabulary is taught via situational

pictures and later on, books are added. Even though the description of language is structuralist the method seems to have yielded powerful results. However, this same fact – i.e. the overtly grammatical emphasis – was one of the causes of its demise. Also, since teachers had to remain silent for almost 90% of the time, not many teachers felt confident about the method. Lastly, the costs involved in acquiring the materials were also the cause of its lack of popularity. However, most of Gattegno's ideas left a permanent imprint in the field of language teaching. Some of these ideas are: learner-centered instruction, the renewed emphasis on the teaching of pronunciation, the teacher's facilitative role and, more importantly, the idea that learning is more important than teaching in the classroom. Learners come to classrooms to learn what teachers already know so they should be doing most of the work, not the teacher.

The goals of the Silent Way were to help learners use language for self-expression but more importantly, to develop independence from the teacher, and develop inner criteria for correctness. Since teaching should be subordinated to learning, teachers should give students only what they absolutely need to promote their learning. Learners are responsible for their own learning. Students begin with sounds, introduced through association of sounds in native language to a sound-color chart. Teacher then sets up situations, often using Cuisenaire rods, to focus students' attention on structures. Students interact, as the situation requires. Teachers see students' errors as clues to where the target language is unclear, and they adjust instruction accordingly. Students are urged to take responsibility for their learning.

Additional learning is thought to take place during sleep. The teacher is silent much of the time, but very active setting up situations, listening to students, speaking only to give clues, not to model speech. Student-student interaction is encouraged. Teachers monitor students' feelings and actively try to prevent their feelings from interfering with their learning. Students express their feelings during feedback sessions after class. All four skill areas are worked on from beginning (reading, writing, speaking, listening); pronunciation especially, because sounds are basic and carry the melody of the language. Structural patterns are practiced in meaningful interactions. Syllabus develops according to learning abilities and needs. Reading and writing exercises reinforce oral learning. Although translation is not used at all, the native language is considered a resource because of the overlap that is bound to exist between the two languages. The teacher should take into account what the students already know. Assessment is continual; but only to determine continually changing learning needs. Teachers observe students' ability to transfer what they have learned to new contexts. To encourage the development of inner criteria, neither praise nor criticism is offered. Students are expected to learn at different rates, and to make progress, not necessarily speak perfectly in the beginning. Errors are inevitable, a natural, indispensable part of learning.

SUGGESTOPEDIA (OR, MORE RECENTLY DESSUGESTOPEDIA OR DESSUGESTOLOGY)

The late 60's and early 70's witnessed the birth of other alternative language teaching methods. Suggestopedia created by the Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov taps the hidden resources of the mind in order to aid subliminal learning.

In Suggestopedia courses learners are given a new identity and they work through extremely long dialogues, which involve their new identities as active participants in the classroom action.

The teacher is both authority and guide and takes learners through a series of experiences which include reading the long dialogue to the rhythm of baroque music, then reading it again with music as a background but at normal speed, and then engaging learners in play with the new language.
The classroom is completely atypical: soft lights, easy chairs, wall to wall carpeting, beautiful artwork on the walls interspersed with carefully produced grammar charts, and other aids to memory. The method dwells on reducing anxiety, empowering the brain to work at its best through relaxation and boosting the learners' self-esteem. Despite its appeal this method soon weakened its position in the field due to factors such as the high cost of tuition, the need for it to operate with groups whose mother tongue was the same, the demands on the teacher who had to be knowledgeable about teaching, counseling and performing, as well as for the fact that while learners gained a lot of fluency the gains in accuracy were very few. The main goal of Suggestopedia is to help learners learn, at an accelerated pace, a foreign language for everyday communication by tapping mental powers, overcoming psychological barriers.

As far as teacher roles are concerned, the teacher has authority, commands trust and respect of students; teacher "desuggests" negative feelings and limits to learning; if the teacher succeeds in assuming this role, students assume a somewhat childlike role, spontaneous and uninhibited.

To help this process, students learn in a relaxing environment. They choose a new identity (name, occupation) in the target language and culture. They use long dialogues accompanied by their translations and notes in their native language. Each dialogue is presented during two musical concerts; once with the teacher matching his or her voice to the rhythm and pitch of the music while students follow along. The second time, the teacher reads normally and students relax and listen. At night and on waking, the students read it over. Then students gain facility with the new material through activities such as dramatizations, games, songs, and question-and-answer sessions.

At first, the teacher initiates all interaction and students respond only nonverbally or with a few words in the target language that they have practiced. Eventually, students initiate interaction. Students interact with each other throughout, as directed by teacher. Great importance is placed on students'

feelings, in making them feel confident and relaxed, in “desuggesting” their psychological barriers. Likewise, the use of translation clarifies the meaning in the dialogues and, if necessary, the teacher uses the learners' native language, more at first than later.

Students' normal in-class performance is evaluated. There are no tests, which would threaten relaxed environment. Errors are not immediately corrected; the teacher models correct forms later during class.

THE TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE (TPR)

James Asher's approach begins by placing primary importance on listening comprehension, emulating the early stages of mother tongue acquisition, and then moving to speaking, reading, and writing. Students demonstrate their comprehension by acting out commands issued by the teacher. The teacher provides novel and often-humorous variations of the commands.
Activities are designed to be fun and to allow students to assume active learning roles. Activities eventually include games and skits.

Asher suggests that most of our initial language development happens as a result of responding to commands. In this method, learners start by observing the teacher as he or she presents a series of commands. As a second step, the teacher says and demonstrates the commands, then s/he does the same but this time learners follow along. Then the teacher just says the commands and learners show understanding by responding with the right physical response and finally learners themselves give commands and the teacher monitors. Traces of this methodology can also be found in Gouin's Series Method, one of the many contributions to the Direct Method.

Asher's TPR became an instant success with learners mostly because it was fun and effective. To make sure that learners did not memorize the sequence of actions, Asher suggests changing the order in which the commands are given, and creating silly commands. However fun it was, it was soon evident that learners could progress only up to a certain level with this method. That may be why it lost its original appeal and became integrated with other methods such as the Natural Approach.

The main goals of TPR are to provide an enjoyable learning experience, having a minimum of the stress that typically accompanies learning a foreign language. This is accomplished by the teacher and students alternating in their traditional roles in giving commands. At first the teacher gives commands and students follow them. Once students are “ready to speak,” they take on directing roles.

The teacher interacts with individual students and with the group, starting with the teacher speaking and the students responding nonverbally. Later this is reversed; students issue commands to teacher as well as to each other. The method was developed principally to reduce the stress associated with language learning; students are not forced to speak before they are ready and

learning is made as enjoyable as possible, stimulating feelings of success and low anxiety.

Grammatical structures and vocabulary are emphasized, imbedded in imperatives. Understanding precedes production; spoken language precedes the written word. In keeping with the emphasis on acquisition, the learners' L1 is seldom used. If it is used, it is only at the very beginning where the method is explained to students on the first day of class. After that, all interactions are conducted in English

In TPR teachers can evaluate students through simple observation of their actions. Formal evaluation is achieved by commanding a student to perform a series of actions. It should be noted that students are expected to make errors once they begin speaking. Teachers only correct major errors, and do this unobtrusively. “Fine-tuning” occurs later.

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING

The last of the alternative, or fringe, approaches popular in the 1970s and early 1980s is the work of Charles Curran, a counselor, who applied the principles of humanist psychology to language learning. His method, Community Language Learning has students working with authentic materials that they themselves produce, and in small groups through communicative activities, during which they receive practice in negotiating meaning.

Charles Curran, the creator of Community Language Learning, got his ideas from the field of client-centered therapy. The method consisted of different sessions in which learners would sit around a table and they would initiate a conversation in L1. Whenever they had something to say to each other they would call on the teacher and whisper what they wanted to say. The teacher would then translate that sentence into the L2 and help learners with pronunciation. Once learners felt confident to say the sentence they would record it on a tape. Learners would take turns doing this. The teacher would take the tape home, script it making all necessary modifications, reproduce it for all learners and then bring it to class to be analyzed. The teacher would spot potential teaching points and provide learners with an explanation and opportunities for practice. It soon lost its appeal because of the high levels of competence in both languages demanded from teachers, and also because the only innovation was in having learners create their own input, but the rest of the techniques responded to traditional approaches.

This fact notwithstanding, the goal of the method was to learn language communicatively, to take responsibility for learning, to approach the task non-defensively, never separating intellect from feelings. To aid the process, the teacher acts as counselor, supporting students with translation and pronunciation practice, organizing the input they create into texts to be studied and by fostering progressive independence through a prescribed sequence of steps.

The key concept in the method was non-defensive learning. Non-defensive learning requires six elements: security, aggression (students have opportunities to assert, involve themselves), attention, reflection (students think about both the language and their experience learning it), retention, and discrimination (sorting out differences among target language forms). This can be achieved through the roles that teachers and learners take. Both learners and teacher make decisions in the class. Sometimes the teacher directs action, other times the students interact independently. A spirit of cooperation is encouraged.

At first, since students design the syllabus through creating the conversations on topics they are interested in. At later stages, the teacher may bring in published texts where particular grammar and pronunciation points are treated, as are particular vocabulary groups based on students' expressed needs. Understanding and speaking are emphasized, though reading and writing have a place.

The use of the learners' native language is supposed to enhance their security. Students have conversations in their native language; target language translations of these become the text around which subsequent activities revolve. Also, instructions and sessions for expressing feelings are in the learners' native language with the target language being used progressively more as students advance in their proficiency. However, it should be noted that where students do not share the same native language, the target language is used from the outset, though alternatives such as pantomime are also used.

THE COMMUNICATIVE REVOLUTION

As we have seen, all the methods studied so far, relied heavily on a study of language systems, particularly grammar. The first signs of a move away from teaching language systems and towards teaching how these systems are used in real-life communication came with the development of the *functional-notional syllabus* by David Wilkins. This represented a move away from the traditional grammar syllabus, replacing it with a syllabus organized according to 'notions' (e.g. shopping) and associated 'functions' (e.g. complaining about a purchase).

Although the functional-notional syllabus did not explicitly teach communicative competence, it was the first attempt to list what learners needed to learn in order to acquire this competence. So-called 'communicative activities', such as 'information gap' and 'jigsaw' activities, soon became standard classroom practice, and together with a greater emphasis on the use of authentic materials and communicative tasks, this represented the beginning of what we now know as 'communicative language teaching', or CLT.

As an approach to teaching a second language, CLT can be summarized in terms of three key principles:

1. Learning is promoted by activities, which involve real communication.
2. Learning is promoted by activities, which require learners to perform meaningful tasks.
3. Learning is promoted by activities, which require learners to use meaningful language.

Any teaching that engages learners in meaningful and authentic language use can therefore be said to be based on CLT principles. Particularly significant is the move away from a direct focus on 'grammar' as an end in itself – instead, grammar (along with other language systems such as vocabulary and phonology) became a means for communicating via one or more of the four skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing. With this change in focus away from the accuracy of grammatical forms came greater attention to fluency.

In practical terms, this greater emphasis on fluency is familiar to generations of teachers as the final 'P' in the PPP model. Whereas Audiolingualism had concentrated on the first two stages of the model – *presentation* and *practice* – CLT prioritized the third – *production*. In so-called 'weak' (or 'shallow-end') CLT, which viewed language as something to be learned before it is put to use for communication, the production stage allowed learners to apply the language they had already learned and practiced in order to complete a less rigorously controlled communicative task. The advantages of this approach are both theoretical and practical.

PRESENTATIONPRACTICEPRODUCTION

The theoretical backing for the PPP model comes from cognitive learning theory, which sees the learning of a skill as having three stages: *cognitive* (identifying the sub-skills involved), *associative* (working out how to perform these sub-skills) and *autonomous* (when the application of these sub-skills becomes automatic). This three-part model neatly mirrors the PPP model of classroom practice.

The practical benefits of PPP are particularly noticeable for less experienced teachers who feel the need for a clear framework around which they can structure a lesson. Likewise, learners are comfortable with the model as it makes it easy for them to see what they are learning in the lesson and it corresponds with the traditional 'sequential' teaching models with which they are familiar from their school days.

Other advocates of communicative language teaching felt too constrained by the PPP model and suggested an alternative 'strong' (or 'deep-end') version of CLT, where the production stage came first. This evolved into the *test-teach-test* model, in which an initial communicative task (e.g. a role play) was used to inform the teacher about what language input was required to enable the

learners to carry out the task more effectively. This language would then be presented and practiced in an appropriate way, and the initial task would then be repeated.

THE NATURAL APPROACH

Further criticism of the PPP model arrived with the revival of the 'natural approach' by the linguists Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen in the late 1970s. Whereas the PPP model assumed that language learning could follow a syllabus of pre-selected grammatical structures, Terrell and Krashen saw second language acquisition as mirroring first language acquisition in that it supposed that the acquisition of language structures followed a natural order, which was resistant to the idealized linear model underpinning PPP. The Natural Approach therefore rejected direct grammar explanations, and instead advocated exposing learners to 'comprehensible input', not forcing them to speak until they felt ready to do so, and avoiding undue stress on learners as a result of excessive correction. Avoiding stress, and engaging the learner emotionally as well as cognitively, are important elements of the *humanistic* approach to education and learning which gained popularity in the 1970s as a reaction against both what some theorists saw as the 'dehumanizing' assumptions of Behaviorism and the intellectual basis of mentalism.

TASK-BASED LEARNING

While the Natural Approach was advancing the cause of humanism from one side, a more holistic approach to language teaching, as opposed to the segmented, mechanistic approach of PPP, was evolving out of deep-end CLT and further advertising the merits of a method in which overall meaning, rather than form, was the focus of linguistic activity in the classroom. The approach, known as 'task-based learning' (or TBL), in its earliest and purest form rejected any kind of formal grammar instruction, although nowadays it is generally accepted that there is a need for some focus on form at some stage of the process. One way of doing this involves learners carrying out an initial task and then witnessing native speakers performing the same task, extracting appropriate language which will help them carry out the task more effectively, and then repeating the same task. This approach bears obvious comparison with the test-teach-test method described above. Alternatively, the focus on form might come before the task, although this then starts to look very much like the familiar PPP model. Although there is general agreement that communicative tasks have an important role to play in the classroom then, TBL, as a separate teaching model arguably appears to have lost something of its identity in recent years.

TEXT-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Halliday's model of Systemic Functional Grammar has become progressively more popular in recent years, particularly in Australia and the United States. To Halliday (1978). Language arises in the life of the individual through an on-going exchange of meanings with significant others. This view of language rests on the following tenets:

- Language is a resource for making meaning
- The resource of language consists of a set of interrelated systems
- Language users draw on this resource each time they use language
- Language users can create texts to make meaning
- Texts are shaped by the social context in which they are used
- The social context is shaped by people using language

In terms of how language is organized, systemic functionalists see language as having three simultaneous layers when it is in use

- Meaning or discourse semantics
  The layer of meaning interacts with the register variables to achieve three functions of language
    - Ideational- meanings related to the field (social activity and topic)
    - Interpersonal – meanings related to the tenor (social relationship among people)
    - Textual – meaning related to the mode (physical and temporal distance)
- Words and structures or Lexicogrammar
  These make the three meanings above possible. This layer gives language its creative power and its complexity.
- Expression or Phonology and Graphology

Once meaning becomes words or structures, it can be expressed as speech or writing using an economical number of sounds and symbols. This is the layer of language, which we perceive in the physical world.

Hence, within a systemic-functional model three simultaneous purposes can be achieved in language teaching:

- Learners *learn* language
    - By interacting with others in purposeful social activities students begin to understand that the target language is a resource they can use to make meaning.
- Learners learn *through* language
    - As they learn the target language, students begin to interpret and organize reality in terms of that language.
- Learners learn *about* language
    - Learning about language means building knowledge of the target language and how it works. It also means developing a language to talk about language.

CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

The systemic-functional model of language lends itself very well to working in one particular area of language teaching, which has progressively gained momentum over the past three decades. Born as a result of the Canadian immersion movement, a growing trend of teaching language through contents stemming from the school curriculum has been gaining popularity. Basically, this movement has three distinguishable versions.

First, there is the Canadian school where the whole of the children's schooling experience is taught in the target language. The second version is American and there are coexisting models of content-based instruction such as the sheltered model, where only a few subjects are taught in L2 at initial stages (such as Math and Science, which lend themselves well to concrete learning and hence it is easy to make the language comprehensible through them) while others are still taught in L1. Other models, such as the pullout model, have students taking most subjects in L2 and students miss other classes to receive special ESL lessons. Third and last, there is the European Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) movement where some subjects are taught in L1 while others are taught in L2.

One of the tenets of systemic-functional linguistics is that the curriculum must respond to the needs of learners within the broader social, political and cultural environment in which they are learning. Regardless of the version applied, all models of language learning through content share the same view of language:

- Language is a functional, meaning-making system that is systematically linked to the contexts in which it is used.
- Language learning is the outcome of a joint collaboration between teacher and learner. Language learners benefit from:
  - explicit course requirements
  - explicit knowledge about language
  - the scaffolded support of the teacher

In all content-based models, students learn the language, *through* the language and *about* the language.

HOW CAN WE ORGANIZE ALL THIS INFORMATION?

Given the plethora of methods and perspectives we have seen it can be a daunting task to try to find points in common among all these competing views. Kumaravadivelu (2006) proposes classifying methods and trends according to what aspects of the language learning process they center on: the language, the learner or the learning process itself.

LANGUAGE-CENTRED METHODS

- These methods are principally concerned with linguistic forms. They seek to provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, pre-sequenced linguistic structures through form-focused exercises in class, assuming that a preoccupation with form will ultimately lead to the mastery of the target language. They assume that language learners can draw from this formal repertoire whenever they wish to communicate in the target language outside the class. According to this view language development is more intentional than incidental. That is, learners are expected to pay continual and conscious attention to linguistic features through systematic planning and sustained practice in order to learn and to use them. Language learning is treated as a linear,

additive process. Examples of this method include the Grammar Translation method and the Audiolingual approach, among others.

LEARNER-CENTRED METHODS

– These methods are principally concerned with learner needs, wants, and situations. These methods seek to provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, pre-sequenced linguistic structures and communicative functions/notions through meaning-focused activities, assuming that a preoccupation with form and function will ultimately lead to target language mastery and that the learners can make use of both formal and functional repertoire to fulfil their communicative needs outside the class. In this view, language development is more intentional than incidental. These methods aim at making learners grammatically accurate and communicatively fluent and remain, basically, linear and additive. Examples of this category are The Silent Way, TPR, Suggestopedia and Counselling Learning.

LEARNING-CENTRED METHODS

– These methods are concerned with cognitive processes of language learning and seek to provide opportunities for learners to participate in open-ended meaningful interaction through problem-solving tasks in class, assuming that a preoccupation with meaning-making will ultimately lead to target language mastery and that learners can deploy the still-developing interlanguage to achieve linguistic as well as pragmatic knowledge/ability. In this case, language development is more incidental than intentional. These methods view language development as a cyclical, spiral process. Examples of this category of methods are, for example the Natural Approach, Task-based learning and Content-based Instruction.

CONCLUSION

The history of language teaching has left many useful tools for teachers working in language classrooms nowadays. It is the teacher's responsibility to take this knowledge and put it to productive use in the classroom for the benefit of all learners alike. Teachers have to begin to believe that all students can learn and that it is their responsibility to organize for that learning to happen. Methods and their history are one of the many elements that can help them achieve this goal. As Canagarajah (2006: 29) puts it "What we have now is not answers or solutions but a rich array of realizations and perspectives." Failing to take advantage of these, is failing to fulfil our moral duty as professionals in education.

Read Appendices IV, V, VI

RECOMMENDED ONLINE RESOURSES

Video on the history of Language Teaching by Dr Garza
http://coerll.utexas.edu/methods/modules/teacher/01/historical.php

Theodore S. Rodgers' CAL Digest on methods
http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/rodgers.html

A definition of Systemic Functional Linguistics
http://www.isfla.org/Systemics/definition.html

Notes on Systemic Functional Linguistics by Carol Chapelle
http://www.isfla.org/Systemics/documents/chapelle.html

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DIDACTIC PEDAGOGICS IN PERSPECTIVE

Inaugural Address

by

C. J. Roux

on the occasion of accepting the position of Professor of Didactic Pedagogics in the Faculty of Education, University of the Western Cape

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[Translated by George D. Yonge]

I

DIDACTIC PEDAGOGICS IN PERSPECTIVE

With the offering of didactics as a subject area for teacher education, it is essential that this part discipline of pedagogics be placed in the right perspective. A study of education in which didactics is a subdivision is necessary for the prospective teacher to be made aware of his vocational responsibility. Part of this responsibility involves helping the becoming child discover the sense and meaning of his world and to develop his abilities and potentialities so that he can assume his life task with proficiency and responsibility. If the teacher can awaken the child's trust in human existence and can appeal to him to become the person he ought to be, the right attitude can be awakened for developing his potential abilities. Further, if the teacher's disposition toward work is carried by a motive for service, an intention will be awakened by which teaching becomes a meaningful intervention between the adult and the not-yet adult.

Didactics continually confronts us with the question of how these proposed objectives can be realized. In what way should a child be guided to the awareness of the character of obligation, the demands of propriety and the acceptance of responsibility that are contained in life? How can he be helped to meaningfully assimilate his opportunities for contributing to being human? Teaching is not merely an intellectual activity that aims at examination results; it involves effective teaching as a form of influencing behavior that will have a lasting meaning for personality and character. Therefore, it is necessary that any teaching methods or procedures be pedagogically accountable.

1. DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

To avoid conceptual confusion, it is necessary to clearly define some concepts that are the technical vocabulary of pedagogics. Then we can understand each other and coordinated pedagogic thinking can

be pursued. Since one is not dealing here with the exactness of the natural sciences, in the area of education, there is not always a consensus among experts regarding the definition of concepts. Consensus is not easily attained and, as Perquin says, because educators are still in search of pedagogic thought, one finds that all writers do not define concepts in the same way. There is a need for greater consensus and clarity with respect to the use of concepts in the area of pedagogics.

1.1 Pedagogics (The study of educating)

This is the human science that studies the phenomenon of educating (bringing up, rearing). The data gathered are systematized and interpreted, and this is a source of nourishing the practice of teaching. In English, the comprehensive concept "education" is used to include teaching, upbringing and the study of educating [also schooling and learning of any variety—G.Y.]. Consequently, there is a need for the distinctive use of the term "pedagogics". The pedagogician is the authority in the domain of pedagogics. He can enjoy a lofty theoretical and academic reputation without necessarily being a successful educator.

1.2 Educating (Upbringing)

Educating is the conscious intervention of an adult with a not-yet adult to purposefully help him on his way to adulthood with the expectation that he (the educand) will attain independence and give preference to the norms that are held before him. As a process of elevating or improving, this means that the child is not left to haphazard formative influences but that the teacher (adult) intervenes in order to give his development a particular course by encouraging some actions and by discouraging others. Thus, there is mention of being directed to a higher aim. This cannot be forced because norms, as a prevailing authority, have to be accepted, acquired and emulated through personal choice. Educating is limited to the tender years and is concluded by approximately 18 years when the educator becomes redundant and the educand accepts greater independence and responsibility.

1.3 Teaching

Teaching is directed at making facts known, at learning skills and at acquiring intellectual insights. In doing this, it necessarily takes acceptable values into account or aims at conscience forming.

Not all teaching is educative and, besides, an able teacher might fail as an educator. Yet it is important that teaching and educating not be separated from each other.

1.4 Didactics

Teaching and the art of instructing are the domain of didactics, which also is known as the science of teaching. Reflection about the teacher, the pupil, learning material, methods, aids, school, educative circumstances, etc. are of importance to didactics. The didactician is the authority who studies this part discipline of pedagogics.

2. THE PLACE AND ROLE OF DIDACTICS IN PEDAGOGICS

Didactics is one of five* part disciplines of pedagogics that together form a unity and are not separated from each other:

Fundamental Pedagogics (Philosophy of Education) investigates "all educational questions of a theoretical, normative, subjective [i.e., anthropological--G.Y.] and fundamental nature." This part discipline, for example, studies the aims of the educative intervention in which support has to be given to a child.

Empirical Pedagogics (Psychopedagogics, Educational Psychology) investigates especially the empirical facts and data regarding the becoming child with his needs, potentialities and limitations.

Sociopedagogics studies the child in his attachment to family and community and related matters and questions.

* Orthopedagogics is a sixth, but it is not on the same level as the others in that it uses the categories, findings, of the five mentioned disciplines to identify and correct DYSFUNCTIONAL educative situations. [G.Y.].

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Historical Pedagogics tries to fathom the sense of the historical development of the theories and practices of teaching and educating. Without this historical connection, the sense of the direction of the present to the future cannot be grasped.

Didactic Pedagogics or the science of teaching searches for ways and methods which can be followed to attain the educational aim. Didactics reflects on this in light of the data made available through the other part disciplines. Coetzee calls this practical education because it is here that the practice of teaching and of educating meet.

These five part disciplines should always be viewed as an indivisible whole with the pedagogic as the point of departure. Absolutizing any one of them will shift the accent off center. Thus, the application of methods, plans, techniques, aids, etc. have to always be pedagogically founded and accountable. If this is not the case, the application of methods and techniques can result merely in training, coaching and conditioning. A degree of overlap can be expected among the different disciplines of pedagogics but one should always try to let the accent fall on that aspect which serves as the point of departure for the subject under consideration.

Didactic pedagogics is that discipline of pedagogics whose terrain is the investigation of the nature of providing purposeful assistance to a child in order guide him on the path to adulthood and thus to bring him up. This is accomplished by the content, methods and aids used so the child can learn. In this way, and with the help of the purposefully supportive effort of the educator, the possibilities of action are revealed to the child through teaching. Through educative action, the educator presents something to the child to learn and to attribute value (e.g., his cultural inheritance). He will accept the meaningfulness of this content if the educator has addressed him and if the encounter between them is meaningful. Here learning means more than committing to memory or intellectual understanding. It means accepting a norm or principle of decisive importance for the learner's way of behaving. This is accomplished by purposive intervention aimed at encouraging particular ways of behaving and by giving a particular course or

direction to the child's becoming: in this connection, a study of methodology will help determine the nature of pedagogic action. However, didactics does not arrive at this point by fixed formulas.

In its turn, didactic pedagogics can be divided into general didactics, particular (or subject matter) didactics, methodology and orthodidactics. We will explicate briefly why these subdivisions seem to be necessary.

2.1 General Didactics

The terrain of didactics is limited to the purposeful, systematic guidance of a child over a long period of time by experts using procedures intended for this. General didactics deals with the theoretical aspect of teaching and reflects on the circumstances under which effective didactic action can occur. Perquin describes didactics as the "theory of teaching".

The teacher's actions in the classroom are in all respects viewed as part of the child's total educating and becoming. If the teaching situation in the classroom is viewed as an isolated incident, the educational ideal becomes lost. All learning is not dependent on deliberate teaching; even so, the child should not be left to haphazard learning experiences.

In order for the child to be able to effectively participate in life, it is expected that he will accept and live by the norms and standards exemplified to him by the teacher. Thus, the school provides life contents in terms of which he can orient himself. Consequently, didactics reflects on the nature and scope of these life contents. The didactic situation is where this orientation to life occurs. Therefore, it is important that didactics study this situation thoroughly.

The didactic situation is comprised of teacher, pupil and learning content in a close relationship of interaction and interdependence which are in continual accord with the aim of the teaching event. General didactics broaches the teaching intention through the relationships among teacher, pupil and learning content (where the learning content is the theme of the dialogue which is aimed at the child becoming adult).

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To find answers to the questions originating in a teaching situation, didactics necessarily borrows from the knowledge made available by the other part disciplines of pedagogics. This is necessary to insure that didactic procedures remain accountable in terms of the general demands of pedagogics.

2.2 Particular or Subject Didactics

General didactics leads to particular or subject didactics that is anchored in and influenced by general didactics. The primary difference between them is that subject didactics continually investigates and proposes practical ways and means for accomplishing the aims of general didactics. In the practical teaching situation, the focus is on a particular subject area. Subject didactics considers the presentation of a specific subject in which a general principle such as, e.g., experimenting, is applied in a specific subject area. While subject didactics involves general matters, methodology attends to the particulars of presenting the subject. Thus, there aren't clear separations among general didactics, subject didactics and methodology; they are interrelated and interdependent.

Basically, learning can be viewed as a way of going out to reality and in modern pedagogics this is referred to as the child constituting a personal life world. The teacher continually presents reality to the child with the hope that he will react to it meaningfully. Here, the child is directly involved with life and creates a personal life world for himself. When he has assimilated the particular religious, moral, social, economic and other principles of the learning content, he has oriented himself to life reality. Through a variety of subjects, he becomes acquainted with different dimensions of reality and has the opportunity to construct, in due course, a hierarchy of values and priorities. The teacher is the initiator of didactic activities and how the didactic situation develops depends on what demands he places on his pupils.

An additional aspect covered by subject didactics is how the teacher explains his field of study, his approach to this task and his plan of action. Here general didactic principles are applied in the form of

specific didactic practice. Fundamental principles such as individualization, authority, freedom, activity are the primary ones applied in subject or particular didactics. Further, there are a variety of methods and techniques from which to choose or which can be integrated with each other. Particular didactics has to describe these possibilities for teaching.

In subject didactics, ordering and arranging the learning material is of great importance. The learning material can be presented following different patterns or procedures, e.g., concentric, symbiotic, chronological and how it is arranged is important for individualizing and programming it. With his particular aims in view, the teacher, in compliance with the general principles, now takes into account the teaching possibilities of the learning material, methods, aids and arrangement in order to attain the best results with his particular lesson structure or lesson plan. It is the teacher's task to digest, evaluate and then use all of the information available to him about the situation of his particular subject area.

2.3 Methodology

The Greek word methodos means the "way", i.e., the way or procedure to follow in order to attain a particular aim. When a method is considered, it is assumed that the aim has already been chosen and that its attainability has been determined. Methodology describes a particular guideline for achieving a particular aim and in the case of subject methodology it is directed to a particular subject matter area. The teacher knowingly anticipates general teaching procedures such as demonstrating, questioning, experimenting but their application to such subjects as Chemistry and Geography will differ. Thus, general methodology has to be interpreted in terms of subject-directed methodology since a teaching method is determined directly by the nature of the learning material. General and specific methodology both address the question of how a particular teaching situation should be implemented. When a teaching methodology is planned, it is necessary to take into account the circumstances of the situation when working out a plan of action.

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There is a danger that methods can become inflexible recipes and thus lose touch with the underlying didactic principles. It is essential that a teacher see the connection between didactic principles, which are directed at the aim of adulthood, and methods, which provide an immediate, concrete and real contribution to attaining that aim.

In applying methodology, the teacher looks for positive and meaningful ways to organize his teaching practice. To accomplish this, he has to think of ways and methods that will allow the learning content to make a lasting impression on the pupil. There is no doubt that the methods used by the teacher will influence in particular ways the teaching and learning activities. The teacher should insure that the methods link up with the subject he is presenting in such a way that the pupil can acquire adequate knowledge and control of his subject area. Using a particular method should not be a matter of routine. Rigid recipes should not be used and the methods should continually be adapted and adjusted to the pre-established aim. The teacher has full responsibility for what takes place in the classroom and, in this light, the methods have to be chosen and planned in responsible ways.

2.4 Orthodidactics

When the didactic event goes wrong for one or another reason, the didactician has to deduce what has given rise to the difficulty and make recommendations for neutralizing and eliminating the factors restraining the teaching/learning event. This aspect of didactics is known as orthodidactics. Remedial teaching is part of orthodidactics just as methodology is part of didactics, and it also should be viewed against a pedagogic background. A learning difficulty is the joint effect of all restraining factors in a teaching situation and often there are a number of deeper seated problems. Solving these problems is not limited only to the teaching situation but rather pedagogics extends much wider and permeates almost all facets of life.

Dealing with learning difficulties is significant to the didactician since in order to help with learning problems, he has to re-establish

a perspective on life. To be able to help pupils in the variety of problem situations that arise, orthodidactic diagnosis is essential. After the nature, extent and origin of the learning problem are determined, orthodidactic therapy in the form of remedial teaching can help the child overcome his problems. As initiator of the didactic event, the teacher has a key position in dealing with learning problems.

3. TERTIARY DIDACTICS (Post-secondary teaching)

There was a time when institutions of higher education paid little attention to the science of teaching and the view held was that lecturing, in itself, was the right course to follow for teaching to be scientifically based. With the increase in the number of students and also their rate of failure, along with the development of modern technology, gradually the idea emerged that much could be done to improve the effectiveness of teaching in "higher education." During the ensuing years, this dimension of didactics emerged and many tertiary institutions now are researching this issue.

A problem at all institutions of higher education is first-year failures or dropouts. This problem is seen to be of such importance that UNESCO launched a worldwide study of it.

Lecturers who have not been specifically trained to teach at the tertiary level are often hired. The able academician is selected without considering his ability to instruct, and a good teacher at the primary or secondary school level is not necessarily a good teacher at the tertiary level.

The development of teaching technology has occurred so quickly, is so widely received and is so far-reaching in nature that it has become necessary to train lecturers in implementing a great variety of aids. Tertiary didactics embraces a study of the deliberate and systematic presentation of knowledge, and it includes theory as well as practice. Here, general didactics has relevance for the science of instruction and the purposeful forming of the student while subject didactics is attuned to a particular subject area.

4. CONSERVATISM AND PROGRESSIVISM

During this century, there has been a gradual renovation whereby the traditional school has acquired a richer program. Sometimes there is an inclination to reject everything from the past and to welcome the new without investigating whether the renovation entails an improvement. Thus, didactics also has to deal with the problem of conservatism and progressivism. The one leads to stagnation, the other to running wild. Here, as elsewhere, the skill is to distinguish between absolute standards and relative values. Conservatism can lead to absolutizing the relative while progressivism can lead to relativizing the absolute. It is possible for the progressive tendency to strive for the new to such a degree that even abiding values are doubted and thrown overboard. The younger generation regards the new as more useful and thus better than the old.

The question is, given our quickly changing world, can a retrospective view of the history of didactics be of any value to us? It is maintained that our contemporary situation is so unique and peculiar that the past can contribute but little to didactic study. The task of the modern school is essentially so different that the normative character of the past has lost its value and has degenerated into a useless traditionalism. However, no dividing line can be drawn between the past and the present. The past has a profound influence on the present and the future. Therefore, there has to be a meaningful continuation of the past through the present into the future. Didactics of the past can still serve as the fertile ground and soil for renovation. It is a problem for the educator to retain the good, the true and the meaningful from the past without stagnating. To achieve a balance between the conservative and progressive approaches to teaching, a reassessment is required of the traditional as well as the modern ways by which our youth ought to be guided or accompanied. The choice of learning material, methods and aids all have to be accountable as didactic interventions which lead the child to a way of living by which he eventually acts as a responsible, independent adult.

5. THEORY AND PRACTICE

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One of the problems experienced in pedagogics is maintaining a healthy balance between theory and practice. There is a temptation to stress one of these aspects at the expense of the other and the question is how to maintain a balance. Theoretical reflections on problems arising from practice and on ways theory can serve practice are necessary; therefore, a dialogue between theory and practice is necessary. Pedagogics has to keep up with the latest developments and assimilate the information made known by sciences auxiliary to pedagogics (e.g., psychology, medicine).

Pedagogics, however, is a practical science and often will be called upon to solve all kinds of problems in scientific ways and thus give guidance to the practice of educating. There is room for the view that the task of pedagogics is to reflect on problems of concern, express the results and bring them to the attention of the practice of teaching, without necessarily being prescriptive.

6. DIDACTICS AND PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE

Teaching theory, teaching practice and a view of life are closely interrelated. Didactics is not merely descriptive, it is normative; this influences not only the factual content being taught but also the values which lie hidden in the content. Thus, the aim of teaching and educating (and, therefore, teaching practice) will be influenced by the educator's philosophy of life. The aim of educating is defined by the aim of life and, therefore, the educator's view of life will influence his view of educating.

The view of life, as the total of notions about what is valuable in life, has a certain obligatory character with a normative influence and which influences the entire scope of human activities and this includes didactic work. The educator with a religiously oriented view of life accepts that this not only sets requirements for his pedagogic interventions but that it will permeate all aspects of life.

A philosophy of life and the compilation of the curriculum and syllabus also are connected. All nations accept the desirability of a core program of cultural content that is purposefully presented for forming a unique national culture. Just as all nations have their own view of life which makes living meaningful for its members, so

our view of life is assimilated into our teaching policies and is embodied in our types of schools, school organization and teaching methods.

Teaching as a whole has to be directed to a child's harmonious development and becoming adult, and it is the love and dedication of the teacher that awakens and strengthens the child's belief in the authority of the norms exemplified. In the encounter between teacher and pupil in the educative situation, one acquires the noblest forms of striving to be human when the teacher accepts the authority of the greatest Educator.

7. CONCLUSION

With this, the terrain of didactic study is delimited and it is realized that didactic insight can only be acquired when all dimensions of pedagogics are studied. Although the findings of pedagogics and didactics are general, those of educating, teaching and methodology are more particular in nature. Educating and teaching are applied to a unique child in a particular milieu and, therefore, the procedure has to be purposeful and specific. Consequently, with the necessary founding in pedagogics, we can move from the general to the specific and thus to didactics which is allowed to claim its rightful place as a part discipline of pedagogics.

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THE NATURE AND ESSENCE OF SPECIAL DIDACTICS AND ITS APPLICATION TO THE DIDACTIC SITUATION*

C. J. van Dyk
University of Pretoria

1. Introduction

Some teachers contend that in their teaching there is no place for theory and methods. They rely on the spur of the moment, a creative personality, intuitive feelings and schemes of anticipation sharpened by experience. However, a closer investigation shows that they make use of fixed methods and teaching principles that are followed unconsciously or mechanically. It is good to realize that such a way of teaching necessarily is deficient as far as pedagogic-didactic schooling, organized insights and well-thought-out actions are concerned. It also runs the risk of leading to a schematization and rigidity of approach by which the blame for all failures is sought solely in the pupils.

On the other hand, we are faced with the problem that there is not much uniformity in the language used among theoreticians in their discourse about didactic problems/questions. The great variety of meanings of the root word "didaskein", as found in the Greek language, makes it clear why the concept 'didactic" is so diversely interpreted and defined in the history of pedagogic-didactic thinking.

What is didactics?

Didactics is a theory that reflects on the scope and meaning of the event between persons known as teaching. It shows a dualism in that, on the one hand, it thinks purely theoretically about the phenomenon of teaching but, on the other hand, at the same time there also is a more practical aspect regarding the art of teaching.

However, teaching can only be such an art in which the presenter shows his own style when it no longer is suffocated by the force of a dead tradition or is repetitions without insight but when it springs from the interiority of the teaching person.

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* South African Journal of Pedagogy, 1967, Vol. 1, No. 2, 36-47.

2. Further demarcation of concepts: Becoming a person, becoming an adult and teaching:

To allow teaching as one of the ways of educating to occur properly it is necessary to disclose the connections among becoming a person (human), becoming adult and teaching.

Pedagogics reflects on the primordial phenomenon of educating that is given with being human and is actualized in an educative event between adult and child. Our pedagogic aims point to the child's becoming an adult under the guidance of an adult and in terms of certain norms.

The field of study of didactics, as a theory of teaching, however, is not discontinued with becoming adult but it embraces learning in all forms and teaching on all levels of becoming a person. Thus, the educative event is completed in the teaching activity when adulthood is reached while the didactic event continues. Becoming a person, of which educating is the first part, is not thinkable without teaching. Teaching (as distinguished from pure instruction) is responsible for bringing to consciousness every relationship between a person's own world (which includes his inner world) and the reality around him. Teaching serves becoming a person and offers the possibilities for actualizing being a person. To compare becoming a person with forming gives it a one sided character. Because completeness cannot be striven for in a short article such as this, for our purpose the following schematic divisions of didactics are expanded on further:

(a) General didactics.
(b) Special didactics.
(c) Subject didactics or methodology.

To better illuminate the nature and essence of special didactics it is necessary to clearly describe its position as woven between the more theoretical and practical aspects of didactics.

3. The field of study of special didactics

The above division clearly places special didactics closer to practice than is general didactics. This requires that there be a search for a set of categories in terms of which the systematic design of a didactic situation is made possible. A person continually finds himself in a situation, i.e., in a totality of circumstances according

to which he must act. In the branching off of special didactics to a specific didactic situation and a search for valid data, activities must be carried out that allow teaching in its learning as well as instructional aspects to be done justice. Then special didactics remains anchored in general didactics because both are co-determinants for harmoniously becoming a person. Related to this, special didactics also must find points of contact for its deliberations in general pedagogical and methodological findings. Later these aspects are dealt with separately.

A task of special didactics is to plan the didactic situation such that it is not given by prescriptions. In order to meaningfully unlock reality for a learner he must be helped to understand this reality and make discoveries himself that will allow him to master additional distinctions. For an orientation to reality, content relations between theory and practice must be disclosed to the learning person.

To build a bridge between thought structures and question asking from the theory, on the one hand, and the aims, demands and idiosyncrasies of the practice, on the other hand, conscious methods must be used to bring about a convergence of current findings that possibly occur in the course of the planned didactic situation for methodology to be put into perspective and show a favorable form.

(a) **Disciplines that serve as points of contact for special didactics.**

(i) **Pedagogics:**

Where pedagogics is concerned with thinking through and describing the event that occurs when an adult intervenes with a child, the pronouncements of any didactic theory must necessarily acknowledge this and more particularly in its pronouncements about the preschool's and school's periods of educating. Any contradictions between pedagogical aims and didactic conceptions can lead to insurmountable misunderstandings as soon as they are applied in practice. Within the limits of the child's educating to adulthood the design of the didactic situation always offers the possibilities that the adult can purposefully intervene with the aim of the child's firmer grasp of the acknowledged, valid pedagogical values and norms. Therefore, educating may not be merely a haphazard event: it is purposefully dynamic and is directed to

practice. In order to provide for the full unfolding of the child, he can never be viewed as a blank slate that only must be written on. Each person is potentiality and didactic actions cannot be directed only to the intellectual dimension of being a person but also must address his life of feelings. To be able to provide help for this it is necessary that the pedagogical categories of freedom, responsibility, etc. be exposed in harmony with the cultural systems in the school because it is in terms of such life contents that a child acquires the beacons for constituting his life world. In mastering reality one arrives at an unlocking of it and acquires more flexibility and mobility in his judging and choosing.

Modern views of teaching and learning activities give them an ontological status that offers special didactics a firm point of contact for designing teaching situations that provide a child with the possibility to become a person. With the mastery of life realities a particular relation and disposition is built up in a child that enables him to manifest a firmer form of living and to hold particular standpoints. It is important for special didactics to know that learning is primary regarding educating because a person's way of being-in-the-world is a way of learning. The didactician cannot give a final pronouncement about what learning is for designing didactic situations from learning psychology. Rather, there must be a linking up with particular categories about learning that have ontological validity. The didactic task is to provide help with respect to learning as a human way of being. Consequently, it is more than merely a conscious occurrence, i.e., a constituting that directs the learning activity(ies) by a particular attunement (intentionality). Hence, the didactic and educative moments of learning are described as closely interacting with each other and as undeniably supporting each other. Therefore, it is a task for special didactics to ascertain for itself pedagogical findings regarding an adult's providing formal and systematic help to a child in a specific situation. By its nature, the educative event is not limited to the relationship between parent and child but also between adults and children in general. The teacher also purposefully must intervene in the life of a

child through his planning and radical alterations in the didactic situation. There must be an elimination of the fixed, traditional instructional situations and in their place a "freer" space created that offers a child more satisfaction and happiness.

(ii) General didactics:

It was indicated that the task of special didactics does not stop with the attainment of adulthood but also includes university and adult teaching. Particular didactics searches for points of contact and makes decisions from views discovered by general didactics:

(a) **Fundamental didactic forms:**

To make the pronouncements of special didactics more practical an attempt must be made to evaluate particular aims in terms of certain fundamental forms. By penetrating the teaching event it is clear that a person teaches in terms of certain fundamental structures (play, conversation, example, assignment) and that the particular forms of teaching (principles) provide the foundation for various ways of presenting or teaching, e.g, the exemplary (using examples). From history we find a number of so-called teaching plans or systems (Dalton Plan, Jena Plan, Montessori system) each of which, in a certain sense, is founded on a philosophical and/or psychological theory or particular worldview. It is important to note that these teaching forms have had a profound and lasting influence on teaching. Also, from a number of independent systems there are designs that have not hesitated to try to break through the formal, class offerings and bring about a looser class context. Here, as with any planned teaching renovation, it must always be kept in view that there are traditional opinions held about school, class and other organizational matters that make it necessary to search for the use of fundamental forms as possibilities within the framework of such an accepted class context.

For the implementation of such fundamental forms in designing a didactic situation a thorough

distinction must be made between fundamental forms for learning such as conversation, play, imitation, asking questions, etc. and fundamental forms for presenting (teaching) such as assigning, programming, dramatizing, etc. The fundamental forms provide the basis for structures according to which the learning person's activities and intentionality must be directed, but, at the same time, they also are the foundation for the presenter's choice of methods. When special didactics draws from its knowledge of the various fundamental forms in preparing a particular situation, this will be a contribution to a more conscious teaching achievement with a deeper foundation. The fundamental didactic forms provide the beginning for building up a structure of teaching activities in terms of which the learning person becomes more intensely involved in reality because his wondering and interest are stimulated.

Special didactics, then, can search for connections with play, as a category of learning, and its planning of the didactic situation can be so prepared that the child's "playful activity" is transformed into a more formal way of learning by making certain demands as expected achievements. Thus, a child first "plays" in the natural science laboratory with an increasing directedness to mastering reality with the aim of better achievement. Still later this becomes his place of work.

Special didactics arrives at decisions in terms of the fundamental forms and the insights that thereby are thrown open and that make valid his design of the didactic situation since the forms of being hold true in each phase of teaching because, as a didactic category, they are not anchored in other phenomena although in the more formal situation they sometimes will be almost unrecognizable. However, an admirable fundamental form must not be unconditionally adhered to simply because it includes a specific

usefulness or benefit. Also the integration and varied implementation of fundamental forms in the teaching situation still guarantee no absolute success but only help to act with more awareness and clarity.

(b) **The part the presenter (teacher) plays:**
It must always be remembered that the presenter is the initiator of the didactic event and determines its direction and course, presents the learning person with demands, and selects and orders the learning contents. Briefly, he controls the climate of the didactic situation that can be defining for the actualization of an encounter and the forming of dispositions. Each presenter's personality, attunement and ability give an individual "style" to his teaching, irrespective of the methods and aids with which he involves himself. It is the task of special didactics to design the practice in such a way that the didactics of various subjects, each following its specific aims, can adopt this design without being forced into a fixed routine.

In each didactic situation there must be mention of unquestionable values and norms that must be acquired and therefore the teacher cannot follow a natural course. There must be a push through from sporadic intervention and later to meaningful guidance by the presenter by which an essential change in the learning person is brought about. Knowledge of the theoretical findings of general didactics provides the presenter with the preparation and motivation for planning his teaching practice.

From the above it can be deduced that the learning person, to a great extent, can constitute his life world out of the image that the presenter (of reality) holds before him. It is the disclosure of the categories of reality, as they are announced by the presenter, that enable the child to order, to change and eventually to exceed himself by establishing new realities.

(c) **Forms of arranging the learning material:**

One of the most essential tasks of special didactics is to make an accountable selection from and obtain an ordering of the cultural systems that must be presented as life contents when it very soon is clear that it would be an impossible task to be involved with the entirety of reality. Connected with this, the newer views of concepts such as forming, formative contents and categorical forming no longer allow a place for "encyclopedic knowing" and "overloaded curricula" as aims. With the introduction of the concept categorical forming, the independent existence of material and formal forming are neutralized with a far-reaching change of what can be viewed as formative contents with formative value. In the first place, a striving for a static completeness must be relinquished regarding the learning material; with exemplary principles of ordering a clear objection is shown to such suffocation by the abundance of learning material. The unlocking of the general must be acquired in terms of the simple, the original or elemental, as core points of the didactic deliberations. By such an exemplary ordering of the learning material each theme must be stripped to its essentials so that the learning person can discover the general in terms of the particular, typical, fundamental, etc.

To the general principles for constructing lesson plans (concentric, symbiotic, linear, chronological, etc.) special didactics now must add forms of curricula such as a maximum, minimum and skeleton plan that each opens new possibilities for certain subject areas. Special didactics has to consider the fact that complex learning materials show stratified structures that the essentials build up but also that concern their level of difficulty and understandability. Thus, a spiral form used to design a didactic situation acquires meaning as a possibility to arrange bit-by-bit the non-surveyable content and present it in an understandable way. Similarly, a teaching principle such as programming largely is a linear ordering of learning contents—i.e., a sequence from the more simple to the most complex learning contents. To allow didactic principles such as individualization and differentiation to occur properly, a

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minimum curriculum plan can be implemented as form of ordering that only delimits the core learning material and leaves things open for inserting supplementary programs according to the interest and ability of the learning person.

The ordering of learning material also must keep in mind what learning contents, as means for educating and becoming a person, form those firm beacons of the area of knowledge in terms of which the learner can determine his own position in reality. Only such original lived experiencing, stemming from a meaningful ordering of contents, can verify the deeper relations of the formative event.

Designing a didactic situation must try to bring about a synthesis between form and content by selecting and ordering learning contents so that, as a stated problem, they demand the active participation of the learning person.

(d) **The principle of perception (observation):** Pestalozzi had indicated that all knowledge is fundamentally rooted in a perceptual image. In his involvement with reality a child constructs a diffuse life world for himself of global representations that gradually are analyzed by educating and teaching and are made insightful. Perceiving that originates in a primordial wonder and astonishment as a result of the appealing character of a perceived object creates an "open" attitude and readiness in the learning person that, as a fruitful moment in teaching, must not go unused. As a consequence of his more intense attentiveness and correlated more refined perceiving, certain actual questions now arise in the learning person to which he seeks answers. At the same time, on the one hand, particular directions of interest, talents and proficiencies of the pupils are laid bare, while, on the other hand, specific gaps in knowledge and incorrect insights and concepts in his equipment are shown. However, when the course of the didactic event does not speak to the interiority of the learning person, the

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teaching offers food to someone who is not hungry for it and this can result in him mistakenly being judged as "dumb" simply because he has not yet discovered what the contents are all about.

In designing the didactic situation it must be taken into account that perceiving cannot merely be a physical or psychological "process" because where it manifests itself as a way of being-in-the-world it not only helps define conscious [cognitive] activities but also the life of feelings. Consequently, each person lived experiences each learning situation differently.

Hence, now the task of special didactics is to reflect on the help that can be given to bring reality "closer" to the learning person. The nearness of an object that is related to at a physical distance is no guarantee of real perception. Rather the disclosure of the essentials can be made possible by a fundamental question that is presented as a problem. This indicates that in teaching answers should not be given to questions that were not even asked.

Sometimes it is necessary that certain teaching aids (learning as well as instructional aids) be used where they can contribute to helping bring reality "closer" to the learning child. The design and structure of the teaching event must never be determined by the teaching aids. Special didactics especially should provide general guidelines for subject didactics because the nature and essence of some aids lend themselves to taking the teaching form of a particular subject out of context. For example, here we think of the use of pictures in teaching social studies.

(iii) **Methodology:**
In discussing the forms of ordering or arranging learning material reference was made to the close relation between the "what" (contents) and the "how" (methods). Therefore, it is necessary that special didactics also search for points of contact with general pronouncements of methodology and reflect on their

structuring relations, scope and limits of their validity and significance.

Methodology cannot limit all of its deliberations to revealing a best way of mastering learning material but it also must make pronouncements about concepts such as "maturing", "forming", "educating" as part of its methodological work. Where special didactics focuses itself on a specific situation it cannot provide watertight indications from the broad field of methodology but only can point to possible ways by which certain aims can be realized. Once special didactics has made the fundamental principles of all of the methods understandable the presenter can contrast the "newer" with the "older" or allow one to be linked up to another. In doing this, his methodology acquires flexibility and a personal style. By finding direct links with fundamental methodological axioms, the methodological work acquires a more artistic and resourceful character, and malpractice is eliminated such as that in which all learning material is forced under one methodological scheme or that of blindly following certain methods. Methodology gives overarching insights into matters such as experimenting, stating problems, drill work, etc. that for special didactics can be of motivational and discriminative value in describing guidelines for practice. Here we think of the appeal emanating from the "gestalt" of a teaching principle that relies on a globally experienced perception from which the narrow and one-sided view of teaching following fixed stages of learning can be shown to be invalid.

Fundamental insight into the principle of exemplary teaching, perforce, has the consequence that contemporary views of the inductive method must be qualified. Here indeed, this does not involve the amount of distinct "cases" that must be recognized and in terms of which, through generalizing, the law or rule must be found but rather the offering of a few examples that include the **essentials** of the general.

Thus, it also is clear that the pronouncements of special didactics must not be bound to specific areas of learning

material although methodological principles that are offered will be found to be more easily applied to particular subject areas. Thus, in the strongest sense of the word, a method only is a way to a particular aim. Special and subject didactics only can select a particular teaching form when the aims are clearly in view.

4. General:
Just because special didactics must obtain its points of support for its pronouncements from an inner circle of disciplines, it cannot disconnect itself from truths beyond what can make valuable contributions to successfully design a particular teaching situation. Here we think of sciences that have humans [persons] as a common foundation for various fields of study such as psychology, philosophy, sociology and physiology.

However, there must be a vigorous watch for an actual danger that didactics and didactic views are not used as a plaything by a psychologistic view or as a field of experimentation for one or another [philosophical] anthropological theory. A purely ontological truth in which didactic norms and values are rooted is that didactics finds its origin and foundation in educating and in the world of the child. Even so, didactics must always have knowledge of the facts of developmental psychology in order to be able to make accountable pronouncements about the questions of progress in life development. Basic knowledge about phenomena of nature such as light and sound is indispensable for full insight into a concept such as perceiving and the proper use and adaptation of technical aids. Deliberations from sociology and other social sciences are fundamental for preparing and planning forms of teaching such as group work.

Thus, it appears that the task of special didactics is a more important matter than was realized up to now. That the success of any teacher's (presenter's) preparation and the planning and design of practice no longer can be a casual matter and that the aims of pedagogics, general didactics and methodological theories continually must be kept in view.

AUTHOR'S ENGLISH SUMMARY*

* Slightly edited by G.D.Y. and American English added.

THE NATURE OF SPECIAL DIDACTICS AS APPLIED TO THE DIDACTIC SITUATION

1. Introduction:

We still find some teachers, especially among those of the "old guard" who in their teaching only rely on their creative personality and intuitive sense while rejecting the possibility of benefiting in any way from theory and a theoretical approach. However, closer investigation reveals that, without realizing it, they apply fixed methods and principles that in a way constitutes a theory although they often lead to a rigid and even barren approach. As a result of this rigidity all failures, nevertheless, are blamed on the pupils and not on the inadequate theory.

On the other hand, the variety of interpretations and meanings attributed to the term "didactics" and its derivatives (e.g., didactician) have led to confusion in pedagogical didactic thought and pronouncements. Therefore, it is necessary to attempt to define didactics. Didactics is the theory that is concerned with the scope and meaning of teaching. As such, it has a purely theoretical aspect but also a more practical one. Both aspects must contribute to any considerations regarding a particular didactic situation.

2. Clarification of the concepts of achieving humanity, achieving adulthood and teaching:

Achieving true humanity, of which achieving adulthood (the aim of educating/upbringing) is the first phase, is inconceivable without teaching. Teaching (as distinguished from mere instructing) is responsible for making conscious every relationship between a person's own world (which includes his inner world) and the reality around him. Under the guidance of the adult the child (i.e., the learning person) learns and acquires certain norms. This is a pedagogical occurrence. However, didactics comprises much more and includes learning in all of its forms and teaching at all levels and stages of one's striving to achieve humanity and not only within the adult-child relationship subdivided under at least the three headings of General Didactics, Special Didactics and Subject Didactics (also called the method(s) of teaching a specific subject). Special Didactics occupies a central position between General and Subject Didactics.

3. The field of study of special didactics:
The above subdivision implies that Special Didactics is somewhat closer to practice than is General Didactics. This means that a new search must be made for a set of categories that will make a systematic design of a didactic situation possible. The fact that Special Didactics is directed at specific didactic situations and at a search for data holding good in such situations requires that action be taken that will do justice to teaching in its learning as well as presentational aspects. In addition to acknowledging that Special Didactics is embedded in General Didactics it also is necessary to realize that in its pronouncements, points of contact must be found with general pedagogical and methodological insights. The following disciplines serve as points of contact for Special Didactics:

(i) **Pedagogics:** Any contradictions between pedagogical aims and didactic conceptions can lead to insurmountable misunderstandings when the conceptions are applied in practice. Special Didactics must always take cognizance of the pedagogical views concerning the adult's help to a child in a particular situation.

(ii) **General Didactics:** Special didactics also is able to make pronouncements in the light of notions and principles revealed in general didactic theory, some of which are the following:

(a) *Fundamental didactic principles:* These are the basis of structures that direct the learning person's intentionality and activities but at the same time suggest the choice of method the teacher should make. It is clear that the application of such fundamental principles does not automatically guarantee absolute success.

(b) *The part played by the teacher* in the didactic situation must not be underestimated. Through preparation and planning on his part as catylist and initiator of the didactic situation he bestows on it an individual "style" without sacrificing too much mobility and adaptability.

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(c) Different ways of systematizing and arranging the subject matter to be learned are among the most essential tasks of Special Didactics. Here special attention must be paid to newer insights concerning educative forming as well as to factors such as the way the learner encounters and experiences the subject matter. This will shed light on such principles of arrangement as the selection of representative exemplars, linear ordering, a concentric approach, etc. In Special Didactics attention also has to be paid to the educative value of any particular curriculum content.

(d) Points of contact also must be found with contemporary views on observation [perceiving] and "Anschauung". In his contact and encounter with reality the learner often creates a diffuse world for himself. It is the task of Special Didactics to inquire into the possibilities of bringing reality "closer" to the learner so the world will become clearer and less diffuse. In its turn, this will lead to more refined concept formation on his part which not only has a bearing on his cognitive but also on his affective life. The use of correct teaching aids can be a vital factor in introducing reality as it is presented to the learner.

(iii) **Methodology**: Finally, Special Didactics also must take into account general principles of methodology with a view to applying them to the method(s) of teaching specific subjects. This will enhance the effectiveness of the methods used. However, prior to specific methods being decided upon, the aims envisioned must be clearly formulated.

4. General:

Special didactics, in formulating principles for the preparation of a specific didactic situation, will have to link up with a number of other disciplines that all have the study of persons as a common denominator in their varying fields of inquiry. Philosophy,

Psychology, Sociology and Physiology are a few that spring to mind here. One admonishment seems, however, to be relevant in this respect, namely, that great care must be taken to prevent what are essentially didactic matters from losing this didactic character and be reduced purely to concepts and subjects for experimentation in these disciplines.

In conclusion it seems as if the task of Special Didactics is rather more important than has generally been realized up to now. It is becoming clearer that successful preparation by any teacher and his planning of the practical teaching and learning situation cannot be a merely casual affair but that he must consistently bear in mind pedagogical, general didactical and methodological theories and considerations.

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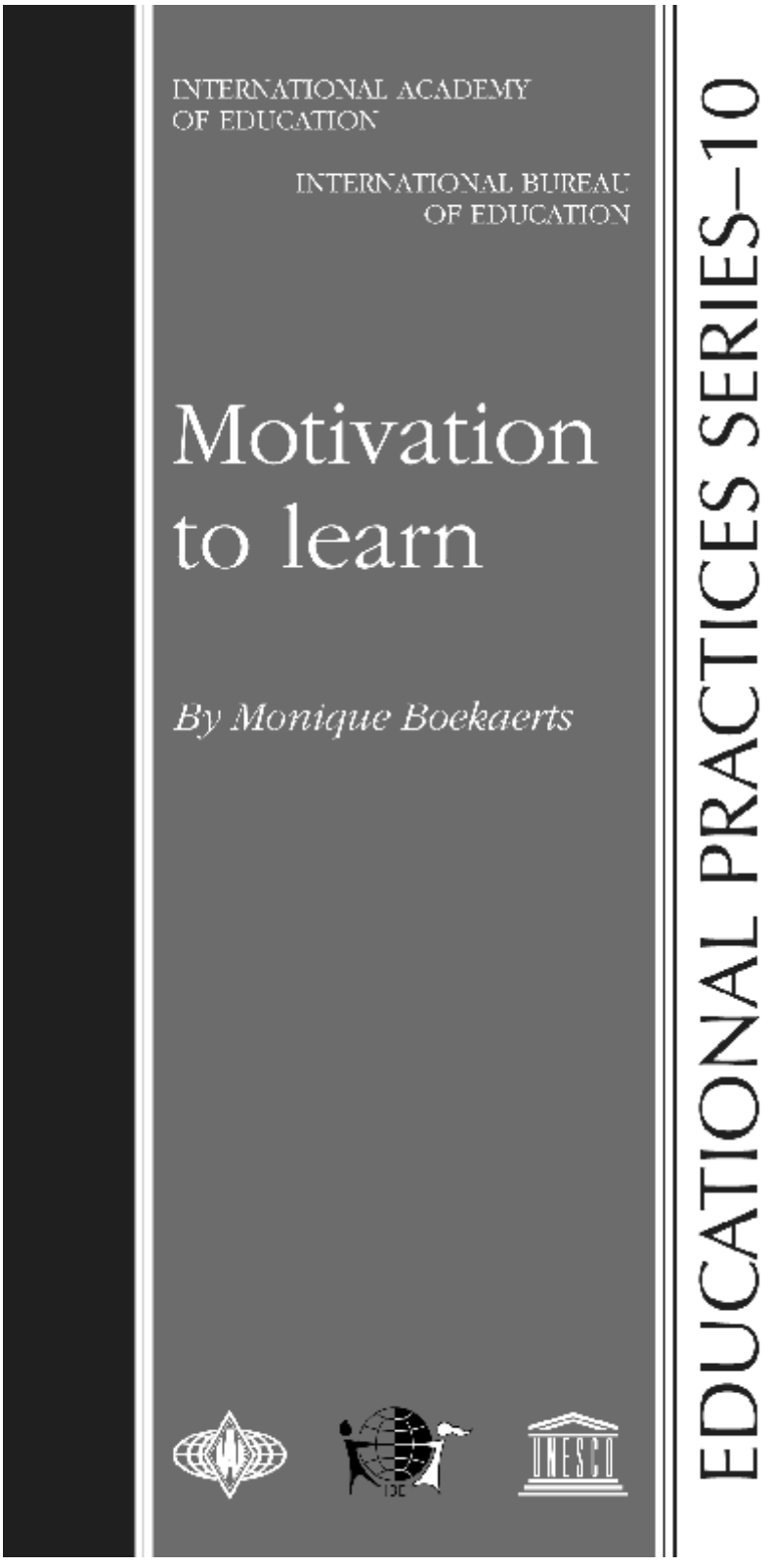
INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY
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Motivation
to learn
By Monique Boekaerts
UNESCO
EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES SERIES–10

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Preface

This booklet explains principles that encourage children to learn and has been prepared for inclusion in the Educational Practices Series developed by the International Academy of Education and is distributed by the International Bureau of Education and the Academy. As part of its mission, the Academy provides timely syntheses of research on educational topics of international importance. This booklet is the tenth in the series on educational practices that improve learning. It opens a new door, however, since it focuses on behaviour rather than academic learning.

The author of this booklet, Monique Boekaerts, began her career as a teacher but decided to take up the study of psychology to understand better what went on in the minds of her students. She is a full professor at Leiden University in the Netherlands and has published over 120 papers and book chapters on motivation and self-regulation. She set up collaborative innovation programmes with the school-management and teachers of large vocational schools. Together with Teaching and School Management Consultants (TSM) she coaches the change processes that are currently taking place in vocational education. Professor Boekaerts has served as president of the European Association for Research in Learning and Instruction.

The officers of the International Academy of Education are aware that this booklet is based on research carried out primarily in economically advanced countries. The booklet, however, focuses on aspects of learning and behaviour that that may be found in most cultures in varying degrees. The principles presented here are likely to be generally applicable and useful throughout the world. Even so, the principles should be assessed with reference to local conditions, and adapted accordingly. In any educational setting, nation or culture, suggestions or guidelines for practice require sensitive and sensible application, and continuing evaluation.

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Introduction

In the last forty years, researchers have studied student motivation and have learned a great deal about:

- What moves students to learn and the quantity and quality of the effort they invest;
- What choices students make;
- What makes them persist in the face of hardship.
- How student motivation is affected by teacher practices and peer behaviour;
- How motivation develops;
- How the school environment affects it.

Most of the motivation research focused on well-adjusted students who are successful in school. However, successful students differ from their less-successful peers in many ways. For example, they often have clear ideas of what they want and do not want to achieve in life. Moreover, they perceive many learning settings as supportive of their own wishes, goals and needs, and react positively to the teacher's motivational practices.

This booklet is a synthesis of principles of motivation that have emerged from research into the effect of motivational practices on school learning. It addresses more traditional aspects, such as achievement motivation, intrinsic motivation and goal orientation, as well as the effect of teacher practices that promote motivational beliefs, motivation strategies and willpower. It focuses on learning goals and the effect of motivation on the pursuit of these goals, whilst recognizing the need for teacher practices that target socio emotional goals as well.

Much of the research supporting the principles specified in this booklet stems from studies that investigated the association between motivation (seen as a student characteristic) and learning outcomes. Other principles have their origins in the theory of self that children and adolescents themselves develop through the years. Still other principles are based on research that showed how the opportunities that teachers and schools provide for learning and personal development (instructional procedures, teacher behaviour and classroom climate) are congruent or in conflict with the students' needs and goals. Priority was given to those principles that teachers can apply in their classrooms. It is the aim of this short introduction to motivation to make teachers aware that youngsters'

psychological needs change continuously. They change not just as a function of their developing knowledge and expertise in a particular subject-matter domain, but also in relation to their emerging theory of self in relation to that domain.

In this booklet, the reader will get to know two youngsters, namely Stefano and Sandra, who are both 11 years old and are attending school in different parts of the world. Stefano is the son of a car mechanic. He goes to school in a rural area in the south of Europe. Sandra is the daughter of a road worker. She attends school in a big city in South America. It is my intention to describe the thoughts, feelings and actions of these two children in order to provide an illustration of the various constructs described in the research sections. I hope that teachers will perceive these students' developing values, interests and goals as similar to what they actually observe in their own classrooms.

The eight principles addressed in this booklet are meant to be understood as pieces in a jig-saw puzzle that fit together to provide a coherent, comprehensive picture of how to provide a powerful environment for motivation strategies to develop. If you want to find out more about these eight principles, or about a specific principle, you can consult the literature on motivation. References are provided in relation to each principle.

1. Motivational beliefs

Motivational beliefs act as favourable contexts for learning.

Research findings

In the classroom the content covered and the social context vary continuously. Hence, children are frequently involved in unfamiliar learning situations. This may create ambiguity and uncertainty for some students and challenge for other students. Students try to make sense of novel learning situations by referring to their motivational beliefs. Motivational beliefs refer to the opinions, judgements and values that students hold about objects, events or subject-matter domains. Researchers have described the beliefs that students use to assign meaning to learning situations. A specific set of motivational beliefs pertains to the value students attach to a domain. For example, Stefano often says: 'I cannot see what I can possibly learn from reading poetry;' while Sandra states: 'Reading poems is the nicest activity we do at school.'

Motivational beliefs also refer to the student's opinion of the efficiency or effectiveness of learning and teaching methods (Stefano: 'Why do we always have to work in groups? I can learn better when I work alone'). Beliefs about internal control can be distinguished into self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. Self-efficacy beliefs are opinions that students hold about their own ability in relation to a specific domain (Stefano: 'I believe that I am good at solving this type of mathematics problem;' Sandra: 'I am not a star in math, but I know how to analyze a reading text'). Outcome expectations are beliefs about the success or failure of specific actions (Stefano: 'I have been working at this grammar task for a long time and I still cannot get it right. I am certain I will not be able to come up with an acceptable solution').

Research has indicated that motivational beliefs result from direct learning experiences (e.g. Sandra: 'Most math problems are too difficult for me to get them right the first time. However, when somebody gives me a hint I can solve a lot of problems').

observation learning (e.g. Stefano: 'The math teacher gets annoyed when students do not offer help to each other'), verbal statements by teachers, parents or peers (e.g. Sandra: 'My father thinks it is nonsense to learn poetry in school; he says mathematics is far more important') and social comparisons (e.g. Stefano: 'Why do I always get scolded, while the teacher never says anything to other students?').

Motivational beliefs act as a frame of reference that guides students' thinking, feelings and actions in a subject area. For example, motivational beliefs about mathematics determine which strategies students think are appropriate to do specific tasks. It is noteworthy that a student's beliefs about a domain may be dominantly favourable (optimistic) or unfavourable (pessimistic), thus providing a positive or negative context for learning. Once formed, favourable and unfavourable motivational beliefs are very resistant to change.

Motivating your students

As teachers, you should have a good idea of the motivational beliefs that your students bring into the classroom. It is important that you are aware that your students may already have formed favourable or unfavourable beliefs about a topic before they come into class. Knowledge about your students' motivational beliefs will allow you to plan learning activities that make good use of their favourable motivational beliefs and prompt them to reconsider unfavourable beliefs. Students are very successful in hiding their thoughts and feelings, leading to misconceptions about their values, self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations.

The set of principles addressed in this booklet will hopefully provide more insight into students' motivational beliefs and into the way these beliefs affect their involvement, commitment and engagement in the life classroom. Knowledge of these principles will, I hope, act as guidelines for helping students to establish favourable motivational beliefs and unmask unfavourable beliefs.

References: Pintrich, 2001; Skinner, 1995; Stipek, 1988; Vermeer, Boekaerts & Seegers, 2000.

2. Unfavourable motivational beliefs impede learning

Students are not motivated to learn in the face of failure.

Research findings

Fear of failure does not automatically lead to passivity or avoidance. What matters are the motivational beliefs that have been attached to a subject-matter area. For example, Stefano has dominantly favourable beliefs about mathematics and unfavourable beliefs in relation to language learning. Domain-specificity of motivational beliefs implies that a student may be failure-oriented in some domains and not in others. Stefano no longer perceives a relationship between what he can do (his actions) and the outcomes of his actions (success or failure) in the language domain. He feels uncertain, stating that he is unable to perform the tasks well. Students give different reasons for their success or failure in various school subjects and these reasons are consistent with their self-concept of ability in that domain. The main reasons Stefano gives for his poor performance in languages is his lack of ability. Other frequently used excuses for poor performance are lack of effort (Sandra: 'I did poorly in history today because I did not put in a lot of effort'), bad luck (Stefano: 'I was unlucky that I was called upon first to consider that question'), inadequate strategy use (Stefano: 'I solved the math problem correctly, but I did not know that we had to write down the solution steps as well') and task characteristics (Sandra: 'The math problem was just too difficult'). Children who view poor performance as the result of low ability expect failure to occur again and again. These students experience negative thoughts and feelings (e.g. Sandra: 'I am the only one with seven mistakes. The teacher will not like me because I am a dumb kid'). Negative thoughts that are repeatedly associated with a task or activity become attached to similar learning situations. As such, a whole domain may be categorized as 'too difficult' or 'threatening'. Once these unfavourable motivational beliefs have become part of a

student's theory of self, they will be activated again and again, creating doubt and anxiety. Unfavourable beliefs impede the learning process because they direct the learners' attention away from the learning activity itself, focusing it instead on their low ability. Even though children's understanding of causality changes with age, their beliefs about the cause of their successes and failures in a particular domain are very resistant to change.

Motivating your students

Students who state that they will never be able to complete the task successfully signal to you that they no longer perceive a link between their actions and a positive outcome. You can help them to re-establish the link by creating learning situations where they can experience success. However, it is not sufficient that they get the correct solution. They also need to understand why the solution plan was correct and what they can do (actions) to improve their skill further. Your students' attention has to be drawn explicitly to the link between their actions and the outcome of their actions by asking questions such as: 'What did you do to get that solution? How do you know that the strategy you used is effective? Would this strategy work for the following problem as well? Why or why not?'

Paradoxically, students who have established unfavourable motivational beliefs are not interested in such process-oriented feedback. They only want to know whether their answer is correct, or whether they are on the right track. Try to be alert when your students request outcome-related feedback. Focus on what they have already mastered (e.g. 'Stefano, you got three correct. That is better than yesterday.') rather than on their shortcomings. Better still, point out the strengths of their solution plan. Such process-oriented feedback gives them a feeling of progress, which is necessary to build up a positive identity as a successful learner. Gradually stimulate them to reflect on their own performance (self-assessment). For example, encourage Stefano to verbalize why the corrected sentence conveys his message better.

References: Covington, 1992; Stipek, 1988; Turner & Meyer, 1998; Vermeer et al., 2000; Ryan, Gheen & Midgley, 1998.

3. Favourable motivational beliefs facilitate learning

Students who value the learning activity are less dependent on encouragement, incentives and reward.

Research findings

Students are more interested in doing activities for which they think they have the necessary competence, or that they value (e.g. Stefano: 'I like math because it is easy, and I need it to become a space engineer', or Sandra: 'I don't like math, but I do my best because my dad tells me that it is important'). Students who value new skills have established favourable motivational beliefs. The chances are good that they are interested in opportunities to practice these skills. It is important to distinguish such commitment from mere compliance with the teacher-set goals. Many students complete tasks that they do not value all that much simply because they expect some sort of reward (e.g. high marks, a pass, or social approval). Students who undertake learning tasks purely for the sake of getting a reward from others, or in order to avoid some penalty, are extrinsically motivated (e.g. Stefano: 'I hate grammar exercises, but my mother prepares my favourite meal when I have to study for a test'). An activity is generally considered to be intrinsically motivating if external reward is not necessary for students to initiate and continue that activity. Favourable motivational beliefs are attached to the activity itself. Students who are intrinsically motivated will report that they do not have to invest effort and that doing the activity is gratifying (e.g. Sandra: 'when I am writing poetry or stories for the school bulletin, I lose track of time'). When difficulties arise, these students will persist with the activity because they experience a feeling of self-determination.

Motivating your students

Unfortunately, not all students are intrinsically motivated and you also have to cater to those students who are less motivated to learn. It is important to realize that classroom climate and the way you interact with your students facilitates or impedes

their motivation. Try to make tasks and activities meaningful for your students by referring to the intrinsic value of the task and to potential applications in other subject areas and outside school. How can you help your students to develop favourable motivational beliefs? Translate the curriculum in terms of the skills that your students find relevant and interesting. Find out what their current interests and future career goals are (e.g., Sandra wants to become a nurse and Stefano wants to become a space engineer). Show a video, a newspaper cutting, or tell a story, highlighting the importance and functional relevance of new content and skills. Ask students who are already motivated to explain why they value these new skills. Alternatively, ask your students to interview their parents, other teachers in school or older students to find out when they use the new content or skills. These activities will catch your students' attention and curiosity. This is already half of the motivation story. The other half is holding their interest. It is important that students perceive an optimal match between perceived demands and their current capacity. Allow them to adapt exercises according to their current capacity. For example, Stefano gets bored when math problems are too easy. Do not force him to cover the content of the lesson at the same pace, or in the same way, as the slower learners. Also, encourage students who find a math problem too demanding, to redesign it in such a way that it becomes less threatening (e.g. Sandra: 'Can I do this math problem together with Claudia?'). Allowing students to adapt a learning activity to their own psychological needs gives them a feeling of autonomy and self determination. Denying them this right will be interpreted as external pressure to comply.

References: Bruning & Horn, 2000; Guthrie & Solomon, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Stipek, 1988; Turner & Meyer, 1998; Wlodkowski & Jaynes, 1990.

4. Students' beliefs about goal orientation

Students who are mastery-oriented learn more than students who are ego-oriented.

Research findings

An important motivational belief that has not been discussed so far is goal orientation. The way students' orient themselves to learning tasks within a domain is a strong indicator of their engagement and performance. Students who learn because they want to master a new skill use more effective learning strategies than students who are ego oriented. The latter students engage in learning tasks with the intention to demonstrate success (approach ego-orientation) or to hide failure (avoidance ego-orientation). The motivation process of mastery-oriented students differs from that of ego-oriented students in many ways. For example, Stefano shows mastery-orientation in relation to the math domain and ego-orientation in relation to language domain. He starts on his math homework before dinner because he wants to find out whether he can solve the problems. He is prepared to invest effort because he values mathematics and enjoys improving his math skills. When Stefano meets obstacles while doing math, he asks himself: 'How can I make it work?' He is not ashamed that others hear about his mistakes. On the contrary, he always volunteers to show his solution plan, because he appreciates the feedback he gets. In contrast, Stefano does not want others to find out that he made many spelling and grammatical mistakes in a text.

Sandra also values mathematics but for different reasons. She is ego-oriented in math class. She wants to demonstrate success to change other people's opinion about her math ability. Sandra invests effort in math as long as she feels confident that she can find the correct solution. She gives up when she spots mistakes, because she believes that there is only one correct solution. These beliefs fuel her fear that others will use her mistakes as proof of her math ability.

Two research findings should be reported here. Firstly, students display a dominant goal orientation (ego or mastery) by the time they are in second grade, and striving for ego-orientation goals becomes more dominant as children proceed through primary school. They become progressively more concerned with their self-worth, express more concern for peer-status and avoid doing things that the group rejects (fear of alienation). By the fourth grade, avoidance ego goals (e.g. wanting to hide mistakes) have already assumed a prominent position. A second finding shows that teachers set up dominantly competitive or co-operative learning settings in class. Teachers who highlight evaluation procedures, give public feedback, frequently make social comparisons and refer to individual abilities create a competitive atmosphere and elicit ego-oriented thoughts and feelings.

Motivating your students

The extent to which you succeed in creating a mastery-oriented learning setting is an indication of your professional competence. You can play down ego-orientation by explaining to your students that you are not interested in seeing one correct outcome, but that you focus instead on their attempts to come up with a solution strategy. Students will only believe this 'trying is more important than the product' statement when you act according to what you preach. In other words, provide feedback with respect to the solution plan, encourage students to exchange information about the strategies they used and allow them to learn from their mistakes. This is a difficult job since ego-oriented students get annoyed when they have to reflect on their mistakes. By using supportive comments that highlight their involvement, progress and effort you will convince them that you value their attempts to solve problems, particularly when they reflect about what did not work out and why. Mastery-orientation will develop when these students take pride in finding parts of a solution and in catching errors in progress.

References: Elliot, 1999; Nieminvirta, 1999; Pintrich, 2001; Turner & Meyer, 1998; Vermeer et al., 2000.

5. Different beliefs about effort affect learning intentions

Students expect value for effort.

Research findings

Students decide how much effort they will allocate to a learning task on the basis of their self-concept of ability and their effort beliefs. Young children are notorious over-estimators or under-estimators of their own performance. They may rate themselves among the best of their class, even though their performance is absolutely below the mark. Young children have a rather naïve theory of effort. They believe that if they want something badly enough and do their best to accomplish it, they will be valued for their effort. In other words, they think they have control over the learning situation and keep their high expectations of success even after repeated failure. Their conceptualization of effort as the most important explanation of their successes and failures is a strong motivator to keep practicing.

However, as students get older, the messages they receive from parents and teachers change gradually. More emphasis is put on their ability as a major source of success and failure than on their effort. Children learn to take into account their actual experiences and evaluative feedback from others. They also engage in social comparisons with their peers. This implies that their domain-specific self-efficacy beliefs become more accurate and realistic. Simultaneously, they link these beliefs to their emerging theory of effort. By the age of 9, children seem to have lost confidence in effort as the overall source of success. Research evidence is clear: domain-specific self-efficacy beliefs influence effort investment, and not the other way round. Students like Stefano, who believe that they are good in mathematics, are willing to invest effort to acquire math skills, but they do not necessarily invest more observable effort. Their task-engagement is fundamentally different from that of students

who believe they lack efficiency. More specifically, these students use adequate cognitive strategies that lead to good results. Students like Sandra, who believe that their math skills are deficient, may also invest effort in mathematics. However, they do a lot of things that are ineffective, such as sitting and sighing in front of their books, copying a lot of exercises, rereading several pages. This type of effort creates anxiety and frustration and leads to poor performance. Research has shown that teachers can coach students to develop their effort beliefs. Interestingly, teachers who coach effort are rewarded by enhanced intrinsic motivation.

Motivating your students

Teacher observations confirm that students develop a threshold for declaring whether or not they have put in sufficient effort to reach the learning goal. They use specific stop rules. For example, Sandra may say: 'I have worked for more than an hour now. This must be sufficient for my math homework', or 'I have worked harder for mathematics than for history'. Stefano may justify thus: 'I don't have to work hard for math, I just do the exercises and it usually works out well', or 'I have worked longer than any of my friends to write a good text—this must be sufficient'.

In general, students' theory of effort is underdeveloped. They need assignments to build up domain specific effort beliefs and to be encouraged to update these beliefs as their skill develops. When you encourage and value effort, your students will begin to view themselves as responsible for their own learning. It is essential, however, that you provide your students with adequate feedback. A good way to start is by providing assignments that require students to predict the effort needed to do a task. After finishing the task, students could be asked to reflect on the invested effort. Was it sufficient or superfluous, and why? Once students get into the habit of reflecting on their effort, they are better equipped to self-regulate their own learning.

References: Boekaerts, 1997; Covington, 1992; Pintrich, 2001; Wlodkowski & Jaynes, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2000.

6. Goal setting and appraisal

Students need encouragement and feedback on how to develop motivational strategies.

Research findings

Students who define teacher-set goals in terms of their own reasons for learning create a commitment to a desired end-state. Their goal setting process differs fundamentally from that of students who merely comply with the teacher's expectations. Recent findings indicate that learning goals that are agreed upon jointly by the students and the teacher have a better chance of being accomplished. Such an agreement reflects the intention of both parties to invest effort.

Setting a learning goal refers to the selection of a motivation strategy that fits the actual learning situation. This strategy consists of active attempts on the part of the learner to activate favourable motivational beliefs, to pay attention to relevant cues in the learning environment, and to ignore cues that are distracting from learning. Students who take the time to appraise learning situations in terms of their own goals discover desirable and undesirable end states. For example, Stefano hated all exercises in which he had to use a dictionary. However, recognition of desirable outcomes of a language activity was a turning point in his attitude. His teacher recommended that he send a letter to a Scottish boy who wants to become a space engineer. Stefano's favourable appraisal of the pen-pal context and the anticipated desirable outcomes (getting an answer) turned him from a passive language learner into an active one. He learned to pay attention to positive outcomes and ignore undesired end states (spelling mistakes), and he discovered the power of writing as a tool for communication.

Students who begin the learning process by activating favourable beliefs, particularly mastery-orientation and self-efficacy beliefs, need less encouragement from others to get started. Moreover, favourable motivational beliefs draw students' attention to cues in the environment that elicit further interest and confidence in their own capacity to do the task.

Motivating your students

Within the context of the classroom, the teachers' main goal is to get through the syllabus. Most teachers still overrate their students' capacity to set their own learning goals. Hardly any time or effort is devoted to obtaining the students' opinions about the relevance and value of the learning tasks. Consequently, students can motivate themselves for out-of-class activities but do not have a clue about how they can motivate themselves for their schoolwork. Yet, in the goal-setting phase, students lay the foundation for further learning and for the development of interest. What can be done to encourage your students to develop motivation strategies? The goal-setting process can be facilitated by asking students to stop and think about why a particular learning task is important, relevant, fun, boring, challenging, difficult or easy. Why are they confident (or doubtful) about their own skills to do a task, and what triggers their doubt or confidence? When students have completed a task they can reflect on their original appraisal of the task again. Ask them to formulate in their own words whether their appraisal of the task has changed and why. By asking your students to reflect on their initial competence and relevance judgements in relation to different learning tasks and about their initial outcome expectations, you create a favourable classroom climate for goal setting. Your students will feel free to make their appraisals explicit and open for discussion, raise questions about their own and other students' motivation for learning, and learn from each other. If you show interest in the reasons why your students consider some topics as their favourites while others find these topics boring, both you and your students will gain information about what makes motivation strategies work.

References: Boekaerts, 1997; Boekaerts, 2001; Nieminen, 1999; Turner & Meyer, 1998; Vermeer, et al., 2000.

7. Striving for goals and willpower

Students need encouragement and feedback on how to develop willpower.

Research findings

Good intentions that were strong in the goal-setting stage do not automatically lead to goal accomplishment. Many learning goals need active striving on the part of the learner in order to be accomplished, meaning that effort needs to be invested. Effort refers to an intentional act that increases commitment to a task, such as increasing attention, concentration and the amount of time spent on a task, or by doing specific activities (e.g. re-reading, rehearsal, underlining, paraphrasing, copying). However, effort often declines when a task gets more complex or less interesting, when obstacles are encountered, or when students are distracted by competing activities. At such a point, they need willpower to sustain attention and effort.

Parents and teachers alike view persistence as an important aspect of willpower. Yet, research has shown that persistence is not necessarily a virtue. Some students try the same strategy again and again in order to complete a task (high persistence) while others discard a strategy at the first sign of failure (low persistence). Results from recent studies suggest that two important learning strategies should be implemented. The first strategy deals with the students' capacity to initiate a solution plan without too much hesitation. The second strategy deals with the students' capacity to judge whether it is fruitful to continue with a solution plan (persistence), or whether it is better to give it up because it will lead nowhere (disengagement).

Before initiating a learning activity, students should orient themselves to the learning task in terms of its purpose and possible solution plans. Effective decisions to persist in the goal striving stage are based on this knowledge. Students who have a good conception of the learning goal and also have access to a repertoire of strategies to generate an adequate solution plan

use their effort constructively. They can judge which strategies are useful and also monitor whether the selected strategies are effective to reach the goal. If they notice that a chosen strategy is not effective, they can select a new one and test whether it is more effective or else disengage from the task because they judge that effort is no longer fruitful (e.g. not enough time or resources). Students who have a misconception of the goal or lack adequate strategies may also persist, but their effort is largely undirected. For example, Sandra often tries several solution plans blindly when she is doing her math homework in the hope that one will work.

Motivating your students

How can you help your students to develop willpower? First of all, you should not be misled by observed effort. When effort investment is high (or low), you still need to know why that is the case. In order to be able to interpret student initiative, persistence and disengagement meaningfully, you need to have a good idea of the way your students perceive the learning goal and also of how much effort they need to invest to reach it. Students should be given plenty of opportunities to practice striving for goals. You can coach this process by reminding them to set a series of sub-goals and to compose a checklist that will help them to monitor, assess and reflect on the quality of their engagement and commitment during the solution process.

Reflecting on the goal-striving process implies that students should raise questions about the resources that are necessary and sufficient to reach various sub goals. For example, Stefano may ask himself: 'Do I have sufficient time to finish my history homework before dinner if I reread every section twice and make a brief summary?' Post-activity reflection about effort investment is essential to make students aware of their attempts at effort management and of the reason why they did not exercise willpower. By asking your students to compare and contrast the amount and type of effort invested in various tasks, you can help them to develop their theory of effort, and at the same time allow them to gain insight into their own willpower.

References: Boekaerts, 1997; Boekaerts, 2001; Corno & Randi, 1997; Nieminirta, 1999; Skinner, 1995.

8. Keeping multiple goals in harmony

Students are more committed to learning if the objectives are compatible with their own goals.

Research findings

Teachers, educators and parents are convinced that acquiring new knowledge and skills is the most important goal that students should strive for in a school context. The reality is different. Youngsters do not consider the learning goals set by the teacher as the most salient goals in their life. They pursue many other goals as well. For example, they want to be treated fairly, build up a network of friends, learn more about their favourite topics and discuss romantic partners. These personal goals play a crucial role in motivation processes by defining their content, direction and intensity. Recent evidence suggests that students are more motivated towards their schoolwork when school-related goals are in harmony with their own wishes, needs and expectations. For instance, Sandra adores her teacher and uses her as a role model because she acknowledges that Sandra wants to become a nurse and frequently relates schoolwork to this important goal. Students who note that the teacher acknowledges their personal goals accept the teacher's goals more easily. By contrast, students who realize that their personal goals are ignored, or even thwarted, rebel against the system and consider the curriculum as alien to their 'real' life.

Teachers and parents often complain that students do not adopt the goals they hold for them, and that they do not follow up on their well-meant advice. For example, Stefano's father tries to prevent him from doing his homework with the radio on, believing that music affects motivation and performance negatively. Current research does not support this view. Yet, such conflicts of interest lead to the frustration of Stefano's need for autonomy. Often, teachers (and parents) try to push their own goals along, thus fueling the child's struggle for autonomy. For decades, schools, teachers and researchers narrowed educa-

tional goals to learning and achievement, which only frustrated students' social goals.

Motivating your students

Students bring their own goals into the classroom and want to negotiate with you about how, when, and with whom they want to reach the learning goals. It is important to realize that you impose many goals on your students, including social goals (e.g. 'You have to work individually, without the support or help from your peers'; or 'You have to work in small groups and take responsibility for the learning of members of your group'). Peers also impose goals on other students (e.g. 'Ignore the teacher when he asks for volunteers'). When students realize that their own goals are discordant with your goals, they make attempts to align the curricular goals with their own goals. For example, Sandra may ask: 'Can I hand in my homework tomorrow because I did not have enough resource material to make a good job of it?' Similarly, Stefano may request: 'Can I do this task alone, because I have a different opinion than the rest of my group?' If you grant these requests, your students will experience self-determination. The positive cognitions and feelings that are part of that experience will further the learning process. On the contrary, if you deny these requests, they will experience a conflict of goals and may not take responsibility for achieving the curricular goals. Many forms of misbehaviour in class can be interpreted in terms of a goal conflict. You will deal more flexibly with misbehaviour when you view it as a signal that a salient goal is being frustrated. For example, Stefano may say: 'How can I work efficiently on a math problem if you want me to help students who always run into problems?' Likewise, Sandra may ask: 'Why can't we do this task together?' It is important to realize that your students want to be treated with respect. They expect you to explain why you turn down their requests.

References: Boekaerts, 1998; Boekaerts, 1999; Maehr, 1984; Wentzel, 1996.

Conclusion

It is often stated that bad teaching kills motivation and that good teaching brings out the best in students of all ages. If you want to encourage your students to become their own teachers and develop independent learning skills, you need to know about the principles that guide motivated learning. The eight principles that are addressed in this booklet apply to children and adolescents from different countries and different cultures. I described the principles in such a way that you gain insight into the reasons why students are or are not motivated to learn in the context of the classroom. However, you still need to adapt these principles to the local context of your classroom. I focused on two primary school students, Stefano and Sandra, and referred to their thinking and feeling in relation to the mathematics and language domains, yet the principles do not refer to particular curricula or specific age groups. Rather, they refer to generic aspects of motivated learning that cut across school subjects, grade levels and types of education. They focus on the students' beliefs, opinions and values and how these motivational beliefs affect learning. Knowledge of your students' motivational beliefs will help you to create learning environments that are well suited to their psychological needs. The capacity to listen to your students and observe their behaviour in the live classroom will help to inform you of what they find interesting, challenging, boring and threatening, and why they have this opinion. Willingness to negotiate with your students and grant them autonomy will convince them that you are truly interested in how and why they learn. A good way to start your observations is by selecting one or more students in your class who think, feel and behave somewhat like Stefano or Sandra. Observe these students in the next few weeks and discover how the eight motivational principles that are described in this booklet work in *your* classroom.

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The Influence of Task Based Learning on EFL Classrooms

Nazenin Ruso
Eastern Mediterranean University
Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

Bio Data:

Nazenin Ruso received her MA degree in ELT and is currently a doctoral student working on her PhD thesis. She has training and certificates in COTE (Cambridge Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English) and LCCI (London Chambers of Commercial Industrial Examinations). Her research interests are social skills, service learning, values development and task-based learning.

Abstract
Increasing learners' motivation and performance has always been the primary concern of language teachers. The present study adopts an Action Research approach. A new approach, TBL, is applied to a traditional classroom situation with the aim of finding solutions to certain problems such as poor learner motivation. 55 EFL students from two English classrooms and the researcher, a Turkish teacher, participated in the study. In this study, learners' opinions about TBL are investigated through different data collection methods: a questionnaire, diaries and semi-structured interviews. The findings of the study reveal that implementing a TBL approach in EFL classes creates variety for the students. Moreover it enhances their learning, since TBL tasks encourage student involvement and lead to significant improvements regarding their language performance. The research participants suggest that they do not like teacher-directed lessons where they cannot find enough opportunities to express themselves in the target language.

Keywords: TBL (Task Based Learning), EFL (English as a Foreign Language), Task, Action Research, Motivation.

Introduction

Willis (1996) suggests the use of tasks as the main focus in language classrooms, claiming that tasks create a supportive methodological framework. Often, when faced with various problems, language teachers are in search of finding something that could create a difference in their classroom. The problems are generally caused by students' lack of motivation to the lesson.

This study provides information about various techniques of TBL in relation to different tasks and focuses mainly on the advantages of using a TBL approach. The purpose of this study is two-fold: first to evaluate the effectiveness of the implementation of TBL within this given context and, second, to increase the teacher's professionalism for effective teaching and learning. Furthermore, the study increases the reflectivity of the researcher as it provides her a chance to evaluate her own professionalism.

The study considered the following research questions:

1. What is the influence of TBL on EFL students' classroom performance?
2. What are the students' opinions about classic classroom situations in which only a limited number of tasks are used?
3. To what extent are students able to recognize the change in their classrooms after TBL approach has been implemented?
4. What are the students' opinions about TBL?
5. To what extent are students satisfied with pre-task lessons (TBL not being implemented) and with task lessons (TBL being implemented)?
6. How far does the researcher carrying out action research in her own classroom as a reflective practitioner improve her teaching?

These research questions served as a guide in presenting the findings of the study.

Literature review

TBL has increasingly achieved popularity in recent years and has been recommended as a way forward in ELT. Various influential experts, Prabhu (1987), Nunan (1989), Willis (1996) and their definitions for tasks are presented in a chronological order as follows.

Prabhu stands as the first significant person in the development of TBL. His main contribution has been raising awareness of the ELT world to TBL. Prabhu (1987) defines a task as "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process" (p.24).

Besides Prabhu, Nunan (1989) uses the word 'task' instead of 'activity'. He defines a task as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is

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principally focused on meaning rather than form" (p.10). He suggests that in all definitions of tasks, one can see communicative language use where the learner focuses on meaning instead of linguistic structure.

Willis (1996) is another figure who contributes to the use of tasks in language classroom. According to Willis (1996) "tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome" (p.23). Furthermore, Willis presents a TBL approach where tasks are used as the main focus of the lesson within a supportive framework. She holds that "the aim of tasks is to create a real purpose for language use and to provide a natural context for language study" (p.1). The model suggested by Willis has been the main focus of this study (See Appendix I).

The TBL framework consists of three main phrases, provides 3 basic conditions for language learning. These are pre-task, task-cycle and language focus.

1. Pre-task: introduces the class to the topic and the task activating topic-related words and phrases.

2. Task Cycle: offers learners the chance to use whatever language they already know in order to carry out the task and then to improve their language under the teacher's guidance while planning their reports on the task. Task Cycle offers learners a holistic experience of language in use. There are three components of a task cycle:

a. *Task*: Learners use whatever language they can master, working simultaneously, in pairs or small groups to achieve goals of the task.

b. *Planning*: Comes after the task and before the report, forming the central part of the cycle. The teacher's role here is that of a language adviser. Learners plan their reports effectively and maximize their learning opportunities.

c. *Report*: is the natural condition of the task cycle. In this stage learners tell the class about their findings. So the report stage gives students a natural stimulus to upgrade and improve their language. It presents a very real linguistic challenge to communicate clearly and accurately in language appropriate to the circumstances.

3. Language Focus: allows a closer study of some of the specific features naturally occurring in the language used during the task cycle. Learners examine the language

forms in the text and look in detail at the use and the meaning of lexical items they have noticed (Willis, 1986, p.75). Language focus has two components:

a) Analysis: Analysis activities draw attention to the surface forms, realizing the meanings learners have already become familiar with during the task cycle and so help them to systematize their knowledge and broaden their understanding. Instead of the teacher presenting language to learners as new analysis activities, learners reflect on the language already experienced.

b) Practise: Practise activities are based on features of language that have already occurred in previous texts and transcripts or in features that have just been studied in analysis activities.

On looking back at these definitions, I can say that using tasks in teaching is a popular method and the implications of using these tasks in a classroom context is observable after conducting research. Many people have studied the implementation of TBL and tasks within their classrooms and have advised using tasks in language classrooms suggesting that the motivation of students' rises through assigned tasks. On looking at the positive results that the use of tasks may bring about in the EFL classroom, it can be said that using a variety of tasks in class gives positive results.

Methodology

Research Design

The research approach of this study is action research. Recently action research has gained popularity in ELT. Over time, traditional teacher education, which did not emphasize student-centered classrooms, started to lose its value and something was felt to be missing. This was because in the past, teacher education did not value learning through action and unfortunately education was carried out by researchers out of the class.

Gibbs (1995) notes that educational development is to do with the intention of improving the instructor's classroom practice. He also adds that carrying out an action research project contributes much to a lecturer's understanding of her students' and their achievement as a result of changing his/her conceptions of teaching and he states that this change is "a change essential for sustained pedagogical development" (p.18). Gibbs also (1995) notes that changes that come by action research have the capacity to be long lasting.

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This study consists in an action research project in which a new approach, in our case TBL, is applied to an existing classroom system aiming to improve certain classroom problems as a result of the new approach implemented. While carrying out this action research and to monitor the outcomes and evaluate them, diaries, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires were used. As is well-known, action research takes place when a single teacher, like me, works with her own class as she feels the need to improve her teaching/learning experiences (Cohen and Manion, 1980). Using diaries throughout the study also can also support action research. In his study, similar to my research, Carroll (1994) makes his learners write reflective journals to answer his research question "how could my course structure allow for student participation?" His basic interest was to identify the learners' reflections on the classroom happenings. By observing whether his students found particular classroom activities as useful, he would find the chance to follow his course practices according to the findings. This path is exactly the path I followed.

Context

This research was carried out at the Eastern Mediterranean University, where the medium of instruction is English and the students' first language is Turkish. The study was carried out in the service unit of the ELT Department, which offers English courses for all the departments in the university. This study was carried out in two ELT 101(English 1) classes. ELT 101 is the first English lesson offered for all first year students. The class follows an ELT 101 photocopy course booklet which contains articles from authentic texts and published materials.

Participants

The participants of this study are the teacher's students in her current ELT 101 groups. There are 54 students within two groups and students are from different countries such as Turkey, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, Jordan, Israel, Kuwait and Pakistan. The students' ages vary between 17 and 23.

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A Summary of Data Collection Procedure

Teacher Diaries (see appendix II)	November-January
Student Diaries (see appendix III)	December-January
Semi-Structured Interview (see appendix IV)	Last week of January
Pilot Testing	Second Week of January
Questionnaire (see appendix V)	Last week of January

Instrumentation

Diaries, interviews and questionnaires were used to generate data. Elliot (1991) refers to the diaries as a valuable research tool as they can include "observations, feelings, reactions, interpretations, reflections, hunches, explanations" of the students and the teachers, in other words as they include insights (McDonough, 1994).

The structured interview is a data collection instrument that is a technique very similar to questionnaire. Leedy (1997) states that "closely allied to the questionnaire is the structured interview" (p.199). Semi-structured interviews (as the ones used in this study) are more detailed than structured interviews as they involve inquiries in order to get further explanatory information concerning the questions.

Teachers use questionnaires to have reliable data so they can derive conclusions from such data. Munn and Drever (1990) think that when the participants respond to the same questions in the same way, the answers become more reliable. Nunan (1989) states that through using questionnaires, one can inquire into any aspect within teaching/learning process. Also teachers find the chance to learn about classroom practices they use in class by

analyzing these questionnaires.

The following is a list of the steps taken by the researchers to make the procedure more comprehensive in case any other researcher would like to follow similar research within his/her classroom.

Data Analysis

1. *Analysis of Teacher and Students' Diaries*

Data analysis started with the analysis of the diaries. This analysis, which was concerned with the diaries written by the teacher and the students, consisted of three steps. Letters A, B, C, D were given to identify the four sample students chosen by the researcher in order not to reveal their identities. In this type of study, students give too much of themselves and it could be humiliating if the researcher indicated the names of the participants.

The first step was to read the diaries and to identify the most common feedback provided made by the learners and the teachers. The analysis showed that diaries could be analyzed in two major classes. These were comments made on using a variety of tasks and on learning these tasks produced. The second step was to read all the diaries again and underline the parts reflecting the teacher's and students' statements about the variety of tasks and the learning resulted from these tasks. The third step was to analyze all the diaries according to comments made for each task in terms of variety and learning and to make generalizations.

2. *Analysis of Semi-structured Interview*

The second phase of the analysis was concerned with the semi-structured interview. The analysis consisted of three steps. The first step was to listen to the interview cassette and to write down the opinions stated for each question one by one whereas the second step was to read through all the statements and to classify the answers of each interviewee in terms of learning and variety. The third and final step was to make some generalizations after reading and focusing on all the answers given for each question.

3. *Analysis of Questionnaire*

The third phase of the analysis, involved the analysis of the questionnaire which consisted of three steps explained below in detail. The following values are given to each

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letter: 5-SA, 4-A, 3-U, 2-D, 1-SD from question 1-10 because the adjectives used in these questions were positive. However as the adjectives used in these questions 11-26 were negative, opposite values are given to these questions as follows: 1-SA, 2-A, 3-U, 4-D, 5-SD. The first treatment was to find the descriptive statistics of all questions in order to see the means calculated for each question that refer to a single task.

Secondly, the means of the first 10 questions referring to pre-task stage and the means of the rest of the 16 questions referring to task stage are found and compared in order to make generalizations about the findings between the two sets of questions, as pre-task and as task.

Thirdly, a t-test was run to see whether the difference between two sets of questions had statistical significance. The fourth and last step was to select the direct quotations common for each task and to draw interpretations from the data obtained for each task. Then generalizations were made for each task's comments both in terms of variety and learning.

Findings and Discussion

The extent to which TBL influenced students' classroom performance

The overall aim of the study was to find out the extent to which TBL is applicable to my classes. These research questions stated at the beginning of the paper served as a guide in presenting the findings of the study.

Diaries

The extent TBL influenced students' classroom performance

The research findings from the students' and the researcher's diaries revealed a great satisfaction with the tasks used. Students' reports for each task reveal that the tasks used in researcher's class created variety for students and were helpful in their learning.

In terms of Variety

As Willis (1996) suggests, students feel the need for various interaction patterns that focus on themselves rather than on the teacher. Furthermore, she claims that TBL is capable of fulfilling such needs. For almost every task, students had valuable comments

reflecting their satisfaction from the tasks used that day. Willis (1996) points out that, carefully chosen tasks make learners participate in complete interactions and this raises motivation.

Throughout the study, there were some tasks that were about guessing bold written vocabulary and drawing pictures while reading a story which I did not include in my lesson outline. These were also not included in the questionnaire. Students' diaries helped me to realize the value of the tasks used. The findings from diary studies show that presentation is a task type that is highly motivating for students. Although students commented on tasks in highly positive ways, it is impossible not to realize the importance students gave to presentations. Although there were presentations every lesson, students still wanted to reflect on each presentation in great length sometimes even omitting the other tasks used.

The findings emerging from the study of the diary studies show that the presentations given by the students turned out to be a task type that is highly motivating for students. Although students commented on tasks in highly positive ways, it is impossible not to realize the importance students gave to presentations. Although students gave presentations every lesson, students still wanted to reflect on each presentation in great length sometimes even omitting the other tasks used. In other words, the amount of students' talking time in class showed a great increase.

The findings of the students' diaries revealed that tasks encouraged students' performance. All the participants gave positive feedback on tasks used in class. Although students were not directed to focus on tasks in diaries, they only preferred to write about the tasks and their satisfaction for having active language lessons. As Lightbown and Spada (1993) mention, some learners feel the need to add physical action to their learning processes to experience the new knowledge in ways that involve them better.

In terms of Learning

While carrying out a task, students feel the need to concentrate on the topic and accordingly learn. For example, in order to draw a scene from a story, they read the paragraphs in detail. Or, in order to prepare exam questions for their friend, students feel the need to concentrate on every word to choose the most difficult one. As Willis (1996)

points out, "in order to complete the goals in all these tasks, students are reacting to the content and processing the text for meaning" (p.30).

The findings of the diary studies also indicate that tasks have been beneficial for vocabulary learning. Vocabulary learned while watching a film or while listening to a song becomes more effective and permanent.

Presentations especially contributed significantly to students' learning. During these presentations, they were not only improving their spoken English but their knowledge of social topics and relevant vocabulary as well. Students noted they were highly satisfied with this communication task. As has been argued by Lightbown and Spada (1993), communicative need is a factor that defines motivation in second language.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Students' opinions about ordinary classrooms in which only a limited number of tasks are used.

The data from semi-structured interviews revealed that students complained about language classrooms where only a limited number of tasks were used. They complained that the teacher was talking and they were only listening. As Willis (1996) holds, "in teacher-led classroom interaction is generally that of responding" (p.18). Students were only following the book and perceived nothing of interest in their classroom. Students could not find enough chances to experience the language. As Willis (1996) suggests, "most of the opportunities for language use are taken by the teacher" (p.18). Willis also argues that in teacher directed lessons students can not find the chance to experience the target language. Students complained that the number of exercises were not adequate for them to improve their English adding that they could not learn much from their teacher at the beginning.

Students also complained about their book which was a photocopied one. They mentioned that nothing was interesting in their book, the book was not important for them. The book was actually a very traditional one. For every chapter there was a passage and similar types of exercises. Also there were only a few illustrations in the book to discuss with students. As Cook (1996) states, the choice of teaching materials should match with students' motivation. In this class students were not satisfied with the

materials and accordingly it was difficult for them to follow the lesson and feel motivated.

Students realize the change in their classrooms after TBL was implemented

The findings indicate that all students realized a change within their classroom after TBL was implemented. The change was felt when the teacher started to use a variety of tasks like presentations and music. Furthermore, students realized the change through different tasks and positive classroom atmosphere.

Students' thoughts about TBL

Before TBL was implemented students had negative feelings about their classroom experiences such as complaining about being book-bound. After the implementation of TBL all students agreed that English lessons started to be enjoyable after the middle of the semester, after the number of tasks used in class increased and students found more chance to speak. Also majority of the students agreed that they benefited from the course after TBL was implemented.

Teacher's Diaries

Improving professional competence as a result of reflective practice

The analysis of my diaries revealed that after implementing a TBL approach to my class, my teaching is improved in four areas. The barrier between me and my students decreased. Secondly, the class became more learning centered, so the motivation of learners increased. Thirdly, I realized the importance of preparing daily lesson plans in teaching. Finally, as a result of reflection I found the chance to go over the mistakes I made while I was teaching so as not to repeat them.

Better Rapport

After implementing TBL the atmosphere of the classroom changed totally. I felt closer to the students and I also wanted to take part in some tasks as I found this more enjoyable. All students were in contact with me without any hesitation most probably due to my friendliness. Willis (1981) refers a good friendly interaction between a teacher and the

learners as rapport (p.188). She also states that when there is rapport, it becomes enjoyable for students and the teacher to study together.

Learning-centered Classroom

After implementing TBL, the way lessons continued completely changed. Students' participation in the lesson increased as a result of the increase in the number and variety of tasks used in class. In order to carry out the task, students were concentrating on the lesson. They did not find enough time to feel bored. As Willis (1996) puts, "tasks remove teacher domination" (p.18). As a teacher my role was nothing more than a guide whereas my students' roles were highly active. As Willis (1996) states, in TBL there are communication tasks which give learners chances to be involved in various mental processes and to express themselves.

Lesson Plan

As a teacher, my awareness increased for the necessity of preparing daily lesson outlines. After preparing daily lesson outlines, my self-confidence as a teacher increased. As everything I was going to cover was ready step by step in a detailed way, I had nothing to worry about. As Waters (1988) states, with the help of a uniform lesson plan, the learning process becomes both more shapely and easier.

Furthermore, as I spent sufficient time to prepare my lesson plan in a detailed way, I could think of enjoyable pre-task sessions for my students. With the help of these pre-task stages, I had enjoyable starts to every topic.

Reflection

In the light of findings obtained through the researcher's diaries, it can be said that reflective journals make a great contribution to a teacher's learning. While reading diaries, teachers think critically on their previous experiences and find the chance to evaluate their behavior. While going over my diaries in which I recorded my daily impressions of the course, I had the chance to identify what I found ineffective so as not to repeat them, and think of better alternative ways. As Wallace (1991) suggests, in order to find professional solutions to problems, teachers recall the relevant knowledge or

experience and thus find the chance to evaluate the problem. At the same time, I had the chance to identify the things I found helpful and to repeat them in my other classes.

Questionnaire

The extent to which students are satisfied in pre-task lessons and in task lessons

The findings from the questionnaire clearly revealed that students were not satisfied with the pre-task stage, at the beginning of the semester when there was not a variety of tasks. However, the findings belonging to the task lessons, the TBL period, show that students were doubly satisfied with their lessons after the middle of the semester.

From the questionnaire findings, the three type of tasks which were most liked by the students were:

1. Watching a film and writing about it.
2. Finding the most guilty character after reading a passage.
3. Completing a cloze test while listening to a song.

The findings of the pre-task stage show that although students were not really satisfied with the tasks used in this period, there were especially two tasks highly disliked by students. The means of only these two tasks were under 2. These tasks were:

1. Working alone while doing exercises of the book.
2. Following the pages in the book and doing their exercises in order.

Conclusions

The present study examined the influence of TBL approach on students' classroom performance and motivation in EFL classrooms. Although the main focus was of this work on students' performance and motivation, the study also investigated how implementing a TBL approach influenced the researcher's professional development. The analysis of data collected by different data collection methods revealed that both students and the classroom teacher were highly satisfied with TBL approach mainly in terms of adding variety to the classroom activities and increasing learning in class.

The findings of the students' and researcher's diaries revealed that TBL was helpful in students' motivation and learning. It encouraged students' practice opportunities of the

target language receptivity in the lessons as a result of presenting various tasks. In the light of students' reflections for the tasks used during the study, which were very positive, it can be concluded that students were receptive to the idea of TBL while learning English as a second language.

The findings of the semi-structured interviews revealed that students do not like their teachers talking too much. We can therefore conclude that, TTT (teacher talking time) de-motivates learners. Students do not like being passive in class. Students stated that their teacher did not create sufficient language practice opportunities for them. In short, students do not like teacher-centered classrooms and they do not like teacher domination. When the teacher changed her style of teaching, the students felt a change in their classroom. Although the students were not familiar with the concept of TBL which defined this change, they stated that their teacher presented them various tasks that create opportunities for practice.

The students' thoughts about TBL were quiet positive. They indicated that more emphasis was shown on interaction in class. This interaction was encouraged not individually but within group work as well. The students stated that their teacher presented various tasks in class and they made use of practice opportunities. They also indicated that an enjoyable classroom atmosphere developed as a result of the tasks and the nature of this enjoyable classroom learning situation affected their learning.

Students are not happy with lessons without tasks as they are not provided with a genuine and enjoyable challenge. Although the students like task-based lessons, the variety and the kinds of tasks are also important. Even if a teacher gives tasks to her students, if the tasks are almost the same and if they are uninteresting and not creative, such as answering reference questions or finding the main ideas of paragraphs individually all the time, the students do not feel satisfied.

As a teacher, I found writing diaries to record daily lessons improved my competence as a teacher by making me reflect on my classroom practice. Managing a classroom becomes easier and enjoyable. After reflecting on diaries, the teacher felt the need to change her attitudes to remove the barrier between she and her students, she changed her role to a more passive one, and as a teacher she came to understand the necessity and usefulness of preparing lesson outlines and reflection.

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Carrying out an action research project provides valuable benefit for the teacher. Identifying a classroom problem, acting on it and finding a solution makes the researcher feel relaxed and confident. In a way, the researcher renews herself due to the action she has implemented. So, action research is suggested here as a way forward in ELT. Davies (1993) talks about the importance of implementing an action and observing what follows suggesting that the only way to encourage more independent learning in the classroom was to let go of the reins.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings and conclusions of this study have certain implications for language teachers; these may not only contribute to the improvement of students' classroom performance and motivation but to the teacher's professionalism as well. The following recommendations are made: teachers should be careful while selecting materials for a course. The wrong materials, using a photocopied book, can have a negative influence on students' academic performance and motivation. When the content in a course book is presented in a boring way, it becomes very difficult to stimulate the interest of learners. Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggest that "even if everything else seems favorable, learners can 'switch off' because they do not like the way content of their course is presented in the teaching materials" (p.162). In case of having such an interesting book, the teacher should provide learners with interesting photocopies from outside, providing extra curricular activities. It works well since it raises the motivation of students.

All language teachers are invited to become familiar with TBL which is a very popular and adaptable framework in language teaching. Students in this study were quite receptive to TBL framework. When adopting this framework, language teachers should provide their students with a variety of enjoyable tasks. Carrying out a variety of tasks influences students' progress and attitudes towards the lesson. A willingness to learn is observed whenever students are given tasks that involve them completely. Rather than being passive listeners, learners prefer to be active receivers. Therefore, serious consideration should be given to TBL and language teachers should provide their students with opportunities to make progressive use of content learnt through a variety of tasks.

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Giving presentations is a task particularly liked by students. Speaking and interaction are very important for students. So, teachers should not ignore the communicative needs of their students' which are a highly important aspect of motivation. As McNamara (1995) states, the really important part of motivation lies in the act of communication itself (cited in Ellis, 1985). Teachers are recommended to increase the amount of students' talk as much as they can and presentation is an ideal task for this. It not only improves the students' spoken skills but their social knowledge of the world as well.

Furthermore, language teachers are recommended to provide an enjoyable learning environment for their students. Classroom atmosphere is very important for learning. When the students find the atmosphere enjoyable, they make use of learning opportunities more.

Finally, teachers are invited to spend more time in reflection. This allows them to think critically on their classroom behavior. In this way, they can identify and work on their weaknesses in class as well as building on their strengths. As Wallace (1991) states "teachers should be encouraged to become reflective practitioners by reflecting on their professional experiences" (p.26). Furthermore, Wallace (1991) states that there is not a best method that is always valid. Teachers should always be trained to renew themselves.

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Appendix I

Examples of Task Based Lesson Outlines

Outline 1

Text: "Why do we like Music?" (from ELT 101 Booklet)

Pre-task

1. Introduce the class the topic "Why do we like Music" by asking them why they like music.

2. In order to talk about the universality of music, play an Arabic song and let Turkish

students try to guess the theme. Then play a Turkish song and let Arabic students try the theme.

3. To introduce the class task activating topic related words and phrases, play an English song.

4. While listening the song, introduce them music vocabulary they would read in the text such as octave and scale giving examples from the song.

Task-cycle

A. Task

1. Let students read the text in pairs to compare their experiences of main idea. Ask them to write what they found in common for each paragraph of the text.

B. Planning

1. Ask each group to have a spokesperson and to get prepared for a short presentation.

C. Report

1. Ask the spokesmen to give feedback on the content of main idea of each paragraph.

Language focus

A. Analysis

1. Ask students to do inference questions and true/false questions to systematize students` knowledge of the text and to broaden their understanding.

B. Practise

1. While listening an English song, ask students to complete the cloze test of the song.

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An Example from the Researcher's Diary

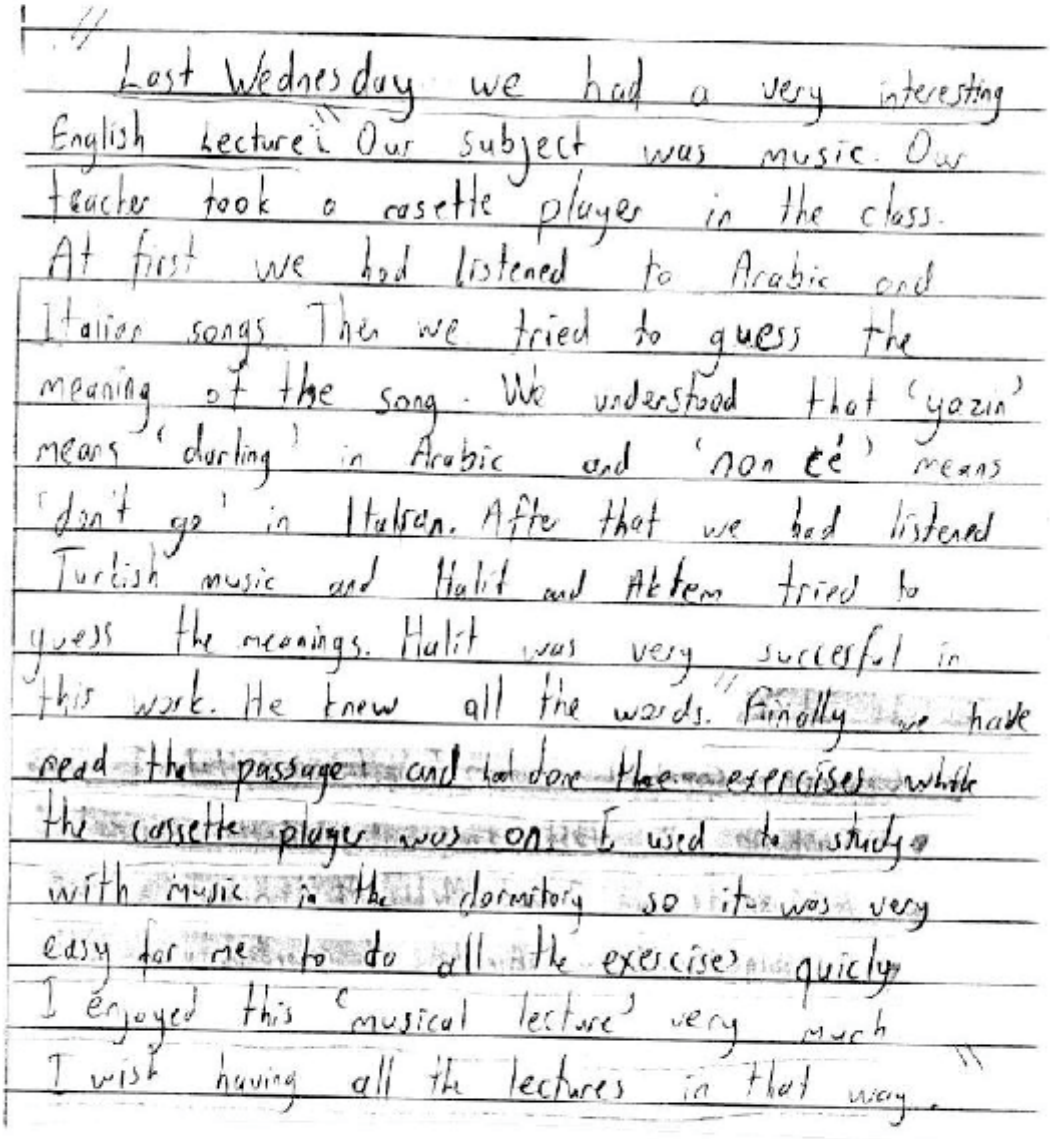
Appendix II

In the first period, I wanted to make a revision on paragraph writing as I would give them a writing quiz in the second period . I asked them whether they want to study a new passage or whether they wanted to make a revision and they all prefered to make a revision on writing. Okey then, I said I want everybody to think for an interesting topic and I will ask all of you. I started to ask them individually and stopped when I came to the tenth student. I did not ask the topic of others and I felt that the others and I felt that the others were disappointed. I said enough and stopped. Then I said them to choose one of the topics from the board but they could not decide as everybody wanted their own topics hurried in order not to miss the break.

In the second period, I wrote three topics on the board and I said " considering the characteristics we discussed about a paragraph, write one pragraph choosing only one of the topics". Then I said " do not ask me any vocabulary, this is not an exercise but a quiz". They finished the quiz and left. But some left after 20 minutes some stayed for 40 minutes as I said "do not worry about the time". I think I would better limit them with 25 or 30 minutes as they have to learn how to time themselves in the actual exam.

Appendix III

An example from the students' diaries



Last Wednesday we had a very interesting English Lecture. Our subject was music. Our teacher took a casette player in the class. At first we had listened to Arabic and Italian songs. Then we tried to guess the meaning of the song. We understood that 'yazin' means 'darling' in Arabic and 'non è' means 'don't go' in Italian. After that we had listened Turkish music and Halit and Aktem tried to guess the meanings. Halit was very succesful in this work. He knew all the words. Finally we have read the passage and had done the exercises while the cassette player was on. I used to study with music in the dormitory so it was very easy for me to do all the exercises quicly. I enjoyed this 'musical lecture' very much. I wish having all the lectures in that way.

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Semi-structured Interview

1. What was your ELT 101 course like at the beginning of the semester?

2. What do you think about the number of tasks and the type of tasks your teacher was using?

3. What is the extent to which these tasks helped you to achieve your success within the course? (How much did you learn from your teacher?)

4. Do you think there was a problem with the course in the beginning?

1. Have you realized any change in your ELT 101 course?

2. When did you realize such a change?

3. How did you realize this change?

1. What can you say about the difference in your teacher's method in the beginning and at the end of the semester?

2. Did you enjoy English lessons in the beginning of the semester more, or English lessons after the middle of the semester?

3. Do you think you benefited from your teacher more in the beginning of the semester, or after the middle of the semester?

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Appendix V

Student Questionnaire

TASKS WHICH WERE USED AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SEMESTER

SA- strongly agree
A= agree
U= undecided
D= disagree
SD- strongly disagree

1.Free writing, without any given topic, was difficult.	SA	A	U	D	SD
2.Reading pages of information about references and essay writing was boring.	SA	A	U	D	SD
3.Doing reference exercises of the book, in lists, was dull.	SA	A	U	D	SD
4.Listening to the teacher most of the time was boring.	SA	A	U	D	SD
5.Working alone while doing the exercises of the book, was boring.	SA	A	U	D	SD
6.Following the passages in the book and doing their exercises in order, was uninteresting.	SA	A	U	D	SD
7.Reading passages which are in the right paragraph order{introduction, development, conclusion} was boring.	SA	A	U	D	SD
8.Reading passages with the titles was boring.	SA	A	U	D	SD
9.Teachers' asking questions all the time, was monotonous.	SA	A	U	D	SD
10.Finding the main idea of paragraphs all the time, was boring.	SA	A	U	D	SD

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TASKS WHICH WERE USED AFTER THE MIDDLE OF THE SEMESTER

1.Watching a film and writing about it was interesting.	SA	A	U	D	SD
2.While watching a film, guessing vocabulary from the context was enjoyable.	SA	A	U	D	SD
3.Working in groups, in general, was fun.	SA	A	U	D	SD
4.Guessing the main themes of songs was interesting.	SA	A	U	D	SD
5.Finding the main idea of an incomplete passage (half of it was erased) was fun.	SA	A	U	D	SD
6.Putting the mixed paragraphs of a passage in order was interesting.	SA	A	U	D	SD
7.Imagining ourselves as examiners and preparing questions for our class mates on reference words, was fun.	SA	A	U	D	SD
8.Asking and getting answers on reference questions from our friends was interesting.	SA	A	U	D	SD
9.The presentations provided us the opportunity of speaking in front of a group.	SA	A	U	D	SD
10.Matching the titles with paragraphs was enjoyable.	SA	A	U	D	SD
11.Filling a table for references was interesting.	SA	A	U	D	SD
12.Completing a cloze test while listening to a song, was fun.	SA	A	U	D	SD
13.Listening to the music while doing the exercises from the book was enjoyable.	SA	A	U	D	SD
14.Having a debate after reading an essay, was interesting.	SA	A	U	D	SD
15.Finding the most guilty character after reading a passage, was fun.	SA	A	U	D	SD
16.Matching paragraphs with pictures was interesting.	SA	A	U	D	SD

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TASK-BASED LEARNING

Jane Willis shows how the study of grammar and lexis is integral to a task-based learning approach.

There is a tendency to associate communication tasks and task-based learning (TBL) with an increase in fluency activities and a reduction in the concern for accuracy. Indeed, I have heard some teachers admit to feeling guilty about teaching grammar. This need not, and research shows that it should not, be the case.

A focus on both accuracy and fluency can be naturally incorporated if tasks are used systematically as the central part of a larger framework. Grammar and language study arise out of the task and accompanying materials where the emphasis is on their meaning and actual use. Specific features of language form are highlighted after the learners have experienced language in use within a holistic context during the task cycle.

What is a task?
My definition of 'task' (which is more specific than that used by Andrew Littlejohn in ELP Issue One) is:

... a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome. In other words, learners use whatever target language resources they have in order to solve a problem, make a list, do a puzzle, play a game, or share and compare experiences.

In this sense, the following is a language practice activity, not a task, because the focus is on form, not outcome: *Use the question form 'Did you ever ...' to ask your partner about their childhood.*

Tasks vary in length. A beginners' task might only take a minute or so: *Ask three people in your class for their phone numbers and write them down.* More creative tasks, such as anecdotetelling may take around ten minutes. Some, such as this reading task, may take longer: *Compare the summary of the text with the original and spot the two mistakes.*

Task design
As a basic principle, it is impossible to design communication tasks with the express intention of eliciting specific language forms. (If learners are free to express their own meanings in response to the task, how do we know what they will want to mean?) It is, however, realistic to start from topics and texts, design appropriate tasks, and then exploit the language that occurs naturally in the task interaction and/or the text. So, choose your topic (eg cats or families, or funny things small children do) and then try this model for designing some tasks. (There are many different types of tasks, but for designing your own, I have found this classification with six basic task types to be the most generative.)

Tasks of different kinds can be designed for any topic or suitable text. To increase relevant exposure to spoken English, fluent speakers can be recorded doing the tasks and/or reporting how they did them, thus providing spontaneous language data for subsequent language study. This also provides a sample interaction for learners to experience. Having done their own task first, they will understand what meanings are likely to be expressed in the task recording, so as they listen, they can look out for the forms that act as a vehicle for those meanings. The transcription then provides data for a subsequent focus on grammar and lexical phrases.

Tasks can be done singly, or in a series on the same topic, with one task arising out of another. Let's look at a concrete example at beginner level.
Topic International words

Listing How many words of English can you think of that are known internationally?

Teacher gives some examples: *football, goal, taxi, hamburger*. Students continue in pairs. Time limit, one minute, after which pairs read out their words which are then written on the board (five to ten minutes). Ask which pair found the most words.

Classifying How can you classify these words? (Sports or food, etc.) In pairs, think of other categories, put the words into your categories and add more words if you can.

Comparing Compare your categories and lists with another pair. What extra words do you/they have?

Sharing personal opinions Which food, sports, etc. does your partner like and not like? Find three things you have in common.

After each of the first three tasks, there could be a lot of interaction between teacher and students. As the learners offer words to fit the categories, you might say: *Tennis. Who said tennis? You? So do you play tennis? No? And you? Do you play? Or do you watch tennis on TV? I like watching tennis on TV. Wimbledon, especially . . .*

Why TBL?

TBL recognises the fact that language learners are first and foremost grappling with a new system of meaning. They will only learn new words, phrases and patterns if these fit the stage of development they are at in their own system, ie if they understand the meaning. Meaning and use must come first. It's no good spending a lot of time teaching decontextualised word forms or patterns that cannot be accommodated by the learner. For example, we all know that learners can express questions quite understandably without using standard question forms, even though these forms have been 'taught'. As they gain more experience of the new language in use, they slowly begin to use other forms. We have all had the experience of presenting and practising a particular language pattern, with learners getting it right during the form-focused practice stage, but then, at the meaning-focused free production stage, they do not use the 'new' item at all. Language learning is a gradual organic process rather than a piece by piece additive process. As Nunan puts it, it is far more like helping a garden to grow, than building a wall one brick at a time.

The TBL framework was designed to help create optimum conditions for natural language learning. The three essential **conditions for learning** are:

- **exposure** to the target language in use, both spontaneous and planned language, in spoken and written form.
- **opportunities to use** the target language for expressing meaning – both in private and in public situations, in pair and small group interactions, monologue and writing.
- **motivation** to engage with and try to understand the **exposure**, and to **use** what they know to communicate what they mean. A further desirable condition is:
- **focus on language form** to prevent fossilisation and help learners improve upon what they can do already.

It is useful to examine the approach your learners are currently used to, to see which of these conditions are fulfilled and which are lacking. If they find it difficult to talk, for example, they may not have had sufficient exposure to spontaneous spoken English or have lacked opportunities to use it. Maybe they have had too much focus on form which has affected their confidence.

A TBL framework

A TBL framework is shown in the box. The following notes give additional information about the role of teacher and learners, with examples. Your own task as you read, is to decide:

1 Which of the four 'conditions for learning' mentioned earlier are met during each phase?
2 At which phase/s might learners most benefit from correction of form? During which phase/s might you decide generally not to correct? Why?

Pre-task: Introduction to the topic and task instructions
This gives exposure to teacher talk, but brainstorming useful topic words and phrases is a good way of involving students in this phase.

Task Cycle
Learners use language in varying circumstances and are exposed to others using it.

The Task Phase gives opportunities for interactive spontaneous use of language in the privacy of their pairs where mistakes don't matter.

The Report Phase encourages a combination of accuracy and fluency (learners don't want to make mistakes in front of the class). The Planning Phase is the time for teacher input and advice. Learners plan what to say at the report stage, to correct mistakes, to strive to use 'better' language and to focus on form.

The optional listening phase allows students to hear how fluent speakers did the same task.

Language Focus:
Analysis and practice
Learners get repeated exposure to the language from the task cycle and have a chance to focus on form and ask questions about language features. Examples include consciousness raising activities such as identifying, classifying, and focusing on specific language features (eg verbs ending in *-ing*). These help learners systematise what they already know while noticing new things about language and the way it is used. Practice activities may help them remember new phrases and patterns from texts or transcripts of task recordings.

A TBL example
The following is an example of the TBL framework in use. This is a text-based, problem-solving task, which gives rise to two task cycles. It is given here primarily as an example of how a TBL approach works in practice and how and when to incorporate language input, correction, etc.

The Peanut Butter Story
My three-year-old brother, who had been playing outside all morning, came into the kitchen, begging for a snack. I gave him a slice of bread and peanut butter. Holding the bread carefully in both hands, he started to leave, but when he reached the closed kitchen door a puzzled expression came over his face. He was too small to open the door without using both hands to turn the door knob.

After a moment's consideration, he found a solution. He plastered the sticky side of his bread to the wall, used both hands to turn the knob, peeled his bread off the wall and went out happily to play.
Taken from *The Collins Cobuild English Course, Level 3* Willis, J and Willis, D 1989)

Pre-task As an introduction, brainstorm the topic of peanut butter
What do you/we know about peanut butter? (I hate it. Who likes it? How is it made? What's it like? It's sticky. In America they eat it on bread with jam or jelly.)

Set the task. *This is a problem-solving task with a difference. I'm going to give you the solution. You have to talk with your partner and try to guess what the problem was. You have two minutes to think of two different problems. Here is a drawing of a slice of bread and peanut butter. But it's not on a plate, it is stuck on a wall beside a back door.* (Talk as you draw.) *This was the solution to someone's problem. What was the problem? How and why did the slice of bread and peanut butter end up on the wall?*

Task One
Students work in pairs to generate ideas. (You might like to think about it too!) Encourage all attempts at expressing ideas. Resist the temptation to correct – your aim here is to boost their confidence. Suggest they think of two alternative possibilities for problems. Encourage pairs to think of two (or more) possibilities. Stop them once everyone has got at least one idea and some pairs have got two or more.

Planning One Decide whether pairs will report in written or spoken form. Tell students they will be choosing their best idea to tell the whole class. It must be in their best English because everyone will read/hear it. Allot the role of writer or spokesperson for each pair. Students plan what to write or say, checking their grammar, spelling or pronunciation. Have dictionaries ready for use. This phase will take longer than the task phase.

Report One Ask each pair to report their idea, either by speaking in turn, or by putting up their writing on the wall. Other pairs make a list of the ideas. Chair the report session, commenting positively on the ideas offered (not, at this point, on the language used). Then ask them to decide in pairs which ideas to nominate for silliest/funniest/most probable, and take a vote.

Follow-up to Report One Either read them the original story, or make copies and let them read it silently. Then discuss whose story was the most similar and whether you prefer this version or the ones the class invented.

Task Two
To promote more language use and deeper processing of the text, ask students in pairs to retell or rewrite the original story from memory as if it had happened to them.

If necessary, write the story structure on the board:

Situation: *Playing in the garden, got hungry, went into the kitchen ...*

Problem:
Solution:
Ending: *... went out, happily ...*

Planning and Report Two After some planning time, learners take turns to read out a part of their version of the story. Others comment and suggest improvements before moving on to the next bit of the story.

Follow-up to Report Two Learners read the story again to see which pair remembered best, or to compare the class version with the original.

Language Focus Let students read through the original story a couple of times. Ask them to look for the words and phrases that signal the problem (*but ..., too small to ...*), the solution (an easy one!) and the ending (*happily*, as in *they all lived happily ever after*).

There are bound to be some words students still don't know. Encourage them to guess meaning from the context and/or the grammatical form (eg *begging for* is the same pattern as *asking for*). Don't waste time discussing unusual words like *plastered*; a quick demonstration will do.

Continue with some (not all) of the following activities which are grouped under ***three starting points***. Learners generally gain from working in pairs and having a language notebook at hand to write down useful phrases and patterns.

Meanings

• Read aloud five whole phrases referring to **food**, *eg Holding the bread carefully in both hands.*

• Find two **time** phrases. What other time phrases can you make with the same patterns? *eg all day, all night, after a moment's hesitation/thought/ reflection.*

• Find four phrases denoting *going to/ from* a place. Which verb takes no preposition?

Word or part of word

• Find and read out four complete phrases in the first paragraph with a verb ending in *-ing*. Notice the position of each *-ing* word. Which two begin a phrase? What about the last one? (This should give insights into the narrative style of short stories.)

• *Who had been playing outside all morning.* Why has the writer chosen *had been playing* (the Past Perfect Continuous tense) rather than *was playing* (Past Continuous)?

• Verb + *-ing* is commonly used following a preposition, *eg without thinking, after realising, before eating, on leaving.* Make up three more phrases like this that could fit into the story. eg *After playing outside all morning …*

• Here are five examples from the story with the word *to*. Think of what *to* means in each case. Which one is very different from the others?

started to leave
too small to open the door
plastered his bread to the wall
used both hands to turn the knob
went out happily to play

• Use the pattern *too small to …* and tell your partner two things that were true for you when you were young, eg *When we lived in London, I was too young to go to discos.*

Useful phrases to build on

My three-year-old brother
Write three or four similar 'age' phrases describing people you know.

Kitchen door, door knob
These noun + noun phrases are very common in English and German. Are they common in your language? Try translating some of the examples below into your language. Then, with your partner, make a sentence in English that explains each one in full. (It often helps if you begin with the final noun.)

ice cube (An ice cube is a cube made of ice that you put in cold drinks.)
ice tray
ice cream van
front door key
English language school student outing

Start a collection of noun + noun phrases in your language notebook. Newspapers are full of them.

Dictionary work

• *a puzzled expression came over his face* Like many English words, *expression* has three fairly distinct common meanings. Look these up in a good dictionary. In what senses can it be made plural? Copy down two or three phrases you like.

• The phrasal verb *come over* has several different uses: the one used in the text is the most common. Guess the meaning of *come over* in these sentences and then check the meanings in a dictionary.

I came over all queer

I met him on the boat coming over
The meaning doesn't come over very well.

This set of sample activities shows how rich even a short text can be in its potential to contextualise grammar. The activities not only shed light on the language in this text, but help learners to move outside the text and reflect on their own language experience, as they find and generate their own examples. Similar activities can be based on the transcription of a spoken interaction.

Exposure and use
TBL rests on the premise that learners learn though direct experience of language in use (exposure) and through using language for themselves (use). In TBL, learners start with the task, using what they can of the target language and recalling what they know from previous lessons to achieve the task outcome. Then they improve their language during the planning and reporting phases and build on and extend it during the language focus component.

As teachers, rather than spending time presenting and practising one structure or pattern (the equivalent of perfecting the laying of one brick), which some students may not be developmentally ready for, we are helping learners to notice a whole array of language features in the hopes they will recognise them when they see or hear them in future exposures. In this way, we help them gain insights gradually rather than having the unrealistic aim of expecting them to learn structures all at once. We are not giving learners bricks to build a wall – we are sowing seeds, watering them, and waiting for the next shower to help them grow.

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Jane Willis teaches at Aston University, UK, on their new modular Masters in TESOL/ TESP. Her books include *Teaching English Through English* (Longman), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching* (with Dave Willis, Heinemann), and *A Framework for Task-based Learning* (Longman).

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The *Whats, Whys, Hows* and *Whos* of Content-Based Instruction in Second/Foreign Language Education

MARÍA DUEÑAS*
University of Murcia

ABSTRACT

As an instructional practice in second and foreign language education, content-based instruction is not a fully revolutionary paradigm, but a spin-off approach which derives from the evolution of Communicative Language Teaching. Sharing with CLT the same fundamental principles, CBI bases its idiosyncrasy on promoting the use of subject matter for second/foreign language teaching purposes. This article aims at exploring the nature and scope of the content-based methodological framework —the whats—, the theoretical foundations that support it —the whys—, and the different prototype models for application in compliance with parameters such as institutional requirements, educational level, and the particular nature and object of instruction —the hows. Additionally, it will also undertake a review of a copious number of references selected from the existing literature, mostly contributed by researchers and experienced practitioners in the field —the whos.

KEYWORDS: language education, language teaching methodology, communicative language teaching, content-based instruction, content and language integrated learning.

1. INTRODUCTION

The language pedagogy arena can by no means be conceived nowadays without "the very robust contribution of communicative methodology to the language teaching community" (Pica, 2000: 4). Although some other alternative approaches have emerged in recent years —such as the lexical approach (Lewis, 1993) and the context approach (Bax, 2003)—, it is commonly agreed

* *Address for correspondence*: Departamento de Filología Inglesa, Facultad de Letras, Campus de La Merced, 30007 Murcia, Spain. Tel. 968-363010. E-mail: maduvi@um.es

that the fundamentals of communicative language teaching (hereafter CTL) have remained healthily operational for the past three decades. In line with this, Richards (2002: 5) states that CLT "has survived into the new millennium. Because it refers to a diverse set of rather general and uncontroversial principles, Communicative Language Teaching can be interpreted in many different ways and used to support a wide variety of classroom procedures".

According to communicative principles, attaining communicative competence that would allow learners to operate effectively in the new language was set as the main goal of instruction. At the same time, using the language to communicate was seen as the best way to learn it. Under this canon, meaningful communication became both the target to reach and the medium to do so: CLT therefore came to refer to both aims and processes in language teaching and learning. In highly broad terms, the major purpose of the communicative proposal has been "the elaboration and implementation of programs and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learners' participation in communicative events" (Savignon, 2002: 10). This means that there has never existed any single 'set in stone' communicative method, any standardized system with a fixed arrangement of techniques and procedures, or —to use Brown's playful terminology —, any "prepacked elixir" (Brown, 2002: 11) that would naively guarantee immediate success in language education.

The present-day applicability of CLT is perceived with a two-fold projection. On the one hand, the basic CLT framework —with the natural adaptation to contemporary trends— still shapes curricular planning, syllabus design, methodological guidelines and material writing. On the other hand, as Rodgers points out,

> Communicative Language Teaching has spawned a number of off-shoots that share the same basic set of principles, but which spell out philosophical details or envision instructional practices in somewhat diverse ways. These CLT spin-off approaches include The Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Teaching.
>
> *Rodgers (2001: 2)*

Among this array of communicative-based methodological options currently at our disposal, Content-Based Teaching or Content-Based Instruction (hereafter CBI), as it is more commonly known — is one of the options whose "popularity and wider applicability have increased dramatically since the early 1990s" (Stoller, 2002: 107). The next sections of this article will attempt to explore the conceptual descriptions of this paradigm (the *whats*), the theoretical underpinnings that support it (the whys), the different operative models available (the hows), and the multiplicity of scopes, issues and areas reported by an extensive number of authors as in the existing literature (the whos).

II. THE WHATS: DESCRIPTION AND BACKGROUND

Content-based approaches suggest that optimal conditions for learning a second/foreign language occur when both the target language and some meaningful content are integrated in the classroom, the language therefore being both an immediate object of study in itself, and a medium for learning a particular subject matter. In content-based language teaching, therefore, teachers use content topics rather than grammar rules, vocabulary spheres, operative functions or contextual situations as the framework for instruction. Many different yet compatible

definitions have been provided. According to Brinton *et al.*, CBI is "(. . .) the integration of particular content with language teaching aims (. . .) the concurrent teaching of subject matter and second language skills" (Brinton *et al.* 1989: 2). Leaver and Stryker (1989: 270) define CBI as an instructional approach in which "language proficiency is achieved by shifting the focus of the course from the learning of language ***per se*** to the learning of subject matter". Short (1993: 629), for her part, states that "In content-based instruction, language teachers use content topics, rather than grammar rules or vocabulary lists, as the scaffolding for instruction".

Like the principles of CLT from which it derives, CBI cannot be conceptualized as a fixed, immovable method; quite contrarily, it is commonly perceived as a flexible operational framework for language instruction, with a heterogeneity of prototype models and application options available for different contexts and pedagogical needs. Authors such as Stryker and Leaver (1997: 3) view the paradigm within an ample perspective and claim that CBI "is a truly and holistic approach to foreign language education . . . (which) can be at once a philosophical orientation, a methodological system, a syllabus design for a single course, or a framework for an entire program of instruction". In a previous work, these authors agree that CBI proposals are bound to meet four basic characteristics: (1) ***subject matter core*** —the fundamental organization of the curriculum should be derived from the subject matter, rather than from forms, functions or situations; (2) ***use of authentic texts***—the core materials (texts, video tapes, audio recordings, visual aids, etc.) should be selected primarily (though not exclusively) from those produced for native speakers of the language; (3) ***learning of new information*** —students should use the second/foreign language to learn new information and to evaluate that information, based on knowledge of their own culture (C1) and their own emerging cultural literacy in the second culture (C2), and (4) ***appropriate to the specific needs of students*** —the topics, content, materials, and learning activities should correspond to the cognitive and affective needs of the students and should be appropriate to the proficiency level of the class— (Leaver & Stryker, 1989: 271).

As for the question of what qualifies as ***content*** in CBI, it is very common for it to be some kind of subject matter related to the students' own academic curriculum in primary, secondary or tertiary education. The second or foreign language can be consequently used as the medium of instruction for literature, history, mathematics, science, social studies, or any other academic subject at any educational context or level. Nevertheless, this is not the only option available for, as some authors suggest, the content ". . . needs not be academic; it can include any topic, theme, or non-language issue of interest or importance to the learners" (Genesee, 1994: 3). In fact, any content material that is cognitively engaging and demanding for the learners, as well as appropriate to their linguistic level, can be used for instructional purposes. On the occasions when it does not convey any discipline-specific content, one common option for content selection is to choose materials which can provide background knowledge on cultural or socio-cultural issues. This version, which has been termed as Content-Enriched Instruction (Ballman, 1997), has also been proposed as a potential alternative to overcome the sometimes neglected treatment of meaningful socio-cultural or real-world information offered by some language textbooks (Dueñas, 2002a, b). Thematic spheres such as intercultural relations, immigration, multiculturalism or other global issues can easily accommodate the necessary input so as to provide students with the opportunity of learning about the world realities while advancing their language proficiency. In this way, as Stoller (2002: 107) points out, "Through content-based instruction, learners develop language skills while becoming more knowledgeable citizens of the world".

In broad terms, integrating language and content is not a new phenomenon in the general field of education, although it is a relatively contemporary trend in the particular area of second/foreign language teaching. The practice of combining language and content for both purposeful linguistic and subject-matter learning originated in Canada around 1965 within the first programs in language immersion education developed to provide the country's English-speaking young population with opportunities to learn French —Canada's other official language. However, as a specific approach to second and foreign language teaching, CBI "is a relative newcomer to the field" (Brinton & Master, 1997: v). It first appeared on the general language teaching scene in the mid to late 1980s, and it has gained increasing popularity throughout the 1990s and the initial years of the new millennium, expanding in many different areas for a variety of educational projects, and being widely used in many Canadian and US institutions. In Europe, where the approach is commonly known as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), the methodology has been described by the European Commission as "an excellent way of making progress in a foreign language" (http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/language/home.html). This institution has contributed to developing the network *Euroclic* (www.euroclic.net), a "forum for practitioners, projects and proposals in the area of language and content integrated learning.

III. THE WHYS: THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

As one of the CLT spin-off approaches, CBI integrates the fundamental rationales and components of the methodological paradigm from which it derives. Additionally, a number of theoretical underpinnings for content-based teaching and learning are associated with a variety of sources which provide further empirical support to this pedagogy. According to Grabe and Stoller, "the research which supports CBI spans the range from studies in second language acquisition, to controlled training studies, to various strands of research in educational and cognitive psychology" (Grabe & Stoller, 1997: 5). Thus, the research reported to offer a theoretical backup of CBI is not always strictly limited to the scope of language teaching and learning, as some of the arguments exposed are typically used to inform learning theories and instructional practices more generally. However, these arguments are directly transferable to language teaching and learning at almost any level and, particularly, in academically-oriented settings. Furthermore, the evidence of some successful program outcomes can also provide irrefutable evidence of the benefits of CBI.

Regarding second language acquisition research, some authors (among others Krashen, 1984; Savignon, 1983; Snow, 1993; Wesche, 1993) have suggested that

> (...) a second language is most successfully acquired when the conditions mirror those present in first language acquisition, that is, when the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than on form; when the language input is at or just above the competence of the student, and when there is sufficient opportunity for students to engage in meaningful use of that language in a relatively anxiety-free environment.
>
> *Dupuy (2000: 206)*

A major source of support for CBI derives from the work of some researchers in the area of SLA, particularly from the postulates of Krashen and Swain. In extremely abridged terms, the theories of Krashen (1982, 1984, 1985) claim that second language acquisition occurs when the

learner receives comprehensible input, not when he or she is forced to memorize vocabulary or manipulate language by means of batteries of grammar exercises. According to these premises, those methodological practices which provide students with more comprehensible input are bound to be more successful in attaining the desired goals, since learners are more likely to progress in their command of the new language when they understand content in that new linguistic code. CBI principles are closely linked to these assumptions, as the focus of instruction is on the subject matter, and not on the form or, in Krashen's words, it is on *"what* is being said rather than *how"* (Krashen, 1984: 62). Thus, in general terms, as some other authors have pointed out (Genesee, 1991; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), high levels of competence can be reached in classrooms where the target language is a medium of communication rather than a object of analysis.

In addition to receiving comprehensible input, researchers such as Swain (1985, 1993) support that, in order for learners to develop communicative competence, they must also have the opportunity of using the new language productively, both orally and in writing. In line with this, scope to produce comprehensible and coherent output is constantly offered in CBI, as students are systematically pushed to produce language that is appropriate in terms of both content and language. This 'output hypothesis' —which complements Krashen's input hypothesis— has recently been extended, arguing for "explicit focus on relevant and contextually appropriate language forms to support content-learning activities in the classroom" (Grabe & Stoller, 1997: 6). The issue of 'form-content integration', as distinct from the 'form versus content' dichotomy, has been discussed by Garrett (1991), Lightbrown and Spada (1994), Swain (1995a), and Tarone and Swain (1995). The appropriateness of grammar exploitation in CBI is reviewed in detail by Brinton and Holten (2001) by examining the different arguments and counter-arguments regarding its pertinence within the approach. The conclusion reached is that grammar instruction is optimally compatible with CBI methodology; furthermore, these authors suggest a number of pedagogical guidelines for integrating grammar into the CBI syllabus in a systematic way.

Outside research in second language acquisition, classroom training research also supports the effectiveness of some instructional approaches commonly incorporated into CBI. Among these, research on cooperative learning, research on learning strategy instruction, and research in extensive reading are strongly attached to CBI and have provided outstanding results.

Cooperative learning is readily incorporated into CBI as it is consistent with the goals of this paradigm (Crandall, 1993; Fathman & Kessler, 1993). Cooperative learning requires that small groups of students (four to six) work together to learn information and perform different tasks, thus promoting peer group support and peer instruction. Among the different approaches to cooperative learning (Fathman & Kessler, 1993; Stahl, 1994; Slavin, 1995; Shaw, 1997), the documentation provided by Slavin (1995) seems to be particularly relevant, as it claims that significant advancement in student learning exists when students work in groups which incorporate structured objectives, have common group goals, offer potential rewards, promote individualized responsibility, and provide each individual in the group with equal opportunities for success. Cooperative learning leads to greater student collaboration, increases motivation for learning, develops more positive student attributions for learning success and better attitudes toward school and learning, and promotes greater self-esteem (Slavin, 1995). Outcomes in the fields of research in cooperative learning suggest that, by integrating language and subject matter learning, students are offered opportunities for participating more and using the target language

with less pressure; moreover, a cooperative learning context provides students with self-confidence and with a starting point for higher work and cognitive demands. In CBI classrooms, practices that allow learners to work together sharing responsibilities in order to perform tasks are widely used. As Dupuy points out, "Small group work, team learning, jigsaw reading, and peer editing are among the many techniques CBI calls on to provide students with ample opportunities to interact, share ideas, test hypotheses, and construct knowledge in a low-risk forum" (Dupuy, 2000: 207).

Learning strategy instruction is also contemplated as highly effective when incorporated into CBI. In the words of Grabe and Stoller,

> CBI approaches provide one of the few realistic options for promoting the development of strategic learners within a language-learning curriculum. The content component of a content-based classroom provides the extended coherent material into which strategy instruction can be integrated and recycled on a daily basis. Thus, CBI approaches, which promote the importance of strategy learning, provide the curricular resources for development of the strategic language (and content) learner.
>
> *Grabe and Stoller (1997: 5)*

According to these authors, research in the field has verified that strategy learning works optimally when it is incorporated within the regular curriculum as a consistent feature of content and language instruction. Support for the benefits of learner strategy training can be found, among others, in the works of Brown, Pressley, Van Meter and Schuder (1996), and Pressley and Woloshyn (1995).

As extensive reading is an integral part of CBI, some findings in extensive reading research have also claimed the benefits of this methodological approach. Studies in the area provide evidence that reading of coherent extended materials promotes language development and content learning. Elley (1991) has supplied sound evidence that second and foreign language learners who practice extensive reading across a variety of topics increase their language abilities in the four basic skills, expand their vocabulary, and acquire greater content knowledge and higher motivation. In CBI classes, students engage in reading copious amounts of material related to the content selected; moreover, on most occasions the materials offered are not limited to conventional textbook content, but make use of a wide variety of viable texts from different sources, thus promoting student autonomy and empowerment.

Persuasive support for content-based approaches is also found in the fields of cognitive and educational psychology. According to Grabe and Stoller (1997), five potentially interacting research areas within these fields contribute to provide endorsement for CBI: cognitive learning theory; depth-of-processing research; discourse comprehension processing research; motivation, attribution and interest research; and expertise research.

Cognitive psychology reveals that when students are exposed to coherent and meaningful information, and when they have opportunities to elaborate the information, their linkages are more complex and recall is better (Anderson, 1990). Moreover, research in learning theory (Anderson, 1993) reinforces teaching approaches which combine the development of language and content knowledge, and practice in using that knowledge. In accordance with these theories, CBI promotes extended practice with meaningful content conjoined with relevant language learning activities (Mohan, 1986; Tang, 1997).

Research in depth-of-processing (Anderson, 1990; Barsalou, 1992; Stilling *et al.*, 1987)

suggests that the presentation of coherent and meaningful information contributes to deeper processing, and that deeper informational processing promotes better learning. As Grabe and Stoller point out, "depth-of-processing research findings are consistent with CBI, an approach that, by definition, promotes extended study of coherent content and relevant language learning activities. Thus, depth-of-processing research provides support for the integration of language and content instruction" (Grabe & Stoller, 1997: 11).

Studies in discourse comprehension processes offer powerful support for CBI as well, since one of the paradigm major goals is to make information available through multiple opportunities to work with varied yet coherently developed sets of content resources, and to recycle that information with different procedures and techniques. Discourse comprehension processing research has demonstrated that information which is more coherently presented in terms of thematic organization is easier to remember and promotes improved learning (Singer, 1990). Furthermore, text information that directly describes and endorses the topic of the text, and information that connects to related topics or areas, are more easily learned and recalled by students. The different ways in which that information is interconnected can also assist learners to use the information in new contexts and situations (Spiro *et al.*, 1987). Finally, research on discourse comprehension evidences the relevance of both verbal and visual representations of information in order to improve the memory and recall of students (Sadoski, Paivio & Goetz, 1991).

Motivation and interest research has found out that "motivation and interest come, in part, from the recognition that (1) one is actually learning and that (2) one is learning something valuable and challenging that justifies the effort" (Dupuy, 2000: 207). In line with this, CBI attempts to respond to the needs and interests of learners by focusing either on subject matter that is related to their own pedagogical or academic needs, or on content spheres which are associated with the students' cognitive and affective preferences. Research claims as well that those students who are more motivated, who develop an interest in learning aims and practices, and who see themselves as capable and successful students, learn more and obtain better results (Alexander *et al.*, 1994; Tobias, 1994; Krapp *et al.*, 1992). Furthermore, according to these authors, students with high levels of motivation make more sophisticated elaborations with learning material, increase connections among content information, and are able to recall information more easily and better.

Finally, research in the area of expertise has also contributed to support CBI paradigms. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) argue that expertise is a process in which students reinvest their knowledge in a sequence of problem-solving tasks which become progressively more complex. As learners are exposed to growing complexity in activities, their learning advances and they develop intrinsic motivation. Thus, they seek connections between sets of information, acquire relevant skills to accomplish tasks, and gain familiarity with problem solving. Both motivation and expertise are found to be widely addressed in CBI.

A synthesized yet comprehensive revision of the perceived benefits of CBI is found in Grabe and Stoller (1997); the conclusions derived from these findings lead these authors to suggest seven rationales for CBI that can be recapitulated as follows:

1. **In content-based classrooms, students are exposed to a considerable amount of language while learning content. This incidental language should be comprehensible, linked to their immediate prior learning and relevant to their needs. (...) In content-based classrooms, teachers and students explore interesting content while students are engaged in appropriate language-dependent**

activities (. . .). The resultant language learning activities, therefore, are not artificial or meaningless exercises.

2. CBI supports contextualized learning; students are using useful language that is embedded within relevant discourse contexts rather than as isolated language fragments (. . .) Thus, CBI allows for explicit language instruction, integrated with content instruction, in a relevant and purposeful context.
3. (. . .) The use of coherently developed content sources allows students to call on their own prior knowledge to learn additional language and content material.
4. (. . .) In content-based classrooms, students are exposed to complex information and are involved in demanding activities which can lead to intrinsic motivation.
5. CBI (. . .) lends itself well to strategy instruction and practice, as theme units naturally require and recycle important strategies across varying content and learning tasks.
6. CBI allows greater flexibility and adaptability to be built into the curriculum and activity sequences.
7. CBI lends itself to student-centered classroom activities.

Grabe and Stoller (1997: 19-20)

IV. THE HOWS: MODELS OF CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

Prototype models of content-based instruction differ in design and implementation depending on a multiplicity of factors among which educational setting, level, and the nature of instruction are of primary relevance. Some models are commonly implemented in foreign language settings whereas others are more typical in second language contexts. There are also well-developed paradigms which have proved to be highly successful at the elementary school level, while others have demonstrated their optimal effectiveness at the secondary or post-secondary levels. Equally, the variable degree of emphasis put on either language or content that underlines each particular program affects the nature of the model in substantial terms, generating a continuum which places "content-driven" models at one end and "language-driven models" at the other extremity. This continuum is envisioned by Met (1999:7) as follows:

Content-Driven **Language-Driven**

◄----------►

Total Immersion	Partial Immersion	Sheltered Courses	Adjunct Model	Theme-Based Courses	Language Classes with Frequent Use of Content for Language Practice

Figure 1: **Content-Based** Language Teaching: **A Continuum** of Content and Language Integration. **Met (1999:** 7)

Although the amount of and emphasis on language and content varies in the models showed above, all paradigms incorporate both components in a systematic and integral manner, with existing individual peculiarities depending on the objectives of the course or program, the target student population, and the particular idiosyncrasy of the instructional context.

In the following paragraphs, four well-documented prototypes of paradigms will be described, starting with an account of the nature of immersion education so as to envision the

most radical model of CBI, and then moving progressively toward more flexible language-driven frameworks.

IV. 1. Immersion education

Teaching and learning concepts and ideas in a language that is not one's own is hardly a new phenomenon; in fact, as Cummins points out, "throughout the history of formal education the use of an L2 as a medium of instruction has been the rule rather than the exception" (Cummins, 2000). However, the first well-documented programs subjected to intensive long-term scrutiny were the innovative experiences developed in Montreal, Canada from 1965 onwards, in which French language was used as the medium for the instruction of monolingual English-speaking children. These programs expanded successfully throughout the rest of Canada and the US in the subsequent decades. The immersion paradigm is one of the most carefully researched language teaching models in primary —and sometimes secondary — education (Cummins, 1987; Genesee, 1987; Johnson & Swain, 1997). Referring to ESL programs in the US, for instance, it has been reported that immersion children at early educational stages "consistently perform at or above grade level scholastically, are on par with their monolingual peers in English language development, and by the end of the elementary school, become functional bilinguals" (Snow, 2001: 305). Variations of immersion programs developed over the years differ with respect to the amount of time the second/foreign language is used for instruction and the grade in which the program commences: additionally to early immersion cases, there are numerous programs labeled as 'middle' or 'delayed' immersion, and 'late' immersion —starting at the end of elementary education or the beginning of the secondary level. Although the amount of teaching in the target language may vary, it is common that at least 50% of curricular instruction is provided in the new target language. Many of the experiences reported in the existing literature in the field refer to immersion programs developed in Canada and the U.S; the model, however, is widely operational all over the world (Johnson & Swain, 1997).

IV. 2. Sheltered courses

Sheltered courses are very common in a variety of contexts, mostly at secondary and post-secondary levels. A basic definition of the model states that "A sheltered content-based course is taught in a second language by a content specialist to a group of learners who have been segregated or 'sheltered' from native speakers" (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989: 15). The term 'sheltered' derives from the intended separation of second language students from native speakers of the target language for content instruction purposes. In sheltered instruction, lectures are commonly taught by content instructors, not language teachers. Content instructors, nevertheless, are required to be aware of the language needs and abilities of the learners, and need to be familiarized with the idiosyncrasy of the language learning process. Some authors (Gaffield-Vile, 1996), however, claim the likelihood that the instructors may be language teachers with subject-matter knowledge, or instructors working collaboratively with language specialists and content specialists. In order to meet the desired selected teaching goals, there has to be an evident accommodation of the instruction to the students' level of proficiency in the language, content, however, is not usually watered down, thus containing the same components as a regular subject course. Although a primary goal of the model is accelerating the development of language abilities for students to reach the course aims; it has to be kept in mind that the overall purpose of sheltered courses is facilitating content learning rather than language learning,

so this model constitutes one of the most content-driven paradigms within the general framework of CBI.

Sheltered courses are typical of second language situations rather than of foreign language instruction. The early sheltered courses in post-secondary education were originally developed at the University of Ottawa in Canada, as an alternative to the traditional university foreign language classes for non-native speakers (Edwards *et al.*, 1984). Ensuing experiences in many different contexts have been reported in the existing literature; Gaffield-Vile (1996), for instance, offers an account of a more updated experience in a sheltered Sociology course developed in order to bridge the perceived gap between the standard EAP (English for Academic Purposes) course and the normal first-year undergraduate courses at universities in Britain:

> Through the subject of sociology, the model suggested here is designed to develop language and study skills, especially academic writing. The course begins by looking at the social sciences in general, and examines the methods of research used by social scientists, particularly sociologists. After that it examines major theoretical perspectives which shed light on issues such as social stratification and social class in Britain, and concepts of wealth and poverty, crime and deviance. The major institutions are also examined, including the political system, the mass media, agencies of socialisation (i.e. the family, education and religion). Because the course marries subject content with EAP content, an EAP syllabus is written alongside the content syllabus, highlighting skills such as:
>
> *Reading*: Reading sociology texts to identify main and supporting ideas, examples and details; differentiating between relevant and irrelevant information; skimming and scanning for key ideas; reading, summarizing, and reinterpreting information in diagrammatic form; identifying bias in written text; following the main line of an argument.
>
> *Writing*: Writing summaries; understanding essay titles; planning essays; writing essays to 1,500-word length; examinations; using sources appropriately and correctly; using exposition and argumentation.
>
> *Listening*: Listening to one-hour academic lectures and grasping the gist of an aural text with complex language; differentiating between fact and opinion; presenting aural text in a different form.
>
> *Speaking and oral interaction*: Answering questions and giving information following a lecture; giving opinions; using conversational discourse strategies for interrupting, holding the floor, disagreeing or agreeing, and qualifying; requesting clarification; giving a short oral summary of main points; giving a 15-minute prepared seminar presentation using visual aids on a sociological topic.
>
> *Gaffield-Vile (1996: 109)*

This course differs from a regular 'Introduction to Sociology' course not in the content, which is parallel for both the ordinary and the sheltered versions, but in the provision made to cope with language aspects not only in order to facilitate non-native students' performance in the subject area, but also to help them progress in their language skills, particularly in those academic abilities essential for successful higher-level study. The course would therefore serve as a most helpful bridge between skill-based EAP courses for non-native students and regular university subject-matter courses.

Authors claim that, when properly developed and conducted, sheltered courses can offer a very effective approach for integrating language development and content learning for students whose language abilities may not yet be advanced enough for them to progress successfully in demanding higher-level content courses originally designed for native speakers. A potential handicap for the implementation of sheltered classes, however, could be the lack of availability of either content specialists familiarized with the needs and demands of students with limited operational capability in the language of instruction, or language instructors with the adequate background for teaching real content disciplines at secondary or university level.

IV. 3. Adjunct courses

The adjunct model constitutes a more sophisticated pattern for the integration of language and content, because adjunct classes are not implemented on their own but aim at assisting an existing regular subject-matter class. This model has mainly been implemented at the university level, although some experiences of its effectiveness at secondary school level have been reported as well (Wegrzecka-Kowalski, 1997). Although the adjunct model intends to connect a purposefully designed language course with a regular academic course, the target audience being those students who are enrolled in the regular content course but who lack the necessary language competence to progress successfully in the subject-matter proficiency unless some additional aid is provided. Both the regular discipline and the adjunct classes share a common content basis, although they vary in the particular focus of instruction: whereas the content instructor focuses on academic concepts, the language teacher emphasizes language skills using the academic content as the background in which the language learning process is contextualized. Thus, the adjunct courses work as support classes for regular subject matter courses and, according to different authors (Snow & Kamhi-Stein, 1997) offer excellent opportunities to develop the academic strategies necessary to cope with real academic content. First of all, the language component of the course is directly linked to immediate academic needs of students, equipping learners with assistance in tasks such as revising notes, writing assignments, preparing for tests, etc., as well as aiding them to advance in the conceptual background necessary to understand the content material. Additionally, the fact that, besides the adjunct course, students are enrolled in a parallel academic subject- matter course in which they must obtain a passing grade, helps to increase motivation for learning both language and content.

Adjunct classes are more commonly offered in second language settings rather than in foreign language contexts, although they are also quite often implemented at international institutions or national institutions using a foreign language as the medium of instruction. Some successful experiences have been detailed: a biology course at a university in the Middle East (Flowerdew, 1993), and a history and sociology course at the George Fox University in Oregon, US (Iancu, 1997). Another experience of effective adjunct courses was developed in the Freshman Summer Program at the University of California Los Angeles: among the different course offered, one of the most successful ones was Introduction to Psychology, which Adamson (1993) describes as follows,

> **The ESL component of this course emphasizes five areas of study: reading, writing, study skills, grammar, and discussion of the content material. During the first week of the course when the psychology instructor is covering the history and methods of psychology, the ESL reading component concentrates on previewing and predicting. The writing component covers topic sentences, paragraph unity, and writing paragraphs for definition. The study skills component covers verb tenses, determiners, and relative clauses. These activities are not much different from those taught in a study skills course in an intensive ESL program, but the adjunct format is much more effective because the activities are not done for their own sake but rather to help students understand material in a course that they must pass in order to graduate.**
>
> *Adamson (1993: 126).*

The implementation of the adjunct model, however, demands some organizational requirements and coordination efforts that on occasions may go beyond the actual possibilities of many educational institutions. As Lonon-Blanton (1992: 287) states: "As it is obvious, this model requires a willing interaction and co-ordination among teachers in different disciplines and

across academic units and, for that reason, may be administratively difficult to arrange". Synchronization between instructors is therefore essential: the syllabi of the two classes must be negotiated with respect to each other, although it is common that the discipline course provides the point of departure for the language class, setting down the content and governing its progression.

IV. 4. Theme-based models

Theme-based courses probably constitute the most popular and widely used prototype of CBI at all levels of instructions and in both second and foreign language settings. In the theme-based model, courses are autonomous —i.e. they are not parallel to other discipline courses as in the adjunct model—, offer a strong language-oriented projection, and allow a high degree of flexibility in terms of content selection, curricular organization and procedural application. This leads to a lack of complexity for implementation that is viewed as highly positive, since teachers — who are language teaching specialists rather than subject lecturers — operate independently, and no organizational or institutional adjustments are required.

The syllabus in theme-based courses is organized either around different topics within a particular discipline, or including a number of individual issues associated with a relevant general theme or content area. In both cases, as Snow points out, "Themes are the central ideas that organize major curricular units selected for their appropriateness to student needs and interests, institutional expectations, program resources, and teachers abilities and interests" (Snow, 2001: 307). Typically, a course deals with several topics as it progresses. Thus a standard theme-based course would consist of a number of subunits focused on different topics which explore more specific aspects or different perspectives of the general theme. In general terms, topics should be arranged to provide maximum coherence for theme unit, and to generate a range of opportunities to explore both content and language. Each course is, in short, a sequence of topics linked together by the assumption of a coherent overall theme.

Theme-based courses do have explicit language aims and objectives which are typically more important than the content learning objectives. In the continuum that Met (1999, Figure 1) establishes for the depiction of the degree of emphasis given to language and content in the different CBI prototypes, she places the theme-based approach at the language-driven models extreme, immediately before the category of "language classes with frequent use of content for language practice", which is not technically considered as a CBI prototype in itself, but just as a common procedure in language instruction. According to Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) who distinguish between what they call "weak" and "strong" forms of CBI — these courses would constitute the weakest representation of content-based models. As stated by this pattern, weaker forms would include language courses whose main aim is to develop learners' communicative proficiency, whereas stronger versions would integrate content courses for L2 speakers in non-language disciplines, in which the primary goal is mastery of the subject matter.

Courses designed according to the theme-based model parameters tend to integrate a variety of text types and discourse samples, combining oral input — teacher presentations, video sequences, recorded passages, guest lecture talks, etc — with written materials —newspapers articles, essays, informative texts, literary passages, etc. Another key feature is the interest in the concept of integrated skills: although the topics presented are commonly grounded on listening or reading, the oral passage or written text always serves as the basis for further exploration of other areas — grammar, vocabulary, language awareness, etc. — as well as acting as a springboard

for the practice of productive skills —making presentations and oral reports, engaging in discussions and debates, giving oral or written response to questions or issues associated to the topics, writing summaries, commentaries, etc. In this way, skills and language analysis are integrated around the selected topics in a meaningful, coherent and interlinked way.

Guidelines for the design of theme-based syllabuses and units are provided in Gianelli (1997) and Stoller and Grabe (1997). References to the successful implementation of theme-based courses are numerous. An interesting case is reported in Klahn (1997), with the description of an advanced Spanish course developed around the theme of 'Contemporary Mexican Topics' at the School of International and Public Affairs (SIPA) of Columbia University (New York, US). The course was interdisciplinary in nature and scope because so was the target audience, which included, among others, students from degree courses in history, political science, anthropology, education, law, and journalism. The syllabus was organized around a selection of topics sequenced "by carefully controlling the quantity and quality of the content of the material so that each lesson guided the student to a higher level of competence (...) The different topics lent themselves to the performance of certain linguistic tasks that, when studied in a specific order, facilitated students' progress" (Klahn 1997: 206). The topics included were (1) The History of Mexico, (2) The Political System, (3) Means of Communication, (4) The Mexican Economy, (5) Geography and Demography, (6) The Arts, (7) Popular Culture, and (8) US-Mexican Relations. All the materials used for the course were samples of authentic Mexican discourse: historical, biographical and autobiographical texts, newspapers and magazine articles, editorials, film reviews, economic predictions and graphs, political speeches, poems, short stories, popular traditions, interviews, business letters, recipes, and tourist brochures, as well as excepts of films, television programs, soap operas, TV interviews, commercials, and documentaries. Materials were purposefully selected —and occasionally edited— so that they would progressively increase their degree of difficulty, complexity, and challenging nature. According to the author, in terms of outcomes the course had "very positive results in the cognitive, linguistic, and affective domains. (...) Student evaluations demonstrate the potential for a course of this kind to achieve the goal of greater socio-cultural understanding through increased foreign language fluency" (Klahn, 1997: 209).

It is commonly agreed that theme-based courses constitute an excellent tool for the integration of language and content providing that curriculum planners, course designers and teachers manage to keep language and content exploration in balance, not to lose sight of content and language learning objectives, and not to overwhelm students with excessive amounts of content that may lead to overlooking the language teaching and learning dimension of instruction.

All the content-based prototypes described in the previous sections present well-documented models of content-based instruction. Besides these standardized models, some other proposals for paradigm combination or new experiences have also been offered for, as Snow states, "In recent years the models have evolved into new formats and different features have been borrowed, blurring many of the key distinctions" (Snow, 2001: 309). Hybrid proposals have emerged as well, and flexible alternatives anticipated by Lonon-Blanton (1992) and Leaver and Stryker (1989) — who advocated for a holistic approach and eclectic organizational frameworks for CBI respectively — have demonstrated their potential. Another important feature among current issues in CBI is the innovative trend to incorporate other teaching practices into content-based instruction: interesting experiences are reported, among others, for integrating project work (Stoller, 1997), making use of graphic devices (Short, 1997), and incorporating technology and,

very particularly, the Internet into the content-based classroom (Kasper, 2000; Crane 2000; Luzón 2002).

V. THE WHOS: AUTHORS, EXPERIENCES AND SCOPES IN THE EXISTING LITERATURE

Evidence of the increasing relevance of CBI in contemporary second and foreign language education is contributed by numerous authors in the copious publications on the issue, a fact which demonstrates that, as Wesche and Skehan (2002: 224) point out, "an abundant and continually evolving literature on content-based instruction now exists". Although this section does not aim to provide a fully definitive corpus of references, it will attempt to offer an extensive body of authors and works that reflect the amplitude of the lines of work, trends and interest in the area.

References on the foundations of the paradigm trace back to the late 1980s with, among others, the pioneering works by Mohan (1986), Cantoni-Harvey (1987), Crandall (1987), Benesch (1988), and Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989). In the succeeding years, the number of publications on the field has continuously expanded in the form of books, with works such as the ones by Short (1991), Krueger and Ryan (1993), Pruhauf, Coyle *et al.* (1996), Snow and Brinton (1997), Stryker and Leaver (1997), Marsh and Langé (1999, 2000), Kasper *et al.* (2000), McLaughlin and Vogt (2000), Haley (2002), and Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003). Similarly, a profusion of articles has also been published throughout the years in prestigious periodical publications in the language teaching field, such as *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* (Spanos, 1987; Crandall, 1993; Snow, 1998), *Foreign Language Annals* (Leaver & Stryker, 1989; Ballman, 1997; Dupuy, 2000), *ELT Journal* (Lonon-Blanton, 1992; Gaffield-Vile, 1996), *The Modern Language Journal* (Campbell *et al.*, 1985; Pica, 2002), *System* (Chapple & Curtis, 2000), and *Applied Linguistics* (Musumeci, 1996), among others.

CBI is also referred to as one of the most representative contributions to contemporary foreign language pedagogy both in the updated editions of seminal books in the field of methodology —*Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (Celce-Murcia, 2000), *Techniques and Principles In Language Teaching* (Larsen-Freeman, 2000), and *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (Richards & Rodgers, 2001)— and in newly published volumes in language methodology such as *Methodology in Language Teaching. An Anthology of Current Practice* (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Interest in CBI is perceived as well in relevant reference works in applied Linguistics, as it is the case of the recently published *Oxford Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (Kaplan, 2002), which titles one of the only three chapters in the part of 'The study of second language teaching' as "Communicative, task-based and content-based instruction" (Wesche & Skehan, 2002).

As it has already been mentioned, CBI has been extensively used in the United States and Canada in recent decades; the geographical scope of the methodology, however, goes beyond the North American boundaries, and numerous authors have also reported their experiences in other settings such as Asia (Sagliano & Greenfield, 1998; Murphey, 1997; Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Chadran & Esarey, 1997), South America (Snow, Cortés & Pron, 1998), and Australia (Chapell & DeCourcy, 1993). In Europe abundant work has been done on what has been termed as 'Content and Language Integrated Learning' *(CLIL)* (Pruhauf, Coyle *et al.*, 1996; Masih, 1999; Marsh & Langé, 1999,2000, among others), and in the particular case of Spain there are some

experiences reported of CBI implementation at primary and secondary schools and universities (Scott-Tennent, 1995; Navés & Muñoz, 1999; Lorenzo, 2001).

In terms of content fields, a considerable number of courses and programs in an ample variety of disciplines and areas of interest have been reported, and thorough descriptions have been supplied by practitioners in the specific fields of literature (Hollen, 1997), history (Stoller, 1997), art history (Raphan & Moser, 1994), film (Chapple & Curtis, 2000), biology (Dong, 2002), mathematics (Canjoni-Harvey, 1987), journalism (Vines, 1997), sociology (Gaffield-Vile, 1996), culture (Ballman, 1997) and national or regional features and issues (Klee & Teddick, 1997; Stryker, 1997; Klahn, 1997). Other references to courses in areas such as psychology, economy, geography, political science, etc. can also be found (Dupuy, 2000).

Information for improved practice is also contemplated by different authors in the existing literature on CBI: techniques and strategies for classroom application are explored by Short (1991), and Brinton and Masters (1997); guidance for the development of syllabus design and curricular materials is provided by Eskey (1997), and Brinton and Holten (1997), and the crucial issue of assessment is addressed by Turner (1992), Short (1993), and Cushing Weigle and Jensen (1997). Other matters of pedagogical concern, such as teacher training, are also conveniently tackled by Peterson (1997), Crandall (1998), and Brinton (2000). Research perspectives on CBI are also contemplated by Swain (1996), and Zuengler and Brinton (1997).

CONCLUSION

Content-Based Instruction has been put into practice throughout the last decades in a variety of language learning educational contexts and levels, although its popularity and actual applicability has expanded substantially since the early 1990s. As has been stated in the previous sections, CBI is not so much a revolutionary proposal for language teaching as a new orientation within the CLT paradigm. Equally, as has been reported, the benefits of the approach are supported by both extensive research on theoretical foundations and the outcomes reported by numerous designers and implementers of successful experiences in a multiplicity of settings, institutions and levels of instruction. There also exists a set of well-documented standard models specifically developed to fulfill the particular needs and demands of different groups, settings and educational purposes. Moreover, as has been detailed, CBI crosses over disciplines and thematic spheres, providing a flexible teaching framework with optimal scope for the accommodation of the most diverse content areas.

The production and execution of a CBI course or program potentially constitutes a most stimulating challenge for language teachers, as the materialization of the real academic, cognitive and even personal interests and demands of both lecturers and learners can be accomplished by means of this methodological framework. Some issues, however, may contribute to dissuade practitioners from engaging in the development and implementation of a CBI course. Institutional restraints may be one of the most recalcitrant barriers. Personal qualms may also discourage teachers as, on most occasions, they will have to plan the appropriate curricula, design the syllabus, and fully develop new classroom materials which encompass the assumptions of the approach. This endeavor may involve strenuous hours of laborious effort and may spark mixed feelings of enthusiasm, anxiety, and fear of failure, since effectiveness and success can never be entirely guaranteed, and recipes of how exactly to proceed are hard to find. Most experienced

authors, however, encourage teachers to experiment by creating innovative content-based proposals that better suit the particular needs, concerns and preferences of their learner population. The effort, they agree, is utterly worthwhile.

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