

# **Language Learning Theories**

## **(ENG505)**

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**Lesson-01****INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE-I****Topic-001: Introduction to the Course**

The course provides in-depth understanding of language learning theories. The focus is on the six key theories with emphasis on their theoretical and pedagogical aspects of language learning. With the inclusion of current research trends in LLT, the course will equip the students with the awareness of the distinctive concepts of language learning theories and their varied implementation.

The course aims to:

- develop awareness of current teaching approaches and methodologies supported by language learning theories
- enable effective planning and teaching, with a solid rationale at the background in a variety of curricular and learning environments
- analyze current research trends in language learning

**Topic-002: Introduction to Language Learning**

Language is a vast domain which has a system that consists not only of the acquisition process but also the development and use of complex systems of communication. It consists of linguistic units and each unit has its own unique system. Some of the key features related to language include:

- A systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings (Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2003, p. 699).
- A multiple, complex, and kaleidoscopic phenomenon (Schollon, 2004, p. 272).
- Language is a complex, specialized skill, which develops in the child spontaneously, without conscious effort or formal instruction, is deployed without awareness of its underlying logic, is qualitatively the same in every individual, and is distinct from more general abilities to process information or behave intelligently (Pinker, 1994).

Based on the complexity of its nature, language has been defined in multiple ways. A consolidation of a number of possible definitions of language yields the following composite definition:

- Language is systematic.
- Language is a set of arbitrary symbols.
- The symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual.
- The symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer.
- Language is used for communication.
- Language operates in a speech community or culture.
- Language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans.
- Language is acquired by all in much the same way; language and language learning both have universal characteristics.

Broadly, the definitions cover ‘Language’ as a system of communication with symbols: vocal and visual both, a system that is culture specific so to be shared in a speech community, and above all it is a process which is universally acquired by all.

### **Topic-003: Historical Perspective-I Part-I**

To understand the philosophical aspect of language learning, it is important to have a deep insight of its historical perspectives. Language is concerned with not only the nature of knowledge and reality but also the attitudes that are responsible for certain behaviour. The relationship between language and knowledge creates an important paradigm which was first surfaced by the contributions of Plato and Aristotle. In their attempt to explain the nature of human knowledge, they deliberated in length between nature vs. nurture debate.

In the **nature versus nurture** debate, Plato tended to side with nature, believing that knowledge was innate. According to Noam Chomsky (1986), ‘Knowledge of Language’ begins with informal characterization of ‘Plato’s Problem – the problem of explaining how we can know so much given so little evidence.’ Descartes, a French philosopher, also believed that language acquisition was a simple and easy process and reinforced the innateness of language, as it reflected the general rationality of human beings. In contrast to innateness, the concept of *Tabula Rasa* or blank slate was proposed by Locke which refers to the notion that all knowledge comes from outside us through sensory experience rather than through innate knowledge.

### **Topic-004: Historical Perspective-I Part-II**

The two different schools of thought, behaviourism and nativism, can be traced back from the middle of the 20th century. B.F. Skinner, a behaviourist, put forward the concept of behaviourism which took Locke’s ideas of sensory input and claimed that there is no innate device to do programming of language rather our behaviour is in fact a response to external stimuli. It refutes the theory of Universal Grammar proposed by Noam Chomsky which proposed the existence of Language Acquisition Device (LAD) as an innate faculty to process human language. In the light of these two diverse notions, John Schumann introduced ‘Acculturation Model’ which covers both social and psychological aspects responsible for our success. The process is related to the immigrants’ process of ‘picking up’ a new language while being completely immersed in the language.

### **Topic-005: Historical Perspective-II**

From late nineteenth to early twentieth century, modern history of the psychology of learning became the focus of researchers of ‘Behaviourism’ which propagated learning as behaviour and ‘Constructivism’ which laid emphasis on mental processes involved in learning. The prominent figures include Wilhelm Wundt (1879), German psychologist, and William James (1890), an American philosopher and physician, who belonged to these two varied approaches. Thus, two branches of the psychology of learning developed during that period were Behaviourism and Constructivism.

Behaviourism concerns with what can be seen happening – behaviour. Constructivism rests on



the idea that knowledge and, more importantly, understanding are constructed by the individual.

In addition to the above mentioned developments, the era witnessed developments in diversified learning domains which include:

1. Individual Learners Preferences
2. Multiple Intelligences
3. Metacognition
4. Brain Based Learning

The developments reflected the features of behaviourism and constructivism embedded in individual learning preferences and multiple intelligences as well as metacognition and brain based learning.

### **Topic-006: Introduction to the Key Theories Part-I**

#### **Behaviourist Theories**

Behaviourist theory (includes The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis) refers to the notion of stimuli-response phenomena which is related to one's behaviour and that language learning is also a set of behaviour. It negates the existence of innateness as the stimuli-response is a process of conditioning and relies on the corrective feedback to correct bad habits.

#### **Universal Grammar (UG) Theory**

UG refers to the mentalist approach that supports nativism and cognitivism. The theory advocates that children are born with Language Acquisition Device (Hadley, 2001, p. 58) and are innately programmed to learn language. The presence of language universals is seen to be the key characteristic which contains parameters setting. UG emphasizes that biological mechanism determines the language learning process supported by the representation of 'core grammar.'

#### **Krashen's Monitor Theory**

Stephen Krashen's 'Monitor Model' distinguishes acquisition (subconscious learning) and learning (conscious learning) as responsible factors for developing competence in the second language acquisition. The monitor hypothesis claims that the acquisition process is responsible for all second language utterances and fluency. On the contrary, learning is the 'editor' and 'monitor' for the output (Hadley, 2001). The input hypothesis states that speaking fluency emerges over time and that acquisition process is subject to our exposure to the language, which is beyond our current level of comprehension.

### **Topic-007: Introduction to the Key Theories Part-II**

#### **Cognitive Theory**

Cognitive theory has significant contribution in the area of SLA as it focuses on the internal mental process as the basis for language learning. According to cognitive theory, proficiency develops through practice and then it becomes automatic. The mental processes rely on the analysis where the

positive and negative feedback play an important role for reconstructing and meaningful language learning.

### **Conversation Theory**

Conversation theory advocates participation process as useful mechanism for language learning. The participation encourages scaffolding and corrective feedback. The emphasis is on initiating conversations which do not require speaking full sentences. Language learning is seen to be a process of communication where through suggestions and error correction, learning is improved.

### **Schumann's Acculturation Theory**

The basis of Schumann's 'Acculturation Theory' is a 'social theory' which considers social forces as the deriving factors that affect language learning and acquisition processes. It emphasizes that instead of internal mental activities, the external factors facilitate learning by providing the target language culture for specific language functions. Language being social phenomena does consider attitudes and stereotypes towards the target language as affective learning factors. Errors can be corrected.

**Lesson-02****INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE-II****Topic-008: Introduction to Approaches, Methods and Techniques Part-I**

Edward Anthony proposed a ‘three-level framework’ (1965) based on ‘Approach, Methods, and Techniques.’ ‘**Approach**’ is a set of principles or ideas about the nature of language learning; ‘**Method**’ is an overall mechanism; ‘**Technique**’ is a specific strategy/way. Researchers vary in terms of design, procedure and approach; Anthony’s framework emphasized ‘Approach,’ whereas Richards and Rogers considered ‘Method’ as a broader term in comparison to approach. Repka and Stern claim that ‘method or methodology’ is a broader term that covers the rest. Goal orientation, organization, progressiveness, and linking of age to content and successiveness are the general characteristics of methods. However, methods and methodology are related to planning of a specific task, content, procedure, and assessment.

**Topic-009: Introduction to Approaches, Methods and Techniques Part-II**

Three principal views of language are structural, functional, and interactive. **Structural principal** of language deals with the understanding of the structurally related elements in a language; it includes grammar translation and audio-lingual methods. The key features of grammar translation and audio-lingual methods are concerned with memorization of grammar rules and habit-formation based on conditioning respectively. It caters to writing, listening and speaking components of a language.

**Functional principal** claims that language is a tool to accomplish certain functions. It focuses more on oral and situational language teaching for functional purposes. The functional approach relies on speech and structure; therefore, it includes vocabulary control and grammar control respectively.

**Topic-010: Interactive Method**

**Interactive principal** of language looks at language as means of creating and maintaining social relations. It focuses on processes that can best suit the learners’ needs to interact meaningfully in a speech community. The key features include: Direct Method (emphasizes target language to be learned through imitation), Communicative Language Teaching (emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal), Community Language Learning (emphasizes learner as a member of a community and propagates the importance of mutual trust between teacher and the learner), Silent Way (emphasizes problem solving by involving the target language material), Suggestopedia (emphasizes rich sensory learning environment like pictures, color, music, active participation in songs and games etc.), and Total Physical Response (emphasizes instant understanding of the target language by responding to the command given in the target language).

**Topic-011: Introduction to Approaches, Methods, and Techniques Part-III**

Analysis of ‘Language Learning Theories’ requires understanding of the terms ‘Technique,

Activity and Procedure.’ **‘Technique’** is a broader term for specific tasks and refers to Brown’s taxonomy of techniques: controlled, semi-controlled and free techniques. However, **‘Activity’** and **‘Procedure’** deal with learner’s performance and practices/behaviours in teaching respectively.

**Lesson-03****INTRODUCTION TO KEY CONCEPTS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING****Topic-012: Acquisition vs. Learning****Acquisition (Mentalist Approach)**

**Acquisition** as a mentalist approach that refers to the initial process of childhood, where a child acquires his/her knowledge of native language unconsciously. The process is considered effortless assimilation of linguistic knowledge because of its sub-consciousness.

The notion that acquisition is the unconscious process claims that it has nothing to do with intelligence i.e. all children of different degrees of intelligence go through the same process of acquiring their native language. Main features of language acquisition (Mentalist Approach) include:

- Presence of Language Acquisition Device (LAD) as an inherited ability.
- Children appear to be ‘hard-wired’ to acquire the grammar.
- It lacks evidence of grammatical errors in children.
- A child would notice if an ungrammatical sentence is uttered.
- It generates awareness of what is grammatical or ungrammatical.

**Learning (Behaviourist Approach)**

**Learning** belongs to behaviourist approach and deals with a mechanical process of habit formation. As opposed to acquisition which is a subconscious process, learning involves both explicit (learner’s is aware of modification of his/her knowledge base) as well as implicit (change in the learner’s knowledge base but outside his/her conscious introspection) learning processes. Drill, imitation, and repetition are the basic elements of learning.

Key features of learning (Behaviourist Approach) include:

- Learning is entirely a product of experiences.
- It is controlled by the conditions under which it takes place.
- Variations in learning do exist.
- Language learning is practice based.
- Imitation, repetition, reinforcement and retention have significant roles in language learning.

**Topic-013: Competence vs. Performance**

**Competence** is the ‘mental reality’ which is responsible for all those aspects of language use which can be characterized as ‘linguistics.’ Chomsky refers to it as a system of rules, mastered, and the ability to produce infinite number of sentences.

### Key Features of Competence

- Competence is similar to the concepts of *Langue* and *Parole* discussed by Ferdinand de Saussure.
- It is described as unconscious knowledge of grammar.
- Knowledge of language is observed as implicit.
- Chomsky (1965) likened competence to 'ideal' speaker-hearer knowledge of language.
- Competence can be measured and assessed.

**Performance**, according to Chomsky, is 'the actual use of language in concrete situations.' It focuses not only on the knowledge of the linguistic units but also the ability of the speaker to use appropriate language in a specific context.

### Key Features of Performance

- Parole (Saussure) describes the physical manifestation of *langue* (*competence*).
- Performance can be full of errors.
- Performance and its products are complex phenomena due to speaker-hearer's linguistic competence, speech production, memory, dialectical environment, idiolect and individual style, factual knowledge, health and emotional state, and other related factors.

### Topic-014: Deductive vs. Inductive

**Deductive Learning**, being teacher centered approach, refers to providing learners with an understanding of the rules followed by examples and practice. The rules are of primary focus and the practice is encouraged through examples that inculcate rules.

#### Key Features

This type of learning is suitable for learners who:

- need a clear base to begin with a new language item (students of lower grades).
- are accustomed to a more traditional approach.
- lack the training to find rules themselves.

**Inductive Learning**, being learner-centered, begins with examples first and requires learner to determine rules relevant to the examples. Determining the relevancy of rules appropriate to examples is a challenging task for the learner. It equips learners with the knowledge of the concepts.

#### Key Features

Enables learners to 'notice,' by way of the examples, how the concept works. It emphasizes learner's active involvement in the learning process.

**Lesson-04****BEHAVIOURISM-I****Topic-015: Behaviourism**

The behaviourist movement began with John Watson in 1913. It is also known as a psychological approach which emphasizes scientific and objective methods of investigation. The behaviourists claim that knowledge is external, and humans are born with blank slate. Learning takes place through association between stimuli-response processes resulting into specific habit formation.

Critics believe that it does not provide learners with the ability to solve problems and opportunities for improvement. Some examples of behaviourist theory are:

- Drill/ rote work
- Repetitive practice
- Bonus points (incentive to do more)
- Participation points (incentive to participate)
- Verbal reinforcement (such as ‘well done’)
- Establishing rules

**Topic-016: Pavlovian Conditioning**

Russian Physiologist, Ivan Pavlov is the founder of ‘Pavlovian Conditioning’. He discovered it accidentally during 1890s. He conducted an experiment on a dog and learnt that a dog would salivate in response to the ringing of a bell. The Pavlovian conditioning follows:

**Unconditioned Stimulus (food) > Unconditioned Response (Salivate)**

It introduced the Law of Temporal Contiguity, whereby two stimuli were presented together to develop association. **Temporal Congruity** occurs when two stimuli are experienced close together in time and, as a result, an association may be formed. In Pavlovian Conditioning, the strength of the association between the conditioned stimulus (CS) and the unconditioned stimulus (US) is largely affected by the phenomenon of temporal congruity.

Key features of Pavlovian conditioning are:

- Stimulus
- Response
- Unconditioned Stimulus
- Conditioned Stimulus
- Conditioned Response
- Extinction
- Spontaneous Recovery
- Generalization
- Discrimination

**Topic-017: Classical Conditioning**

John Watson (1913) took the lead from Pavlov's idea of conditioning that a neutral stimuli becomes conditioned due to specific response and proposed that process of learning may also be referred to as the process of classical conditioning (based on Pavlov's observations).

Similar to the Pavlovian Conditioning, the Classical Conditioning supports the habit formation and opposes the idea of consciousness as responsible factors for learning. The theory of Classical Conditioning is a scientific theory that follows three stages: Before, During, and After Conditioning as the concrete processes of learning.

**Topic-018: Reciprocal Determinism**

The concept of Reciprocal Determinism was proposed by Albert Bandura in 1977. He introduced Social Learning Theory which advocated that behaviour is not a single phenomenon, rather a result of the interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental determinants. Since external and internal both factors were considered vital for developing a particular behaviour; therefore, Meditating and Observational learning were emphasized by Bandura.

1. Mediating processes occur between stimuli and responses.
2. Behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning.

Bandura suggests that most of the human behaviour is learned by observation.

1. Observing the behaviour of others (models)
2. Using the information (imitate) as a guide for our own behaviour
3. Reinforcement or punishment determines the behaviour



**Lesson-05****BEHAVIOURISM-II****Topic-019: Operant Conditioning**

B.F Skinner proposed the concept of ‘Operant Conditioning.’ He introduced the theory of *Verbal Behaviour* in 1957. According to this theory, a person’s behaviour gets reinforced through the mediation of other persons. Any change that occurs in one’s behaviour is a result of others’ reinforcement. Skinner identified following three types of responses that can follow behaviour:

1. Neutral Operant
2. Reinforcer
3. Punisher

Skinner emphasized that positive and/or negative reinforcement affects one’s behaviour. It leads to the development of a particular behaviour. The concept of punishment is closely linked to the negative reinforcement, and scheduling of reinforcement determines the modification in a behaviour.

**Topic-020: Mediation Theory**

The ‘Mediation Theory’ was introduced by Charles Osgood (1953, 1957). It claims that the linguistic stimulus (a word or sentence) elicits a ‘mediating’ response that is self-stimulating. Mediation process is viewed as covert and invisible, acting within the learner. This makes it a cognitive theory which rationalizes internal and external processes for developing behavioural association.

**Features of Mediation Theory**

1. Physical stimulus: reaction of a body (hear, see, touch or smell causes us to feel something)
2. Internal response: internalization
3. Internal stimulus: leads to internal stimulus – which is the thought in which you relate the stimulus to outward response
4. Outward response: visible or physical response that takes place due to the first response

The theory functions at three levels:

- *Sensational Level*: basic stimulus response reaction occurs
- *Perception Level*: input occurs relating it to the past experiences
- *Representational Level*: outward reaction, overt behavioural response to the word

**Topic-021: The Law Effect**

‘Law of Effect’ was introduced by Edward Thorndike (1898). It proposed that pleasant feedback leads to the repetition of a particular behaviour and unpleasant feedback ceases it. The theory views learning as a process of developing association between a certain situation and its resultant pleasant

outcome.

The theory proposed three laws of learning:

- Law of Readiness: willingness is considered crucial for learning
- Law of Exercise: (a) the law of use and (b) the law of disuse
- Law of Effect: pleasant outcomes strengthen connections and unpleasant ones weaken them.

Three laws were supplemented by five characteristics of learning:

1. Multiple or varied response
2. Set of behaviours or attitude
3. Partial activity or prepotency of elements
4. Assimilation
5. Associative shifting

**Lesson-06****GENERATIVISM-1****Topic-022: Nativism and LAD**

Chomsky's (1965) idea of innateness has been a hallmark of language learning mechanism. It attempts to explain the child's mastery of a native language in such a short time despite the highly abstract nature of the rules of language. He introduced language acquisition device (LAD) which, according to him, contains the innate knowledge, fundamental rules for language, similarity of language acquisition across humanity/cultures, and expected errors in children.

MacNeill (1966) supported appropriateness of LAD and justified its existence based on the following:

- The ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds in the environment
- The ability to organize linguistic data into various classes that can later be refined
- Knowledge that only a certain kind of linguistic system is possible
- The ability to engage in constant evaluation of the developing linguistic system to construct the simplest possible system out of the available linguistic input

**Topic-023: Chomsky's Criticism on Behaviourism**

Chomsky, in *A Review of B F Skinner's Verbal Behaviour* (1959), used language as a tool for critique of Skinner's behaviourism. According to Chomsky, learning is not possible only through repetition and reinforcement as advocated by Skinner. Chomsky believes that a child has the ability to use finite set of rules to construct infinite sentences, and s/he can create phrases which they have never heard before.

**Key Features of Chomsky's Criticism of Behaviourism**

- Not specifically a criticism of Skinner's speculations regarding language, but rather as a more general behaviourist critique of speculation regarding the nature of higher mental processes.
- Reason for discussing Skinner's book in such detail was that it was the most careful and thoroughgoing presentation of such speculations.

**Topic-024: Rene Descartes's Concept of Idea**

Rene Descartes, a French philosopher, mathematician and scientist, and father of modern philosophy, is known for his famous philosophical statement: *I think, therefore I am*. He emphasized thinking as the essence of one's existence. According to Descartes, thinking is a system that includes understanding, doubting, affirming, denying, perceiving, imagining, willing, refusing, and other acts of intellect. He introduced three types of ideas, namely: **innate ideas**, **adventitious ideas**, and **factitious ideas**. His concept of **idea** asserts that the knowledge or belief in God determines the truth and reality. His famous 'demon argument' strengthens his idea:

Question: What then is real?

Answer: Doubt proves that I am real.

### **Topic-025: Transcendental Idealism**

Immanuel Kant was a German philosopher who is considered a central figure in modern philosophy. He proposed theory of 'Transcendental Idealism' according to which human mind creates what an individual experiences, and the world in itself is independent of our individual perceptions. Key features of transcendental idealism include:

- Concepts without perceptions are empty
- Perceptions without concepts are blind
- It is true that all knowledge begins with experience
- It is not true that all knowledge arises from experience
- Phenomenal realm and Noumenal realm
- Categories of the understanding: causation/cause and effect
- Synthetic a priori truths

### **Topic-026: The Lenneberg Theory and Competence and Performance**

The concept of CPH was first proposed by Penfield and Roberts (1959) and later developed by Lenneberg (1967). The Lenneberg theory is known as Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). According to this theory, successful language acquisition occurs before puberty. It views the initial years of one's life as crucial for acquisition process. It emphasized L1 acquisition with two factors:

- learning takes place during childhood
- existence of neurological mechanism

The case study of Genie (1970), who was deprived of language input for 13 years, supported CPH theory.

**Competence:** It is native speaker's knowledge of his language, system of rules mastered, and the ability to understand and produce infinite number of sentences.

**Performance:** The concept is about 'the actual use of language in concrete situations' (Chomsky, 1965). Dell Hymes (1966) also supported Chomsky's concept of performance and further proposed:

1. Language is but one mode of communication.
2. It varies from situation to situation.
3. Language acquisition of such competency is subject to social needs.
4. A model of language must design it with a face toward communicative conduct and social life (Hymes).

**Lesson-07****GENERATIVISM-II****Topic-027: Dispelling Myths Critical Period Hypothesis**

Second language acquisition has a strong relevance in the understanding of critical period hypothesis as it highlights the age factor and the belief that children as L2 learners are ‘superior’ to adults (Scovel, 2000). LI acquisition takes place in childhood, whereas, SLA is both Childhood/adulthood specific. CPH has been dispelled as a myth to investigate first language acquisition and SLA. H. H. Stern (1970) gave the following arguments for better understanding:

- Practice, repeat, and practice in childhood as well as learning a foreign language (L1 and SLA)
- Language learning is mainly a matter of imitation (L1 and SLA)
- Practice the separate sounds, then words, then sentences (L1 and SLA)
- Understanding always precedes speaking (L1 and SLA)
- Natural learning order of four skills (L1 and SLA)
- Learning without translation (L1 and SLA)
- No explicit grammar teaching (L1 and SLA)

**Topic-028: Introduction to Universal Grammar**

UG is defined by Chomsky as ‘the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages.....the essence of human language (Chomsky, 1978).’ Universal Grammar is usually defined as the ‘system of categories, mechanisms, and constraints shared by all human languages, and is considered to be innate.’ These are generally thought to include formal universals (e.g. principles and parameters) as well as substantive universals (e.g. lexical categories and features).

The arguments in support of UG are primarily concerned with its universality, convergence, poverty of the stimulus, no negative evidence, child’s easy acquisition, uniformity, maturational effects, dissociation between language and cognition, and neurological separation. Chomsky’s UG attempts to explain what constitutes knowledge of language, how it is acquired, and put to use.

**Topic-029: Principles and Parameters**

**Principles and Parameters** are the key components of Universal Grammar. UG as the system of categories, mechanisms, and constraints shared by all humans is generally thought to include formal universals (e.g. principles and parameters) as well as substantive universals (e.g. lexical categories and features). The concept of Principles and Parameters explains that principles are universal, i.e. they apply to all human languages, and parameters vary from one language to another, i.e. the parameters of the language vary according to the language input that they receive from the environment.

Principles are structure dependent which means that knowledge of language relies on the structural relationship in the sentence such as words and morphemes rather than on the sequence of words. Parameters, as varied in nature, contain Pro-Drop Parameter (whether subject pronouns can be dropped in a language or not), Binary Parameter, Head–Initial Parameter, Head Final Parameter, and

Governing Parameters.

**Topic-030: UG Based Approaches to SLA**

The focus of UG is native language and the way it is acquired. This is why, UG is of significance in the field of linguistics. SLA's importance as a study dealing with learning a second language after a first language is already established. Researchers have tried to find out whether L2 learners have access to UG or not. Three models have been proposed:

1. The direct access model: looks into the availability of UG directly to the L2 learner.
2. The indirect access model: deals with availability of UG through L1 acquisition.
3. No-access model: Unavailability of UG to L2 learner.

The **Overall Model** was proposed by Felix (1985). It combined previous models (Competition Model, Ellis (1994) and Dual Model', Towell and Hawkins (1994) and claimed that L2 learners have partial access to UG.

**Lesson-08****COGNITIVISM-I****Topic-031: General Learning Theory and Principles**

Cognitivism replaced behaviourism in 1960s as the dominant paradigm. It is the study in psychology that focuses on mental processes including how people perceive, think, remember, learn, solve problems, and direct their attention to one stimulus rather than another. It enables psychologists to understand cognition based on cognitivist perspective. The theory refers to mental processes and also the involvement of sensation, perception, attention and encoding as important factors in cognitive processes. Mergel (1998) views cognitivism as the thought process behind the behaviour.

The following three theories belong to the paradigm of cognitivism:

1. Piaget's Cognitive Development (1896-1980): children actively construct their understanding of the world and go through stages of cognitive development.
2. Vygotsky's Socio Cultural Theory (1896-1934): is based on the developmental analysis, the role of language, and the social relation.
3. The Information Processing Approach: Green (2003) states that information processing approach involves three basic steps: encoding, storage, and retrieval.

**Topic-032: Language and Cognition-Cognitive Perceptual Processes**

The relationship between language and cognition is of one of the important fields of study for researchers. It is challenging for the researchers to determine the relationship which is unresolved due to the complexity of the role of language and cognition. Vygotsky believed that language is one of the most important psychological tools that effects children's cognitive development. Firstly, language is an essential factor for communication (social speech). Next, children begin to use egocentric or private speech to control their own thinking. Furthermore, understanding of cognitive perceptual processes enables the learners to analyze the mental processes involved in learning process.

**Key Concepts**

- Schema
- Three-Stage Information Processing Model: sensory register, short-term memory, long-term memory, and retrieval.
- Meaningful Effects: Meaningful information is easier to learn and remember (Cofer, 1971, in Good & Brophy, 1990).
- Serial Position Effects
- Practice Effects
- Transfer Effects
- Interference Effects
- Organization Effects
- Levels of Processing Effects

- State Dependent Effects
- Mnemonic Effects
- Advance Organizers

### **Topic-033: Strategies of Development**

There are specific processes by which young children grow and change in their abilities; this is referred to as the process of Cognitive Development. The process calls for specific strategies for the enhancement of cognitive skills which include senses and relationship, exploring objects, and interaction with adults; all of these skills contribute to cognitive development. Logical and reasoning skills also fall within the domain of cognitive development.

Robert Gagne (1916 – 2002), an educational psychologist, introduced nine levels of learning events, and is widely encouraged for language teachers to specifically design activities for developing the cognitive skills of their students:

1. Gain attention
2. Inform of objectives
3. Stimulate prior knowledge recall
4. Present stimulus
5. Provide learning guideline
6. Elicit performance
7. Provide feedback
8. Assess performance
9. Enhance retention and transfer



**Lesson-09****COGNITIVISM-II****Topic-034: Piagetian Stages of Development**

Jean Piaget (1896 – 1980) was a Swiss clinical psychologist, known for his pioneering work in child development. Piaget says, “Only education is capable of saving our societies from possible collapse, whether violent, or gradual.” He contributed immensely in child education.

**Three Basic Components of Piaget’s Cognitive Theory**

1. Schema: the basic building block of intelligent behaviour – a way of organizing knowledge.
2. Adaptation processes
  - Assimilation: using an existing schema to deal with a new object or situation.
  - Accommodation: existing schema needs to be changed to deal with a new object or situation.
  - Equilibrium: Equilibrium occurs when a child's schemas deals with new information in Schema.
3. Stages of cognitive development

Jean Piaget introduced the **Stages of Cognitive Development:**

- Sensorimotor (birth to age 2), object permanence
- Preoperational (from age 2 to age 7), thinking symbolically
- Concrete operational (from age 7 to age 11), operational thoughts
- Formal operational (age 11+ -adolescence and adulthood), ability to think about abstract concepts

**Topic-035: Multi-Store Model (Richard Shiffrin) on Cognitivism**

The Atkinson-Shiffrin model is a theory of human memory that was proposed by Richard Atkinson and Richard Shiffrin (1968) and explains how our senses experience different things in terms of sight, hearing, touch, feeling, and taste, but only a fraction of this is remembered. The model of Atkinson-Shiffrin proposed that the human memory could be broken down into three different memory stores:

**Sensory Memory**

- Duration: ¼ to ½ second
- Capacity: all sensory experience
- Encoding: sense specific (e.g. different stores for each sense)

**Short Term Memory**

1. Duration: 0-18 seconds
2. Capacity: 7 +/-2 items
3. Encoding: mainly auditory

## Long Term Memory

1. Duration: unlimited
2. Capacity: unlimited
3. Encoding: mainly semantic (but can be visual and auditory)

## Criticism Faced by Multi-Store Model

The Model received the following criticism:

- The sensory stores are sensory systems, not memory systems as most people think of the term 'memory'.
- The model's claim, that there is nothing in between short-term and long-term memory is refuted by the evidence that information can reside somewhere between the extremes of active attention and long-term storage.
- As opposed to the claim that there is just one short-term system and just one long-term system, the critics believe that in reality, there are many memory systems operating in parallel (for example, different systems for vision, language, and odor memory). Each has short-term and long-term operations.
- The Atkinson-Shiffrin model does not give enough emphasis to unconscious processes.

## Topic-036: The Competition Model and the Associative-Cognitive CREED Theory (Ellis,2002)

The Competition Model is a psycholinguistic theory of language acquisition and sentence processing developed by Elizabeth Bates and Brian MacWhinney which describes language development in formal and informal settings. It also looks into the role of cognitive mechanisms that occur in the learner's brain while processing language. MacWhinney (2002) considers the input, the learner, and the context as the three main components in the language learning process. Lexical Functionalism, Connectionism, Input-Driven Learning, and Capacity are the dominant features of the model.

The Associative-Cognitive CREED Theory in SLA was introduced by Nick Ellis which claims that language is learned in the same way as any other human skill. This theory is based on both the behavioural (associations) and cognitivist (cognitive) traditions.

## Key Principles of Associative-Cognitive CREED Theory

- Construction Grammar
- Rational Language Processing
- Exemplar-Based Abstraction and Attraction
- Emergent Relations and Patterns
- Dialectic

**Topic-037: Rumelhart and McClelland on Connectionism**

Connectionism is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of cognition that integrates elements from Artificial Intelligence, Neuroscience, Cognitive Psychology, and Philosophy of Mind. As a theoretical movement in cognitive science, Connectionism suggests that cognitive phenomena can be explained with respect to a set of general information-processing principles, known as Parallel Distributed Processing (Rumelhart, Hinton, McClelland, 1986). PDP models are neutrally inspired information processing models to explain the ways of information processing which actually takes place in the brain. Connectionist systems are also sometimes referred to as ‘neural networks.’

**Basic Components**

- A set of processing units
- A set of modifiable connections between units
- A learning procedure (optional)

Connectionist models, cover a wide range of domains, are related to language processing and cognitive control. Rumelhart, Hinton, and McClelland (1986) state that there are 8 major components of the PDP model framework: 1) a set of processing units, 2) a state of activation, 3) an output function for each unit, 4) a pattern of connectivity among units, 5) a propagation rule for propagating patterns of activities through the network of connectivities, 6) an activation rule for combining the inputs impinging on a unit with the current state of that unit to produce a new level of activation for the unit, 7) a learning rule whereby patterns of connectivity are modified by experience, and 8) an environment within which the system must operate.

**Topic-038: Newell and Simon’s Theory of Information Processing**

Newell and Simon (1972) proposed Information Processing System for problem solving. It looks into how problem solving takes place in a problem space i.e., by considering one knowledge state after another until a desired knowledge state is reached. The search may involve backup (return to old knowledge states). The concept refers to the analysis of problem solving from an information processing perspective.

**Newell and Simon’s Analysis**

- Identifying the problem space
- Identifying some of the intermediate states between the initial and goal state
- Identifying what needs to be done; the ‘moves,’ which enable the problem solver to get from one state to another
- Identifying the resources, e.g., knowledge, skills, materiel, personnel, and time, needed to execute each of the moves.

**Information Processing Systems**

- An analysis follows what happens from the beginning of a task, such as being given a problem to solve to the end with the problem solved
- Receptors – senses
- Processors – transform, interpret, integrate, select--attention, set, automatic, and controlled processes
- Memories – long term, short term, working
- Effectors – muscles, glands

## Lesson-10

**CONSTRUCTIVISM-I****Topic-039: Constructivism: General Learning Theory**

Constructivism Theory is based on observation (learning philosophy) and scientific study about how people learn (teaching philosophy). The assertion is that the experiences enable people to construct the knowledge of the world around them.

**Key Features of Constructivism**

- Learner-centered
- Environment awareness

According to Jonassen and Land (2002), context, construction and collaboration are the basis of the constructivist learning.

Constructivism has two branches, **Cognitive Constructivism** and **Social Constructivism**, and emphasizes learner differences, integration of linguistic, psychological, and sociological paradigms. It is not without criticism as critics believe that it advocates tyranny of majority and lacks evaluation process.

**Topic-040: Principles of Constructivism****Key Principles**

- Learning must be started with the issues around which learners are actively trying to construct meaning.
- The learning process focuses on primary concepts, not isolated facts.
- Construction of the knowledge, and not the memorization, is encouraged.
- Learners must be provided with information on the quality of their learning.

Vygotsky has been the key figure who supported Constructivism and introduced his famous theory of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which explained the distance between learners' existing developmental state and their potential development.

**Topic-041: John Dewey's Notion of Experiential Education**

John Dewey, father of experiential education (1930) has been generally recognized as the most renowned and influential American philosopher of education. He propagated that students' actual life experiences play important role in developing the overall understanding of the world, and traditional educational approach is primarily concerned with only imparting knowledge. John Dewey's notion of experiential education proposed:

- Acknowledging individual differences
- Serves a social purpose

- Supports progressive education
- Theory of Experience

In addition to the notion's main features, continuity and interaction are two cornerstones of the experiential education as claimed by John Dewey. Experience and reflective thinking also contributes in the experiential education with emphasis on 'continual reorganization, reconstruction and transformation of experience' determining effective experience, reflective thinking, learner as explorer, and the perception of relationships in problematical situations, democracy, and education.

**Topic-042: Fredrick's Schematic Account of Memory Demonstrate [Remembering]**

Sir Frederick Bartlett proposed the theory of 'Reconstructive Memory and Schema.' He started off with publishing *Remembering* in 1932, in which he gave an account of his experiments he conducted by following casual data collection methods and recording their anecdotes. Bartlett believed that cognition—perceiving, remembering, and thinking—involves schema. Assimilation and accommodation also contribute in the thinking processes. Repeated reproduction and serial reproduction are the two methods suggested by Bartlett with regard to remembering. His idea of schemas was revisited by Elizabeth Loftus (psychologist), and she claimed when we reconstruct memories, we change them by incorporating new information which we learn after the incident. Later on, the original part of the memory can neither be determined nor retrieved. She also asserted that eyewitnesses are unreliable.

## Lesson-11

**CONSTRUCTIVISM-II****Topic-043: Jean Piaget and Constructivism**

Researchers have been trying to analyze the theory of constructivism in the light of Jean Piaget's contributions, and believe that Piaget's concept of cognitive constructivism refers to a cognitive stage where one's understanding of any new experience is influenced by his/her existing knowledge of a particular experience. The theory relies greatly on schemes, processes of assimilation, and accommodation. It asserts that knowledge is constructed through learner's participation and not just transmitted. According to Piaget, "What remains is construction as such, and one sees no ground why it should be unreasonable to think it is ultimate nature of reality to be in continual construction instead of consisting of an accumulation of ready-made structures" (Piaget, 1970, pp. 57-58).

**Topic-044: Piaget's Key Concepts of Adaptation and Disequilibrium**

Piaget emphasized the stages of intellectual development as foundation of acquisition of cognitive content. According to Piaget, reasoning and logic are the essence of intelligence. He proposed the concept of equilibrium based on adaptation which can be achieved by maintaining a balance between assimilation and accommodation.

The following four key elements that lead to disequilibrium were proposed by Piaget:

- **Emotions** which create feelings that excite and motivate learning
- **Experience** which exposes children to a variety of stimuli
- **Natural maturation** that enables learning through physical growth of mental structures
- **Social interaction** with parents, other children, and eventually teachers which enables both stimulation and feedback

**Topic-045: Bruner's Idea of Scaffolding and Discovery Learning**

Influenced by Vygotsky's theory of social constructivism, Jerome S. Bruner, psychologist of the twentieth century, proposed Theory of Scaffolding in 1976. The theory is considered to be an influential contribution in the field of education because it proposed scaffolding as vital for all types of learning. It enables a learner to overcome fears and focus on acquiring knowledge.

According to Bruner, the goal of education should be directed to *learning to learn*; therefore, teachers should design curriculum which facilitate rote learning, problem-solving, and learning through discovery. He introduced Discovery Learning Theory (1961) with the following three stages known as stages of 'Representation':

- **Enactive:** representation of knowledge through actions
- **Iconic:** the visual summarization of images
- **Symbolic representation:** the use of words and other symbols to describe experiences

**Topic-046: Bruner on Teaching Influencing Learning**

Jerome Bruner made major contributions in the field of education. He emphasized the concepts of involving learners in the cognitive as well as the constructive processes for meaningful learning. Moreover, learners should be provided with the appropriate assistance where needed. In his interview, Bruner explains that a learner must be encouraged to 'learn to make a leap,' and explore 'possibility.' Instead of being a passive receiver, a learner must learn to question, as intelligence exists in the world of possibilities. Some of his contributions include:

- The modes of representation
- The importance of teaching and learning 'optimal structure,'
- The spiral curriculum,
- Learning through the acts of discovery



## Lesson-12

**CONSTRUCTIVISM-III****Topic-047: Bandura's Socio-Cognitive Model of Human Behaviour [Self-Efficacy]**

Albert Bandura introduced Social Cognitive Theory which proposed the integration of behaviours, cognitions, and the environment for interaction. The theory advocates that people are not merely concerned with responding or behaving in a specific manner but also seek explanation for information around them. This is what he called a process of self-organizing, self-regulating and self-reflecting. Bandura (1995) proposed the concept of self-efficacy which according to him 'refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations.' He suggested three scales to measure self-efficacy:

- Self-efficacy magnitude
- Self-efficacy strength
- Generality of self-efficacy

**Topic-048: Understanding Self-Efficacy**

Bandura's Self-efficacy theory enables learners to develop the understanding of one's capabilities and the factors responsible for it. It explains that high self-efficacy motivates learners to undertake a specific task whereas low efficacy demotivates learners.

Parents, peers, and in fact the overall supportive environment can play a positive role in enhancing high self-efficacy.

The concept of self-efficacy has been explained in the below mentioned video link:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HnACsrdGZAI>

**Topic-049: David Ausubel's Subsumption Theory**

David Ausubel (an American Psychologist) proposed Subsumption Theory for the understanding of learning's subsumption process. In this process, new information is related to the existing one in the cognition. It consists of meaningful reception of information, four processes for meaningful learning, and advance organizers.

**The Four Key Principles of Subsumption Theory**

1. Learners should be presented with the most general concepts first, and then their analysis.
2. The instructional materials should include new, as well as previously acquired information. Comparisons between new and old concepts are crucial.
3. Existing cognitive structures should not be developed, but merely reorganized within the learners' memory.
4. The role of the instructor is to bridge the gap between what's already known and what is about to be learned.

**Topic-050: Metacognition and Script Theory**

According to an American developmental psychologist John Flavellan (1979, 1987), metacognition consists of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experiences or regulation. Metacognition takes into account; thinking of higher order by involving processes of learning task, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress of task completion.

Roger Schank and Robert P. Abelson introduced *The Script Theory*, according to which events are understood in terms of scripts, plans and other knowledge structures as well as relevant previous experiences. He proposed the idea of Conceptual Dependency (CD) which is the collection of symbols that are used to represent knowledge. CD model has been widely used for natural language input for computers and different computer programs.

**Lesson-13****KRASHEN'S INPUT HYPOTHESIS (MONITOR MODEL)-I****Topic-051: General Theory – Five Hypotheses and Factors**

Stephen Krashen, a linguist and professor emeritus at University of Southern California, is known for his theories of language acquisition and development. He introduced his famous second language acquisition theory which has been considered as one of the most influential theories in the fields of second language research and teaching since the 1980s. Krashen explained his hypothesis as:

- ‘Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language, natural communication, in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages, they are conveying and understanding.’
- ‘Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drill.’
- ‘Comprehensible input’ is the crucial and necessary ingredient for the acquisition of language. The best methods are therefore those that supply ‘comprehensible input’ in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but allow students to produce when they are ‘ready,’ recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing, and correcting production.’

Krashen proposed the idea of comprehensible input, that learners acquire a knowledge which is easy to comprehend and is slightly advanced than the existing level of understanding. The focus of the hypothesis is on the acquisition and not the learning.

The **internal factors** of the hypothesis are: Age, Personality, Motivation (intrinsic), Experience, Cognition, and Native Language. The **external factors** include: Culture and status, Motivation (extrinsic), Access to native Speaker, Curriculum and Instructions.

**Topic-052: The Natural Approach and SLA**

The concept of Natural Approach was developed by one of Krashen's associates, Tracy Terrell. Ironically the term ‘natural’ here implies that there can be unnatural methods of learning a language which according to Krashen and Terrell are grammar and audio-lingual (listen-and-drill activities in classroom) methods. Since it is a natural process, it is considered to be effortless where learning takes place with ease. The teachers are expected to provide learners with comprehensible input and stimulating activities for the meaningful learning. The environment should also be facilitating by not forcing a learner to act during the silent period (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

## Lesson-14

**KRASHEN'S INPUT HYPOTHESIS (MONITOR MODEL)-II****Topic-053: Acquisition vs. Learning Hypothesis**

Krashen was the first one to establish the distinction between acquisition and learning. According to the distinction, the 'acquired system,' or 'acquisition' is the product of a subconscious process and the 'learned system,' or 'learning' is the product of formal instruction.

*Language acquisition* refers to subconscious learning and involves intuition. *Language learning* focuses on the language in its written form, and its objective is to understand the structure and rules of the language. The form is of greater importance than communication.

The distinction attracted criticism by different researchers. McLaughlin (1987, p. 56) argued that Krashen's term lacked precision and is not clear. However, Gregg (1984) believed that some rules can be acquired through learning.

**Topic-054: The Natural Order Hypothesis and the Input Hypothesis**

The natural order hypothesis refers to the notion that there is a natural order of acquisition process. The grammatical structure follows a set sequence which is predictable. The order of acquisition in the first language is often different from the second languages. It argues that explicit instructions for learning and the learning process itself cannot change the natural order.

Krashen's theory of Input Hypothesis advocates that the acquisition of second language is highly dependent on the learner's comprehension of the input. He suggested the following techniques for comprehensible input:

- Use expression and body language
- Provide thinking time
- Pauses between phrases
- Shorter sentences
- Stress high frequency words
- Repeat/review vocabulary
- Repeat/restate for understanding
- Be supportive

**Lesson-15****KRASHEN'S INPUT HYPOTHESIS (MONITOR MODEL)-III****Topic-055: The Monitor Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis**

Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis claims that the conscious language-learning monitors the output. According to the hypothesis, learning acts as an editor or monitor in the process of language production by applying the rules consciously and minimizing the errors.

Monitor hypothesis is also divided into three types of ways to use it.

- Monitor over-users
- Monitor under-users
- The optimal monitor users

Conditions to apply to the monitor hypothesis:

- Time
- Focus on form
- Knowledge of rule

According to affective filter hypothesis, a 'filter' can affect how well we acquire comprehensible input. 'Filter' can be:

- Motivation
- Attitude
- Self-confidence
- Anxiety

The concept of comprehensible input and affective filter hypothesis is explained by Stephen Krashen himself in the below mentioned video link:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JAK5dKWKdSQ>

**Topic-056: Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Criticism**

Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach paved the way for the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. CLT was formed on the basis of the Input hypothesis and the communicative competence; and has been widely used in the language classroom since 1980s. It focuses on the functional aspect of the language which is communication. Dell Hymes supported CLT by proposing that for effective development of communicative competence, learners should be exposed to real-life situations.

Communicative Competence is defined as the ability to interpret and enact appropriate social behaviours, and it requires the active involvement of the learner in the production of the target language

(Canale and Swain 1980; Celce-Murcia et al. 1995; Hymes 1972).

### **Criticism**

According to Stern (1992), CLT has become more successful in ESL (English as a second language) settings, but failed to show successful results in EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts. Some CLT proponents, e.g. Littlewood even proposed to treat it as an umbrella term which the opponents of CLT considered the renaming of the existing old approaches and nothing new or revolutionary. CLT focuses more on developing fluency while accuracy is neglected. It does overburden teachers as it demands developing of functional syllabus for effective classroom activities.

## Lesson-16

**SOCIO-CULTURAL THEORY****Topic-057: Vygotsky and M.A.K. Halliday**

The Socio-cultural theory is a psychological and sociological theory developed by Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist, in 1934. The theory claims that society and culture play an important role in developing one's personality. It asserts that society supports and acts as a device for intellectual adaptation of innateness, a child is born with.

**Socio-cultural Theory**

Vygotsky believed that learning takes place at two levels:

- through interaction with others
- integrated into the individual's mental structure

The famous concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) introduced by Vygotsky forms the basis of socio-cultural theory according to which a learner is provided with the social interaction as assistance in the zone to support learning.

M.A.K. Halliday, a British linguist, developed the concept of Systemic Functional linguistics in 1960. It claims that language is a resource for making meaning. The systemic functional linguistics is based on three levels; namely, meaning (semantics), sound (phonology), and wording or *lexico-grammar* (syntax, morphology, and lexis). Halliday (1978) also introduced the *ideational*, *interpersonal*, and *textual* as basis for language metafunctions.

**Characteristics of Systemic Functional Linguistics**

- Language use is functional.
- Its function is to make meanings.
- These meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged.
- The process of using language is a semiotic in nature, i.e., a process of making meaning by choosing.

**Topic-058: Acculturation Model and Steps in Acculturation**

Acculturation Model was introduced by John Schumann, an American linguist (1986), who claimed that the extent of contact between L2 and L2 speaker affects the success of SLA. Social and psychological factors are key components of acculturation process. According to Brown (1980), the stages of acculturation in the target language are Euphoria, Culture-shock, Cultural stress, Gradual recovery, and Full-recovery. Language shock, culture shock, culture stress, motivation, and ego permeability are the factors that are responsible for creating psychological distance as claimed by Ushioda (1993).

Domination of high culture causing low self-esteem among L2 learners and lack of explanation about the internal processes of SLA are the major points of the criticism of Acculturation Model.

### **Topic-059: Situated Learning and Language Socialization**

Inspired by the works of Vygotsky and Dewey, Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger introduced the theory of Situated Learning as an instructional approach in the early 1990s. The theory laid down great emphasis on the learning as a social process and encouraged to maximize social interaction for the purpose of meaningful learning. They proposed Legitimate Peripheral Participation, Peripherality, Full Participation, and Community of Practice as key factors of Situated Learning theory.

Elinor Ochs and Bambi Schieffelin proposed that language acquisition and culture acquisition were interdependent and that the interaction of the two processes needed to be studied toward the better understanding of both. This makes socialization a process 'into and through' language and discourse. Practices and communicative competence in addition to face-to-face and cultural historical approach are considered the theoretical foundations of language socialization.



## Lesson-17

**BASIC LANGUAGE COGNITION (BLC) VS. HIGHER LANGUAGE COGNITION (HLC)****Topic-060: Basic Language Cognition**

BLC Theory was proposed by Hulstijn in 2015. The bases of the theory are the understanding of individual differences in monolingual and bilingual people and the matters of L2 proficiency assessment. Hulstijn believes that **cognition** is a term that refers to neural network which consists of the representation and use of information for both knowledge and skills; whereas, 'Basic' is concerned with what native speakers have common related to language cognition. The term 'Higher' is used here as an extended language cognition. The core linguistic cognition includes: phonetic-phonological, morphonological, morpho-syntactic, and lexical domains of linguistic knowledge. It also looks into how to use language forms as appropriate to the communicative situation. BLC focuses more on reading and writing rather speech reception and speech production.

In the words of Hulstijn (2015):

'BLC pertains to: 1) the largely implicit, unconscious knowledge in the domains of phonetics, prosody, phonology, morphology, and syntax, 2) the largely explicit, conscious knowledge in the lexical domain (form-meaning mappings), in combination with, 3) the automaticity with which these types of knowledges can be processed.'

**Topic-061: Native Speaker Construct**

According to the definition, Native Speaker is the one who acquires the language as a young child and maintains it into adulthood. In linguistic terms, a native speaker is someone who has acquired BLC and who may have acquired some or many features of HLC. The term native speaker differs in the contexts of HLC and BLC. In HLC, factors such as age, intelligence, knowledge, education, professional career, and leisure time activities determine the variance in individual attributes.

The development of language proficiency, for L1 and L2 learner is a gradual process in both the acquisition of BLC and the acquisition of HLC except for the issues of L2 acquisition and bilingualism which are concerned with age factor. The empirical aspect of proficiency varies from society to society and individual to individual.

Hulstijn proposed the following **corollaries**:

- **C1.** All adult L1 learners (not suffering from cognitive impairments), regardless of differences in age and intellectual functioning, are able to comprehend and produce, both correctly and quickly, isolated utterances consisting of high-frequency lexical phrases and high-frequency morpho-syntactic structures.
- **C2.** Individual differences among adult L1 learners will be relatively large in tasks involving HLC discourse, in all four modes of language use (reading, writing, listening and speaking), but all adult L1 learners will perform excellent in BLC tasks, i.e., conceptually simple oral tasks

(listening and speaking), involving highly frequent linguistic units.

- **C3.** Continued language use modulates the decline in processing speed in old age, while the continued use of written language is modulated by level of education, type of occupation, and interests.
- **C4.** Early bilinguals can attain native-speaker proficiency in more than one language as long as they minimally acquire BLC in each language.
- **C5.** BLC, while being attainable by late L2 learners in the domains of vocabulary and many or even most grammatical structures, will generally not be attainable in the domains of pronunciation.

### **Topic-062: Differences Among Language Learners**

Hulstijn explained that cognitive abilities and environmental factors can be viewed as distinguishing elements of language learners in HLC. Wells (1986) claimed the following factors producing variability in L1 development: 1) social background, 2) personal attributes such as gender, intelligence, personality, and learning style, 3) situation (setting, activity, number and status of participants), and 4) style of interaction (interpersonal relations, child-rearing methods). Berman (2007) and Nippold (2006) found 'large increases in vocabulary (including metaphors, idioms and proverbs) and development at a more modest pace in syntax, pragmatics, and narrative skills during the years of primary and secondary education.'

While looking at the outcome of SLA, it has been observed by the researchers that not all L2 learners acquire the language successfully. Some of the minor differences may be due to the motivation and exposure to the target language and the major differences may be due to the quality and the quantity of the input.

## Lesson-18

**GENERATIVE VS. USAGE BASED SCHOOL****Topic-063: Generative School**

The Generative School of thought derived its concepts from the Generative Grammar theory of Chomsky. It focuses on the study of syntax, but does include semantics, phonology, and morphology. Generative Grammar theory provides the set of rules that can accurately predict which combinations of words make grammatically correct sentences. Transformational-Generative Grammar was driven from Generative Grammar as a process of language creativity, whereby, a learner can transform rules from one structure.

In TG theory, phrase structure rules explain, mathematically, our knowledge to assemble the basic units of a sentence.

$$S \rightarrow NP + VP$$

In the above formula, 'a sentence consists of a noun phrase followed by a verb phrase'. TG has set forth, two levels of syntactic structure: *deep structure* (an abstract underlying structure of a sentence) and *surface structure* (outward form of a sentence).

**Topic-064: Usage-Based School**

The usage-based theory of language acquisition claims that language structure emerges from its use. Tomasello (2003) proposed the theory with emphasis on the usage of the language based on the cognitive skills. Lieven and Tomasello, (2008, p. 168) believe that 'the child learns language from actual 'usage events', i.e., from particular utterances in particular contexts, and builds up increasingly complex and abstract representations from these.' Two key components of usage based approach are: **meaning in use** which refers to the semantic aspect of linguistic communication and **structure emerges from use** which considers the grammatical aspect of linguistic communication.

Intention-reading and pattern-finding are two sets of cognitive skills proposed by Tomasello that reinforce usage-based theory. Tomasello (2003) describes:

'Intention-reading' is what children must do to determine the goals or intentions of mature speakers when they use linguistic conventions to achieve social ends, and thereby to learn these conventions from them culturally in accordance with the functional approach mentioned above. 'Pattern-finding' is what children must do in order to extract abstract linguistic schemas or constructions from the individual utterances in accordance with the grammatical approach mentioned above. Therefore, this theory has two main dimensions: functional and grammatical.

Key features of Usage-Based theory include:

- Pre-linguistic communication
- Utterances and words
- Schemas and constructions
- Schematization
- Analogy

**Topic-065: Generative vs. Usage-Based School Explanation**

For a better understanding of differentiation between generative and usage-based schools of thoughts, it is important to analyze their specific characteristics. Generativists derive their concepts from the assumption that it was impossible for a child to acquire the rules of their grammar through Behaviourism. The usage-based stance is closer to that of Cognitive Linguistics and Construction Grammar where the fundamental linguistic unit is the construction.

The differences between innate UG and usage-based accounts of L1 and L2 acquisition can be summarized as follows:

- At the level of brain, UG approach assumes that linguistic representation is localized in a language-specific module with its own rules of processing. In contrast, usage-based approach assumes ‘plasticity’ to a great extent. Linguistic representation in brain can change in the course of L1 as well as L2 acquisition and development.
- Children are creative and productive to start with innate UG. However, in usage-based approach, children are conservative and unproductive to start with and only gradually become productive by induction through experience.
- In UG approach, the role of input is underdetermined because of ‘poverty of the stimulus’ with lack of negative evidence (ungrammatical sentences). In usage-based approach, all linguistic structures emerge from generalization of the input through induction.
- In UG approach, innate core grammar needs mechanism such as maturation, triggering, and linking rules to activate it. In contrast, the usage-based approach requires children to figure out linguistic system by adaptive social-communicative behaviours.

**Lesson-19****COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE****Topic-066: Reviewing L2 Proficiency Models**

Proficiency has been defined by a number of researchers as Higgs (1984, p. 12, as cited in Kramsch, 1987, p. 356) defined proficiency as ‘the ability to function effectively in the language in real-life contexts,’ whereas Thomas (1994, p. 330) considered proficiency to correspond to ‘a person’s overall competence and ability to perform in L2.’

‘language proficiency is the extent to which an individual possesses the linguistic cognition necessary to function in a given communicative situation, in a given modality (listening, speaking, reading, or writing)’ (Hulstijn, 2011, p. 242). Communicative Competence refers to having the mastery over language rules and the ability to use them appropriately in a specific context.

Researchers have been viewing L2 Proficiency Models in multiple ways. Lado’s (1961, pp. 25 – 29) model of language proficiency focuses on the intersections between four language ‘elements’ (pronunciation, grammatical structure, lexicon and cultural meaning) and four language ‘skills’ (listening, speaking reading and writing). Carroll (1961) argued that L2 competence included both knowledge of the language system and facility in its use. Hymes’ (1972) introduced model of communicative competence in response to Chomsky’s model of linguistic competence and emphasized the pragmatic aspects of language use.

Canale and Swain (1980) attempted a typology; communicative L2 competence involves grammatical and sociolinguistic competence as well as strategic competence (‘the compensatory communication strategies to be used when there is a breakdown in one of the other competencies’).

Proficiency Assessment is concerned with the general versus specific performances or knowledge. The types include:

- Discrete-point versus integrative assessment
- Direct versus indirect assessment
- Objective versus subjective assessment
- Group testing versus individual assessment

**Topic-067: Dell Hymes’ Communicative Competence**

Dell Hymes (1972) defined communicative competence as the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations based on grammatical competence. It is opposed to Chomsky’s concept of competence which is linguistic specific and ignores communicative aspect. Hymes’ communicative competence comes as a reaction to Chomsky’s idea of competence. Hymes claims, “In speaking of competence, it is especially important not to separate cognitive from affective and volitive factors, so far as the impact of the theory on educational practice is concerned.”

**Topic-068: Bachman Communicative Language Ability (CLA)**

Bachman (1990), one of the leading theorists in the field of language testing, proposed Communicative Language Ability which attempted to distinguish between ‘knowledge’ and ‘skills’. CLA is concerned with the knowledge and capacity to use it appropriately in a given context. Bachman classifies the component called ‘Language Competence’ in two divisions:

1. Organizational Competence
  - Grammatical Competence
  - Textual Competence
2. Pragmatic Competence
  - Illocutionary Competence
  - Sociolinguistics Competence
  - Communicative Competence

Strategic Competence is another aspect of Language Competence proposed by Bachman with the following three components:

- Assessment component
- Planning component
- Execution component (Bachman, 1990, pp. 84-108)

### **Topic-069: Types of Competencies**

Developing communicative competencies require specific skills. These consist of the following:

- Linguistic Competence
- Strategic Competence
- Sociolinguistic Competence
- Discourse Competence

Five characteristics of communicative competence proposed by Savignon (1983, pp. 8-9) are:

- Dynamic nature of communicative competence.
- Communicative competence applies to both written and spoken language, as well as too many other symbolic systems.
- Communicative competence is context specific.
- Competence is what one knows. Performance is what one does.
- Communicative competence is relative, not absolute.

John Munby’s (1978, pp. 22-27) approach to Communicative Competence has the following points:

- Competence and Community
- Contextual Appropriacy
- Communication Needs

## Lesson-20

**MODELS OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE****Topic-070: Canale and Swain's Model of Communicative Competence**

The initial Canale and Swain's model of Communicative Competence was developed in 1980, following Hymes work, it proposed three components:

- Grammatical Competence
- Sociolinguistic Competence
- Strategic Competence

It was later on revised by Canale with division of sociolinguistic competence into two separate components:

- 1) Sociolinguistic Competence (appropriateness of register, vocabulary and politeness norms)
- 2) Discourse Competence (cohesion and coherence)

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1995) proposed the communicative competence model as the representation of the previous models with the assertion that: 'Discourse thus is the component in which (or through which) all the other competencies must be studied and ultimately assessed—if one is concerned with communicative competence, which is not a hierarchical system of discrete competencies or abilities but a dynamic, interactive construct' (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p.145).

**Topic-071: Bachman and Palmer Model of Language Proficiency**

Lyle Bachman's (1990) Communicative Language Ability (CLA) is concerned with the understanding of the language and its appropriate use in a given situation based on Organizational Competence and Pragmatic Competence. In the revised model of Bachman and Palmer, nomenclature was changed from the term competence to knowledge and strategic competence being proposed as a set of metacognitive strategies.

**Topic-072: Celce-Murcia Models of Communicative Competence**

Celce-Murcia et al. (1995, p. 4) criticized Bachman's model of CLA and advocated that a model to deal with CLT was needed. Bachman's CLA model was primarily concerned with language testing and lacked content based syllabus. Bachman and Palmer focused on set of skills for overcoming communication problems or deficiencies. However, Celce-Murcia's revised model of communicative competence proposed six types of competencies:

1. Socio-culture competence
2. Discourse competence
3. Interactional competence
4. Linguistics competence
5. Formulaic competence

## 6. Strategic competence

### **Topic-073: Kramersch and Whiteside's Symbolic Competence**

Kramersch and Whiteside (2008) defined Symbolic Competence as the ability to position oneself as a multilingual subject, to understand the cultural memories evoked by symbolic systems, to perform and create alternative realities, and to reframe and shape the multilingual game in which one invests. Kramersch believes that there are three dimensions of language as symbolic system, namely, symbolic representation, symbolic action, and symbolic power. Discourse plays important role in the interpretation of symbolic competence as it refers to language use beyond the sentence level. Relationship between language and contexts contribute in the understanding of symbolic competence. It is believed that 'Symbolic Competence is also engaged in the symbolic power game of challenging established meanings and redefining the real.'

The concept of symbolic competence is explained by Kramersch and Whiteside in the below given video link:

<http://blc.berkeley.edu/2015/08/19/lectures-by-c-kramersch-a-whiteside-november-20-2015/>



## Lesson-21

**CUP, BICS, AND CALP****Topic-074: Cummins and Swain Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP)**

(CUP) model was introduced by Cummins and Swain (1986) as common underlying proficiency model. According to Cummins and Swain, people who are learning second language follows a framework of language structures and functions driven from a person's knowledge of one language to help him or her learn the second or additional language known as CUP.

The CUP model is represented with the 'dual iceberg metaphor' and is the basis of the hypothesis called the 'Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis' according to which the first language has a relationship with other languages which is different from the surface but interdependent internally. The relationship is based on Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) vs. Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP). 'Additive bilingualism' and 'subtractive bilingualism' were also proposed by the model for determining the proficiency.

**Topic-075: Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS)**

According to Cummins, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) are considered to be not very demanding as they are the language skills needed in social situations. Being engaged in day-to-day language process, these skills require social interaction which is usually context driven. According to Baker (2006), 'BICS is said to occur when there are contextual supports and props for language delivery. Face-to-face 'context embedded' situations provide, for example, non-verbal support to secure understanding. Actions with eyes and hands, instant feedback, cues, and clues support verbal language.'

Some of the examples of BICS are:

- Observing speakers' non-verbal behaviour (gestures, facial expressions and eye actions)
- Observing others' reactions
- Using voice cues such as phrasing, intonations, and stress
- Observing pictures, concrete objects, and other contextual cues

BICS are primarily concerned with conversational fluency (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) in the second language; whereas, CALP relates to the use of language in decontextualized academic situations (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency).

**Topic-076: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)**

Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) is a term proposed by Jim Cummins which refers to the stage of learning that learners go through after they have mastered social language communication skills. It is the stage where the development of academic language proficiency takes place in context reduced academic situations. 'Where language is *disembedded* the situation is often referred to as *context reduced*' (Baker, 2006, p. 174). In CALP, development of academic language is often abstract,

and non-verbal clues are absent. One's cultural/linguistic knowledge is often required for complete comprehension. Cummins argues that 'teachers are unaware of the need for explicit teaching of academic language.'

### **Topic-077: Comparison of BICS and CALP**

The comparison between BICS and CALP has been drawn based on the suggested activities.

#### **CALP: Suggested Activities**

- Writing story innovations
- Holding book reviews
- Enacting plays
- Discussing what you have read
- Collecting words
- Conducting debates
- Selecting role-plays
- Presenting thematic viewpoints (Chandy, 2012)

#### **BICS: Suggested Activities**

BICS is about the language skills that students need to get through the day in face-to-face situations (Chandy, 2012).

- Visuals: pictures, books and magazines with pictures, photos, objects, maps, charts, graphic organizers, drawings, role-playing, games, etc.
- Simplified language and texts, translations, summaries of texts by peers
- Gestures, pantomimes, experiences, demonstrations, hands-on activities
- Samples, exemplars, models

## Lesson-22

**SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING RESEARCH AND LANGUAGE EDUCATION****Topic-078: Goal of Language Learning Research**

Goal of language learning research has been a matter of deliberations among researchers for a long time. Long (2005) discourages the concept of language for no purpose and advocates language for specific purposes. According to him, 'General (language for no purpose) courses at any proficiency level almost always teach too much, e.g., vocabulary, skills, registers or styles, some learners do not need, and too little, e.g., omitting lexis and genres that they do. Instead of a one-size-fits-all approach, it is more defensible to view every course as involving specific purposes. . . .' (Long, 2005, p. 19).

21<sup>st</sup> century classroom requires a learning environment where teaching and learning are facilitated and higher-order thinking skills are developed. The effectiveness of ESP learning is specific to the construction of knowledge in a social context (Duffy & Jonassen, 1991), such as, classrooms and language laboratories 'where students join in manipulating materials and, thus, create a community of learners who built their knowledge together' (Dewey, 1966).

The interplay between research and teaching is explained by the following researchers:

- Pica (2005) mentions that 'as teachers and researchers, we cannot work in isolation to each other if we are to help our students meet their needs and accomplish their goals' (p. 49).
- Teachers should know what students learn, how and why instruction influences such learning, and how lessons could be based on this information to be more influential when teaching them next time (Berk, Hiebert, Jansen, & Morris, 2007).
- Some linguists (cf. Robinson, 1991) believe that it is wrong to isolate language into items and present them according to the coverage, range, and frequency. It is believed that this is a mechanical way of introducing language. It is better to present language as a whole in chunks, however (cf. Widdowson, 1990). Language is for communication not for exercising linguistic items.

**Topic-079: Bridging Language Learning Research and Language Education**

Teaching devoid of research is viewed as obsolete. Language teachers are required to inculcate research in their teaching practices to keep pace with the latest methodologies. Knowledge is constructed in the context of the environment in which it is encountered through the social and collaborative process (Kanuka & Anderson, 1999). The teacher in the contemporary scenario is viewed as a consultant whose role is not to only impart knowledge but also negotiate with students for effective outcomes. The following factors are vital for bridging language learning research and language education:

1. Needs analysis: Needs Analysis calls for 'situations where the student has some specific reasons to learn a language' (Harmer, 1983, p. 1).
2. Determining methodologies include:

- Grammar Translation
- Direct Method
- Audio-Lingual Method
- Situational Language Learning
- Suggestopedia
- The Silent Way
- Total Physical Response
- Community Language Learning
- Communicative Language Teaching
- Task Based Learning

3. Evaluation includes:

- Placement assessment
- Observation of learning
- Short-term achievement assessment
- Diagnostic achievement assessment
- Proficiency assessment

### **Topic-080: SLA Research and Working Beyond Teaching Methods**

SLA research is a vast domain and includes both general as well as specific theories. The role of SLA in defining the theories for teaching methodologies has been instrumental in broadening the scope of SLA. According to Corder (1973) and Stern (1983), at the time of its emergence as a separate discipline, SLA was anticipated to be the most useful discipline for language teaching. Researchers have recently been emphasizing the role of SLA to raise teachers' awareness of SLA concepts rather than affecting teaching directly; Markee (1993) for example, sees SLA research as 'a resource for changing teachers' professional cultures' (Cook, 1999). Teaching, too, ranges from overall goals for language teaching to specific teaching techniques used with a particular group of learners (Cook 1992). Lightbown and Spada (1993) proposed the following for classroom teaching and research associated with each method based on:

- the behaviourist theory of language learning emphasizing accuracy and form and not allowing errors.
- the interactionist theory giving learners the opportunity for conversation where they receive meaningful input from teachers and students, which will in turn lead to acquisition of the grammar and words of the second language.
- the 'comprehensible input' theory most closely associated with Stephen Krashen, where the emphasis is not on the interaction, but on providing input through listening and/or reading.
- teaching what the learner is ready to learn, most closely associated with Manfred Pienemann.

- not only recognizing a role for instruction but also assuming that not everything has to be taught' (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 97).

SLA gives 'focus on form' which enables learner to face the challenge regarding form-focused activities in communicative contexts. The suggested uses of form-based knowledge are planning and monitoring output, noticing features in the input, noticing the gap between learner's own production and the target, and speeding passage through developmental sequences (Haley & Rantz, 2002).

**Lesson-23****DIRECTIONS FOR RESEARCH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING****Topic-081: Research Within Applied Linguistics**

Research within ‘Applied Linguistics’ requires the understanding of what the field of applied linguistics deals with. Davies and Elder (2007) emphasized that it deals with the social problems that involve language. Major issues that require inquiry include teaching of language effectively, training of translators and interpreters, diagnosing speech pathologies more efficiently, evaluating a bilingual programme, setting a valid language test, helping to discuss the language used in a text, deciding on the literacy levels of a population study, and comparing and contrasting the acquisition of different languages.

The term ‘Applied Linguistics’ has been defined by many researchers, some of them are:

**Grabe** (2002, p. 10) defines applied linguistics as *a ‘practice-driven discipline that addresses language-based problems in real-world contexts.’* **Schmitt and Celce-Murcia** (2002): applied linguistics is using what we know about language, how it is learned, and how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world. Applied linguistics covers eighteen topic areas. These are: language and its acquisition, language and culture, language and cognition, language and the brain, language and media, language and assessment, language and interaction, language and ideology, language and listening, language and instruction, language and reading, language and policy, language and writing, language and speaking, language and society, language and research methodology, language and technology, and language and translation/interpretation. Out of these areas, the dominant area has been second/foreign language acquisition and teaching.

**Grant** (2010) explains that research in applied linguistics is a process of arriving at answers to questions situated in current understanding, employing a methodologically rigorous way. **Alami** (2015) proposed five main characteristics of research within applied linguistics namely: empirical, logical, reductive, planned, and imaginative; whereas, **McDonough and McDonough** (2005) sum up research in four features: interest, originality, specificity, and dissemination of both research questions and findings. **Nunan** (2005, p. 226-227) contribution in determining the nature of the term rests on the concept of enquiry: product and process.

**Topic-082: Explicit and Implicit Learning and Awareness**

Rod Ellis (2009) proposed the distinction between implicit/explicit learning and implicit/explicit knowledge and asserted that though they are related terms but need to be analyzed separately as the former is related to the processes of the learning and the latter with the products of learning.

Schmidt believes that it is not necessary that implicit instruction results in implicit learning; therefore, learning needs to be distinguished from instruction. Learners have minds of their own and may follow their own inclinations irrespective of the nature of the instruction they receive (Allwright, 1984).

Dornyei’s (2009) distinction: Explicit learning refers to the learner’s conscious and deliberate

attempt to master some material or solve a problem, and implicit learning involves acquiring skills and knowledge without conscious awareness, that is, automatically and with no conscious attempt to learn them. Awareness, according to Tomlin and Villa (1994, p. 193), is ‘a particular state of mind in which an individual has undergone a specific subjective experience of some cognitive content or external stimulus.’

Allport (1988) believes that cognitive changes and reporting of experience or metalinguistic description of rules are the factors that are responsible for creating awareness. In connection to the concept of awareness, Schmidt (1990) proposed noticing hypothesis, ‘the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake.’

### **Topic-083: Input, Output, and Frequency**

Corder emphasized that language input needs to be differentiated for intake. According to him, input deals with utilization of existing rules, whereas, intake is a part of input and results from the comprehension of intake. Two factors ‘Availability’ and ‘Accessibility’ determine the input. For comprehensible output, the input has been observed to be comprehensible too. The language users use correct forms of utterances for successful transmission of the intended meaning; ‘sometimes, under some conditions, output facilitates second language learning in ways that are different from, those of input’ (Swain and Lapkin, 1995, p. 371). For the development of frequency, processing is the key factor that has the ability to match the outcome with the intended meaning.

### **Topic-084: Current Trends and Research in Pakistani Context**

The statistics regarding English language research show that:

- English language is a global language and more than 1.5 billion people in total (native and non-native combined) speak English.
- Extensively spreading in important fields including international commerce, education, and communication.
- Plays an important role as a channel of communication (Kannan, 2009).
- Asia is not an exception to such a global trend which is concerned with students’ personal, linguistic, social, and cultural development (Le, 2004, p. 167).

Current trends and issues in English language education in Asia survey that SLA faces great challenges with regard to the L2 learning difficulties, unrealistic teaching material, and teaching strategies. Challenges of ESL teachers include teaching English as a second language in different situations, assessing second language learners with different abilities, and facilitating the procedure of second language acquisition.

## Lesson-24

**AUTOMATICITY, RESTRUCTURING AND NOTICING****Topic-085: McLaughlin's Automaticity and Restructuring**

McLaughlin (1990) introduced the distinction between controlled processing and automatic processing. He claimed that SLA has no adequate theory that could explain the mental states or operation that can be determined as 'conscious' or 'unconscious.' He did not discard SLA's claim of unconsciousness and proposed that distinction should be between the controlled and automation processing instead of conscious and unconscious dichotomy.

Controlled processing requires attention, and attention has a limited capacity; automatic processing does not require attention, and takes up little or no processing capacity. McLaughlin uses the twin concepts of Automaticity and Restructuring to describe the cognitive processes involved in SLA.

**Example of McLaughlin's Automaticity and Restructuring:** Automaticity occurs when an associative connection between a certain kind of input and some output pattern occurs. Many typical greetings exchanges illustrate this:

Speaker 1: Hi.

Speaker 2: Morning. How are you?

Speaker 1: Fine, and you?

Speaker 2: Fine. (Jordan, 2004)

McLaughlin, (1987, pp. 134-135) introduced three information processes: automatic processing, controlled processing, and restructuring. He presented the process starting from attention and ending at intention.

**Attention → Rehearsal → Retrieval → Intention**

**Topic-086: Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis**

Schmidt proposed the concept of 'Noticing'; he believed that 'noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input into intake' (Schmidt, 1990, p. 130). The concept came in response to Krashen's claim that subconscious processes can guarantee successful L2 acquisition. Schmidt argued that noticing is important for L2 learning.

The role of noticing and awareness in SLA has been explained by Schmidt in the below given video link:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0OfM2nIX4r455:00-58:35/>

From Schmidt's perspective, for learning to occur, attention and a low level of awareness (i.e. noticing)–'conscious registration of the concurrence of some event' (Schmidt, 1995, p. 29)–are necessary, but high level awareness (i.e. understanding)–'recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern' (Schmidt, 1995, p. 29)–is not required (Ahn, 2014).



The following are the features of Noticing Hypothesis:

- 1) Noticing as focal awareness
- 2) Noticing refers to a private experience
- 3) Consciousness as knowledge

To overcome the ambiguities between conscious and unconscious learning, Schmidt explained that unconscious learning deals with unawareness of having learned something. Conscious learning establishes the awareness at the level of noticing, whereas, unconscious learning ends into picking up speech without noticing. He calls this process ‘subliminal’ learning.

## Lesson-25

**INTERACTION HYPOTHESIS, PROCESSABILITY THEORY, AND  
TOWELL AND HAWKINS MODEL OF SLA****Topic-087: Long's Interaction Hypothesis**

Long's (1981) Interaction Hypothesis refers to the participation in conversation with native speaker. The process may include modification of interaction and plays important role in second language acquisition. Long (1981) defines, '*Input* refers to the linguistic forms used; whereas, *interaction* means the functions served by those forms, such as expansion, repetition, and clarification' (p. 259). Ellis (1991) explains the states, IH propagates, as follows:

1. Comprehensible input
2. Modifications to the interactional structure

Long's Interaction Hypothesis was analyzed by a number of researchers. The leading among them were Pica and Ellis. Pica (1987) empirically investigated the hypothesis and Ellis (1991) summarized it as:

- Comprehensible input is necessary for second language acquisition.
- Modifications to the interactional structure of conversations help to make input comprehensible to a second language learner.
- Tasks and a situation where there is a need for the participants to exchange information.

The limitations of Interaction Hypothesis were identified by Ellis as following:

- Interaction facilitates comprehension (not causes it): when learners have opportunity to signal their non-understanding and try to ask for clarification.
- There are individual differences with regard to the amount of their participation.
- Comprehension does not depend on negotiation; learners may benefit from the dialogic interaction by other learners.
- Modified input facilitates acquisition of word meanings.
- The most important factor to acquisition of word meanings is range (different contexts).

**Topic-088: Processability Theory**

'Processability Theory' was proposed by Manfred Pienemann, and it refers to the grammatical development of learners' interlanguage. The theory has been explained as 'cognitively founded (hence applicable to any language), formal and explicit (hence empirically testable), and extended, having not only formulated and tested hypotheses about morphology, syntax and discourse-pragmatics, but having also paved the way for further developments at the interface between grammar and the lexicon and other important modules in SLA.'

The core characteristic of processability theory is that in the process of second language acquisition, learners can produce and comprehend those L2 forms which their L1 process can manage. It refers to two formal models, describing and interfacing: (a) language generation, and (b) linguistic

knowledge. Pienemann (2012) considered the following factors in their explanation of the processability theory:

- Second language development progresses according to universal stages.
- Variability of interlanguage is limited and regular.
- Transfer from the first language is limited by the ability to process a certain structure.
- Differences in tasks are limited by the language processing hierarchy.
- Acquisition of both the first and the second language is limited by the language processing hierarchy.
- Bilingual language development can be universally compared for different languages using the language processing hierarchy described in the PT.

### **Topic-089: Towell and Hawkin's Model of SLA**

Towell and Hawkins were the first ones to propose the concepts of 'Declarative Knowledge' and 'Procedural Knowledge.' They believe that SLA research has to deal both with the learner's attempts to learn the system and the learner's attempts to learn to use of the system. 'Multiplicity of knowledge sources,' was the term used by Towell and Hawkins which according to them is the result of learner's exposure to SLA after 7 years of age.

Towell and Hawkins (1994) proposed five main questions addressing English as a second or foreign language:

1. **Transfer:** of grammatical properties from L1 mental grammar into the mental grammar that learners construct for L2.
2. **Staged Development:** L2 learners go through a series of 'transitional stages' towards the target language.
3. **Systematicity:** in the growth of L2 knowledge across learners.
4. **Variability:** in learners' intuitions about, and production of, the L2 at various stages of L2 development.
5. **Incompleteness:** most L2 learners do not achieve native-like competence. This phenomenon is referred as fossilization by Selinker (1972) and as incompleteness by Schacter (1990). (Towell and Hawkins, 1994, p. 15).

**Lesson-26****COMPARING SIX THEORIES-I****Topic-090: Theories Perspectives**

The key six theories namely Behaviourism, Generativism, Cognitivism, Constructivism, Monitor-Model and Socio-cultural have been compared with each other based on the factors that influence learning, role of memory, transfer occurrence, types of learning, and teaching paradigms. Language learning perspectives vary as per the uniqueness of their domains and research covering:

- Behaviour
- Innateness
- Mental processes
- Experiences
- Interaction
- Role of society

**Topic-091: Role of Memory and Transfer Occurrence**

Memory is the process by which we encode, store, and retrieve information. Long-term memory is our brain's system for storing, managing, and retrieving information. Working memory is the short-term memory wherein the information is kept in mind for a short-time before either dismissing it or transferring it to long-term memory. Transfer occurrence refers to application of knowledge from one language to another.

It has been observed that the role of memory and language transfer appear to vary in Behaviourism, Generativism, Cognitivism, Constructivism, Monitor-Model and Socio-cultural theories. It has also been noted that the generativist and cognitivist theories share the role of memory; whereas, language transfer perspective is observed in generativism to some extent.

## Lesson-27

**COMPARING SIX THEORIES-II****Topic-092: Types of Learning**

Some of the major types of learning include:

- Learning is known as an act of acquiring or modifying new knowledge.
- Learning is seen as a process whereby new knowledge is built based on the previous knowledge.
- Declarative Knowledge
- Procedural knowledge

Other more general types include:

- Formal learning
- Technology-based learning
- Monolingual/mono-cultural context learning
- Multilingual/multicultural context learning
- Practical/functional learning
- Personalized learning

The types are best explained in terms of their specific learning domains. These domains are:

- Learning is acquisition or ‘getting.’
- Learning is retention of information or skill.
- Retention implies storage systems, memory, and cognitive organization.
- Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
- Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
- Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice.
- Learning is a change in behaviour (Brown, 2006).

**Topic-093: Classroom Application**

Theories application in classroom aims to address the issues of learners’ needs and adopt appropriate learning procedures to cater those needs. The application of SLA theories in classroom provide teachers with better understanding of learners’ needs and an insight on their teaching practices. Teaching methodologies are evolved over the period of time, and these are practiced as per specific requirements. The broader aspect of theoretical application has been preferred to address the wide range of teaching issues as there is no single, straightforward solution to learning. Furthermore, the relationship between teaching and learning determines the relevancy of a particular theory.

The following factors address classroom teaching and research associated with one another:

1. Methods based on the behaviourist theory of language learning lay emphasis on accuracy and form and do not allow errors.
2. Methods based on the interactionist theory give learners the opportunity for conversation where they receive meaningful input from teachers and students.
3. Methods based on the 'comprehensible input' theory, most closely associated with Stephen Krashen, do not put emphasis on interaction, but on providing input through listening and/or reading.
4. Methods based on teaching what the learner is ready to learn.
5. Methods that not only 'recognize the role for instruction, but also assume that not everything has to be taught' (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 97).

## Lesson-28

**LEARNING FACTORS-I****Topic-094: Language Learning Factors**

Language learning factors contribute significantly in the understanding of processes involved in SLA. The study of SLA covers broadly from pure linguistic units of a language to cognitive and social/interactionist models. The key factors include comprehensive analysis of factors responsible for particular processes in a specific model, nature of stages learners go through, the pace at which learning takes place, and the outcomes.

Learning factors are of the following two types:

**Internal Factors:** Age, Personality, Motivation (intrinsic), Experience, Cognition, and Native language

**External Factors:** Culture and status, Motivation (extrinsic), Access to native speakers, Curriculum, and Instruction

**Topic-095: Age**

The Age factor is a matter of great interest to SLA researchers. They have been making numerous researches to establish the relations between the age and SLA. Researchers like Ellis (2008), Larsen-Freeman (2008), and Mayberry & Lock (2003) state that younger learners are more successful in language study than aged ones. Cook (1991) claimed that children with exposure to SLA at the early stage demonstrate the ability to perform native-like which the adults fail to do so. Krashen et al. (1979) believe that older is faster, but the young is better.

The ‘Critical Period Hypothesis’ is widely referred to in the study of age factor. Defined as ‘the period during which a child can acquire language easily, rapidly, perfectly, and without instruction’ (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 145), the hypothesis has been opposed by Singleton (2004) who claimed that Dutch learners, who started learning English in the classroom after the age of twelve, were able to gain native-like accent. Others seem to have diverse views on the matter as Harley & Hart (1997) cited in DeKeyser, 2007 that the importance of memory in young learners and of analytic abilities in older learners have been observed as the differences. Ekstrand (1978) described it as the age effects according to which older learner outscored younger ones can be explained by the teaching and testing techniques (Lightbown and Spada, 1993).

**Topic-096: Motivation**

Motivation has been defined as ‘a psychological construct that refers to the desire and incentive that an individual has to engage in a specific activity’ (Hall, 2011). Another definition by Loewen & Reinders (2011, p. 119) is that ‘it provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process’ (Dornyei, 2005, p. 65).

### Three Views of Motivation

**1. Behaviouristic:** This view of motivation deals with the factors like anticipation of reward, desire for positive reinforcement, and external individual forces in control.

**2. Cognitive:** Driven by basic human needs, degree of efforts expended, and internal individual forces in control are the factors considered in cognitive view of motivation.

**3. Constructivist:** Social context, community, social status, security of group, and internal and interactive forces in control are some of the factors, constructivists focus on, for studying motivation in learners.

Motivation follows certain phases that determine its sustenance. Dornyei's model presents three phases:

- Setting goals and getting started
- Keeping the motivation intact while carrying out the tasks
- Performance reflection

Moreover, 'Integrative Motivation' and 'Instrumental Motivation' affect language learning process.



**Lesson-29****LEARNING FACTORS-II****Topic-097: Relevant Learning Factors (Anthropological Evidence)**

Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) was a model that was primarily concerned with LI. Lateralization of the brain was thought to be a key to learning languages. It explains the maturity of brain and how the language functions are controlled in the left hemisphere.

Eric Lenneberg (1967) and others suggested that ‘lateralization is a slow process that begins around the age of two and is completed around puberty. During this time the child is neurologically assigning functions little by little to one side of the brain or the other; included in these functions, of course, is language.’

(Scovel, 1988) introduced ‘Sociobiological Critical Period’ which refers to the development of a socially bonding accent at puberty that enables species to form an identity and attract mates of ‘their own kind’ in an instinctive drive to maintain their own species. Scovel concludes that there are ‘foreign’ accents after puberty. Some adults have been known to acquire an authentic accent in a second language after puberty, but such individuals are very few.

Anthropologist, Jane Hill (1970) provided a response to Scovel’s (1969) study by citing anthropological research on Non-Western societies that yielded evidence that adults can, in the normal course of their lives, acquire second languages perfectly. Based on anthropological evidence, Sorenson claims that during adolescence individuals can actively speak two or three other languages to which they had been exposed at some point.

**Topic-098: Relevant Learning Factors (Linguistics Considerations and Cognitive Ability)**

‘Linguistic Consideration’ deals with the linguistic and cognitive processes of second language learning in children which are believed to be similar to first language processes. It is believed that the first language affects the processes positively by providing facilitation. Adults have the more solid foundation, achieved from the first language learning, which makes them cognitively secure.

**Factors for Understanding Linguistics Consideration**

- Bilingualism
- Interference between L1 and L2
- Interference in adults
- Order of acquisition

**Cognitive Ability**

It is the ability to carry out any task from the simplest to the most complex. It is more to do with

the mechanisms of how we learn, remember, problem solve, and pay attention rather than with any actual knowledge (brain based skills).

### **Topic-099: Relevant Learning Factors (Cognitive and Affective Considerations)**

‘Cognitive Consideration’ refers to the understanding of cognition process and explains its rapid development in initial sixteen years of life and gradual/less rapid development later on. The notions of cognitive considerations have been addressed by Jean Piaget and Ausubel.

Jean Piaget proposed following stages of ‘Intellectual Development’:

- Sensorimotor Stage [birth to 2 years of age ]
- Preoperational stage [2 to 7 years of age]
- Operational stage [7 to 16 years of age]
- Concrete operational stage [7 to 11 years of age]
- Formal operational stage [11to 16 years of age]

Ausubel (1964) claimed that:

- Adults may in fact be benefitted from certain grammatical explanations and deductive thinking that would be pointless for a child.
- The benefits of such explanations however, depend upon the suitability and efficiency of the explanation, the teacher, the context, and other pedagogical variables.
- Young children are generally not ‘Aware’ that they are acquiring a language, nor are they aware of societal values and attitudes to one language or another.

‘Affective Consideration’ highlights that our mental state and our emotions influence our thinking and behaviour. The main affective factors are: empathy, self-esteem, extroversion, inhibition, imitation, anxiety, attitudes, etc.

## Lesson-30

**LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES-I****Topic 100: Direct Strategies Part-I**

Oxford (1990) defines 'Learning Strategies' as 'specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations.' Dansereau (1985) considers language strategies as 'special thoughts or behaviours that learners use to help them comprehend, retain and/or use the information.' According to Stern (1992), with language learning strategies, 'learners engage in activities to achieve certain goals, ...a choice of procedures, ... some form of long term planning.'

A language learning strategy system was developed by Rebecca Oxford which consists of Direct and Indirect strategies.

- **Direct strategies** involve use of language; these are sub-divided into memory (mnemonics), cognitive and compensation strategies.
- **Indirect strategies** do not directly involve using the language, but support language learning (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). These are further divided into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies (Lee 2010).

**Demonstration of Direct Strategies****Explanation**

- Students were already familiar with concepts of implied main idea as well as major and minor details, as done in previous weeks. But this article was delivering new information; thus, students applied their existing knowledge to come up with correct answers. This displayed a use of meta-cognitive learning strategy.
- Based on this, students were asked to form an outline and write a paragraph on their understanding of the article. This helped students to develop a piece of work based on their existing knowledge and new knowledge by using cognitive learning strategy.
- In the third session, students were asked to form mnemonics in the form of abbreviation or images to memorize the content of the article.
- At the end of the activity, students were asked to give their feedback about the use of these strategies.
- According to students, it was very helpful for them to use their learned concepts on the article. This did not only help them in working practically on class content but also in memorizing the important incidents in the article.

**Lesson-31****LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES-II****Topic 101: Indirect Strategies Part-I**

Oxford (1990) explained 'Indirect Strategies' as a support and management system for language learning without directly involving the target language. Communicative competence is the key contribution of indirect strategies because the activities are designed and implemented to provide learning with real-life situation for developing communication competence. The indirect strategies consist of metacognitive strategies that help learners to regulate their cognition and to focus, plan, and evaluate their progress; affective strategies that develop self-confidence; social strategies that increase interaction and empathy in communication.

**Demonstration of Indirect Strategies****Explanation**

- Four students were picked randomly and asked to pick another three students from class to form a group. Then, they were given a topic 'Revival of cricket in Pakistan' and asked to generate points about the topic through group discussion. This is a use of 'Social Learning Strategy' in which students interact with each other and work on the assigned activity, based on grouped input.
- After this, students were asked to elect one member from group to give presentation in front of mirror.
- After presentations, their own groups were asked to give feedback about overall presentation skills like posture, body language, eye contact, dress code, etc. According to students, eye contact was the major issue in all the presenters. This is an example of 'Affective Learning Strategy' where students developed self-confidence and positive attitude by getting feedback from their own class fellows. Moreover, this was also affirmed by the feedback from each presenter, who appreciated the positive feedback from their class fellows and showed constructive attitude towards learning.
- In the third part of the session, teacher gave demonstration to the students about the identified weak points in their presentation skills. This was a display of 'Compensatory Strategy', in which the teacher helped learners to compensate for their limitations in knowledge regarding presentation skills.

## Lesson-32

**INDIVIDUAL LEARNING DIFFERENCES-I****Topic 102: Intelligence and Multiple Intelligence**

Individual differences among learners vary based on the intelligence which has been defined by Moaafian (2008, cited in Hernandez et al., 2010) as a very general mental capability that among other things, involves the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly, and learn from experience. Researchers believe that individuals demonstrate different results even after being exposed to the same learning procedures which is due to the differences of intelligence.

Wagner and Sternberg (1985) proposed three conceptions of intelligence.

1. **The Psychometric View** equates intelligence with mental capacity.
2. **The Piagetian View** defines intelligence in terms of stages of development based on maturity and experiences.
3. **The Information Processing View** focuses on the way the brain represents and processes information.

Sternberg (1985, 2002) distinguishes three types of intelligence:

1. **Analytical** — the ability to analyze, compare, and evaluate
2. **Creative** — the ability to produce novel solutions to problems
3. **Practical** — the capacity to adapt, to shape, and to select environments suited to one's abilities

Howard Gardner (1983) proposed '**Theory of Multiple Intelligence (MI)**' which focuses on different ways in which human beings are intelligent. Eight categories of skills and abilities are introduced by Gardner to be considered crucial for understanding individual intelligences, namely, naturalistic, linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily, kinesthetic, and musical. He also provided the following principles of 'multiple intelligence':

1. Emphasis on the development of certain intelligences
2. Utilizing all intelligences in developing different teaching methods
3. Based on the concept of multiple intelligences, instructors should review lesson plans and ensure they have variety, fairness, and richness
4. Provide students with the opportunity to choose learning activities and assessment methods
5. Provide students with the opportunity to use the dominant intelligences to develop the weaker
6. Use the intelligences to fully comprehend broad subjects (Gardner, 1983)

**Topic 103: Language Aptitude and Language Learning**

With regard to the differences that individuals have in the development of learning a foreign language, language aptitude is considered to be one of the most determining factors. It explains the ease and the rate of satisfaction of individual's achievement. Gardner and Lambert (1972, p. 2) define this term as 'a knack' for learning a foreign language.

Carroll believed that 'Foreign language aptitude is considered as the individual's initial state of readiness and capacity for learning a foreign language' (Carroll, 1981, p. 86). He introduced the following four major components of language aptitude:

- Phonetic coding ability
- Grammatical sensitivity
- Rote learning ability for foreign language materials
- Inductive language learning ability

Language aptitude is specific to learning style which according to Cornett (1983, p. 9) is 'the overall pattern that give general direction to learning behaviour.' The learning styles have been classified as:

- **Sensory Preferences:** Visual (seeing), Auditory (hearing), Kinesthetic (moving), Tactile (touching)
- **Personality Types:** Extrovert/Introvert, Intuitive-random/Sensing-sequential, Thinking/Feeling, Judging/Perceiving
- **Degree of Generality:** Holistic/Analytic, Field dependent/Field independent
- **Strategies (Oxford 1990):** Cognitive, Metacognitive, Memory based, Compensatory, Affective, and Social strategies

## Lesson-33

**INDIVIDUAL LEARNING DIFFERENCES-II****Topic 104: Affective factors: Self-Esteem, Attribution Theory, and Self-Efficacy**

The Affective domain is primarily concerned with the emotional state of a person. It can be best understood in the words of Oxford (1990, p. 140), ‘the affective side of the learner is probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure. Good language learners are often those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning.’

Oxford (1990) further divided affective strategies as follows:

- making positive statements
- taking risks wisely
- rewarding oneself

Metacognitive, Affective, and Social strategies are the major groups of strategies dealing with affective factors.

**Self-esteem** has been defined by Beane, Lipka & Richard (1986, p. 6) as ‘the evaluation one makes of the self-concept description, and more specifically, to the degree to which one is satisfied or dissatisfied with it, in whole or in part (...).’ Oxford (1990, p. 141) states ‘it (self-esteem) is a self-judgment of worth or value, based on a feeling of efficacy, a sense of interacting effectively with one’s own environment.’

**Attribution Theory** introduced by Weiner (1980, 1992) is based on the notion that learners’ motivation is subject to the pleasant outcome of being able to feel good about themselves; whereas, self-efficacy emphasizes learner’s self-perception of his/her ability to perform well.

According to attribution theory, three sets of characteristics explain success and failure:

- Internal and external causes
- Stable and unstable causes
- Controllable or uncontrollable causes

**Topic 105: Language Attitude and Motivation**

Attitudes to language are phenomena that cannot be observed directly but are demonstrated through actual behaviour. It can affect the language proficiency based on two types, namely, positive attitude and negative attitude.

- 1) Positive attitudes toward self, the native language group, and the target language group enhance proficiency.
- 2) Negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation, input and interaction which can lead to unsuccessful attainment of proficiency.

Attitude to language relies on the level of learner’s motivation which has been defined by Gardner (1985) as ‘a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus

favorable attitudes towards learning the language' (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.116). Another definition by Slavin (2003, p. 328) states that motivation 'is concerned with the factors that direct and energize the behaviour...' Concepts of 'intrinsic and extrinsic motivation' were proposed by Deci (1975) as internally rewarding and externally reinforcing factors of motivation respectively.

### **Topic 106: Language Anxiety**

Spielberger (1983, p. 1) defined anxiety as 'the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system.' It causes demotivation and often results into a failure of a task. More uneasy a learner feels about certain task, more are the chances of failure. Language anxiety specifically deals with a learner's feelings of fear and apprehension once being exposed to the target language. Empathy and extroversion are the personality traits that affect the second language acquisition process. Empathy refers to people's willingness and ability to identify with others. It helps in developing an accommodating behaviour and overcoming language anxiety. The feeling of alienation that a learner experiences while being exposed to the target language, is often removed with the sense of empathy.

### **Topic 107: Willingness to Communicate, Inhibition, and Risk Taking**

It has been observed that in the context of non-native speaker taking an initiative to communicate in the second language is a highly complex task. Willingness to communicate requires the communicative opportunity and encouragement to initiate communication in SLA context. The Pyramid Model has been established that describes learners' use of L2. As the learner moves up the pyramid, the learner has more control over the act of communicating in the target language. The models have six layers and, from top to bottom, they are:

- Communication Behaviour
- Behavioural Intention
- Situated Antecedents
- Motivational Propensities
- Affective-Cognitive Context
- Social and Individual Context

Closely connected to the willingness factor is the feeling of '**Inhibition**' which makes one self-conscious and unable to act in a relaxed and natural way. It is based on certain set of defenses that all human beings build to protect the ego, especially language ego as meaningful L2 acquisition does involve some degree of identity conflict.

'**Risk Taking**' has been defined by a number of linguists as the ability of being eager to try out new information intelligently regardless of embarrassment in linguistics. According to Brown, 'interaction requires the risk of failing to produce intended meaning, of failing to interpret intended meaning, of being laughed at, of being shunned.' The rewards, of course, are great and worth the risks (2001, p. 166); he further explained that 'the key to risk-taking as a peak performance strategy is not simply in taking the risks. It is in learning from your failures.'



## Lesson-34

**INDIVIDUAL LEARNING DIFFERENCES-III****Topic 108: Learner as a Social being, Stereotyping, and Generalization**

Language is a social phenomenon which engages human beings for communication purposes. It is not viewed as a simple code which only involves learning vocabulary and the rules for constructing sentence. Language is a dynamic process of communication, a social practice of meaning-making, and interpretation. The speaker has to be an assertive participant in a communication in order to be a social being. When language is used to construct our messages according to our intentions, our constraints and possibilities, our roles and relationships, it becomes a social practice. ‘Stereotyping’ and ‘Generalization’ are the two basic components of social functions of a language. Stereotyping is the cognitive component in the perceptions of group members, the positive or negative beliefs that we hold about the characteristics of social group; whereas, generalization is the process of identifying the parts of a whole, as belonging to the whole. It is based on the notion that our statements and beliefs about a group of people, although factual, might not be true of every single person of that group.

**Topic 109: Second Culture Acquisition and Social Distance**

Second Culture Acquisition is closely related to second language acquisition (SLA). The process of SLA and its success are the subjects accompanied by Second Culture Acquisition (SCA) (e.g., Hamers & Blanc, 1989; Schumann, 1978). SCA asserts that acquiring of new cultural knowledge enables learners to be more proficient in SL.

**Stages of Culture Acquisition**

- 1) **Stage 1:** is a period of excitement and euphoria over the newness of the surroundings.
- 2) **Stage 2:** is about culture shock that emerges as individuals feel the intrusion of more and more cultural differences into their own images of self and security.
- 3) **Stage 3:** is a very gradual stage that represents tentative and vacillating recovery. This stage is typified by what Larson and Smalley (1972) called ‘culture stress’; some problems of acculturation are solved while other problems continue for some time.
- 4) **Stage 4:** represents near or full recovery, either assimilation or adaptation. It is acceptance of the new culture and self-confidence in the ‘new’ person that has developed in this culture.

Social Distance deals with the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures that come into contact within an individual. Instead of creating a gap, the term ‘Distance’ is used to depict dissimilarity between two cultures. Schumann proposed the following parameters of social distance:

- Dominance: Dominant, non-dominant, subordinate
- Integration: Integration pattern; assimilation, acculturation or preservation
- Cohesiveness: Size of L2 group
- Congruence: Similarities of values and beliefs in two groups and their attitudes towards each other

- Permanence: Length of residence in target language

### **Topic 110: Language, Culture, and Thought**

Language, culture, and thought are interconnected. Relationship between language and culture focuses on the language as the embodiment of linguistic and cultural knowledge and culture as the manifestation of beliefs and norms. Language represents culture; therefore, looking at it as a mere code is indeed its restricted view. According to Kramsch (2005), language expresses cultural reality as speakers communicate their ideas, feelings, and facts through language both in inter and intra societal setups.

Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis about 'Language and Thought' enjoys great popularity in the field of SLA. They refer that the structure of a language people habitually use influences the ways they think and behave; different languages offer people different ways to express the world around, they think and speak differently. They proposed:

**Linguistic Determinism:** Individuals experience the world based on the structure of the language which they habitually use.

**Linguistic Relativity:** What we perceive is limited by language in which we think and speak; different languages give different patterns of thought.

### **Criticism on Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis**

- If language determines thought then it must precede thought.
- Not all activities involve language but do involve thought.
- Even pre-linguistic babies can think.
- Differences are not in thought but in ways of expressing the same thought.
- Otherwise it would be impossible to translate.

**Lesson-35****LANGUAGE LEARNING PEDAGOGY****Topic 111: Nature of Language Learning Theories, Pedagogy, and Developing Relevant Theories**

Halliday (1993, p. 94) explained the relationship between language and learning on the ground that when children learn a language, they are not simply engaging in one kind of learning among many, rather, they are learning the foundation of learning itself. The distinctive characteristic of human learning is that it is a process of making meaning – a semiotic process, and the proto typical form of human semiotic. The success of learning takes into account linguistic and cultural diversity.

**Developing Relevant Theories**

SLA research has made relevant contributions to language pedagogy (Le., Lightbown, 2000; Long, 1990; Mitchell, 2000), there are others who perceive a gap, sometimes a truly, almost unsurmountable conflict of interests between researchers and practitioners (Le., Block, 2000; Crookes, 1997; Markee, 1997) between researchers and practitioners. They believe that these differences emerge from diverse conceptions of teaching. SLA views teaching as intuitive knowledge that takes the form of theories (teaching as cognition) or as a craft where the context guides the teacher's moment-to-moment decisions ('teaching as interpretation') (Tragant & Munoz, p. 2004).

'Design-based Research' (also known as design experiments) by Collins et al. intends to address several needs and issues central to the study of learning. These are as follows:

- The need to address theoretical questions about the nature of learning in context
- The need for approaches to the study of learning phenomena in the real world situations rather than the laboratory
- The need to go beyond narrow measures of learning
- The need to derive research findings from formative evaluation

**Topic 112: Conducting Classroom Research**

Classroom research is a recent trend that has been emerging due to severe need of designing lessons according to specific needs of learners. As pointed out by Long (1983), classroom centered research is 'eminently practical' because it is 'concerned with what actually goes on in the classroom as opposed to what is supposed to go on' (p. 284). By definition, Classroom-Centered Research (CCR) views classroom as the 'object' of research, and not simply the 'setting' for research. The CCR determines not only what happens in the classroom but also the conditions that can affect teaching and learning processes. It is observed that sometimes simple research results do not leave any impact unless they are empirically tested.

**Topic 113: Making Research Accessible to Teachers and Facilitating Action Research**

For effective teaching practices, it is imperative to make research accessible to teachers. It contributes to the professional development of teachers and equips them with the updated methodologies.

**Ten Generalizations from SLA Research (Lightbown, 1985)**

1. Adults and adolescents can 'acquire' a second language.
2. The learner creates a systematic inter-language which is often characterized by the same systematic errors as committed by the native child, learning the same language as the first language, as well as others which appear to be based on the learner's own native language.
3. There are predictable sequences in L2 acquisition that certain structures have to be acquired before others can be integrated.
4. Practice does not make the learner perfect.
5. Knowing a language rule does not mean one will be able to use it in communicative interaction.
6. Isolated explicit error correction is usually ineffective in changing language behaviour.
7. For most adult learners, acquisition stops . . . before the learner has achieved native-like mastery of the target language.
8. One cannot achieve native-like or near native-like command on a second language in one hour a day.
9. The learner's task is enormous, because language is enormously complex.
10. A learner's ability to understand language in a meaningful context exceeds his/her ability to comprehend decontextualized language and to produce language of comparable complexity and accuracy.

For the facilitation process of the research, researchers propose that research forums should be provided for sharing and learning. Collaborative action research should be promoted and teachers should be encouraged to be engaged in developing a professional research culture. Teachers should also be provided with autonomy to make informed decisions based on their teaching experiences.

**Lesson-36****INTERVIEW WITH AN EXPERT****Topic 114: Individual Differences and Language Learning Strategies in Pakistani Context**

The interview broadly covered the issues related to the usefulness of English language learning strategies preferred in Pakistani context. The interviewee discussed learning differences of Pakistani learners and relevant strategies to address these differences. The factors related to learner's motivation and demotivation also came under discussion and the interviewee explained the parameters of teachers training in this regard. The role of language teachers in the current scenario, and the challenges that teachers face today to maximize the learning potential also came under discussion.

## Lesson-37

**DYNAMICS OF LEARNING STYLES****Topic 115: Types of Styles**

The Learning Styles have been defined as a mode of learning – an individual's preferred or best manner(s) to think, process information, and demonstrate learning. Learning styles focus on the individual's adoption of their own particular style which he/she considers specific and appropriate to a particular learning situation. This calls for specific learning activities which should facilitate learning in varied situations.

The Learning Styles reflect learning preferences of the learners. Learning preferences indicate their learning choices e.g. individual learning or group learning, using graphics or texts, etc. 'Refer to the conditions, encompassing environmental, emotional, sociological and physical conditions, that an individual learner would choose, if they were in a position to make a choice' (Dunn et al., 1989).

Four types of styles have been proposed by Honey-Mumford Model that people use while learning:

1. **Activists:** Activists prefer to learn by doing; 'give anything a try'.
2. **Reflectors:** Reflectors stand back and observe; 'look before they leap'.
3. **Theorists:** Theorists like to adapt and integrate; emphasis the framework and its implementation.
4. **Pragmatists:** Pragmatists look for the practical implications of any new ideas or theories before making a judgment.

**Topic 116: Types of Learners**

Types of learners are determined by their inclinations toward specific learning styles. Researchers have introduced different types of learners based on the styles but the most distinctive model of the learners' types has been proposed by Myers and Briggs. The Myers-Briggs Model (Briggs & Myers, 1975; or Briggs *et al.*, 1980) classifies the individuals according to their preferences on scales derived from the theories of psychological types developed by Carl Jung who believes that behaviour is never random and reflective of one's distinctive mental capacities.

According to the Myers-Briggs Model, learners may be:

1. **Extroverts:** Learn best when they can work with a friend and learn by trying something themselves.
2. **Introverts:** Learn best when they can find quiet places to work and have enough time to reflect on.
3. **Sensors:** Learn best when they can ask their teacher to explain. They like to use computers, watch films etc.
4. **Intuitors:** Learn best when they can find ways to be imaginative and creative.
5. **Thinkers:** Learn best when they have limited time to do their work, or when they are able to put information in a logical order.
6. **Feelers:** Learn best when they can work with a friend and have opportunities to choose topics. They care about and help others.
7. **Judgers:** Learn best when they have short-term goals, and they are able to make a plan of action.

- 8. Perceivers:** Learn best when they find new ways to do routine tasks in order to generate interest.

### **Topic 117: Learning Styles Model**

The following three models broadly cover the Learning Styles:

#### **1. Kolb's Learning Style Model**

Kolb's model is based on a four-stage learning cycle which proposes that the learning styles contain concrete vs. abstract and active vs. reflective dimensions. Concrete experiences rely on accommodating and diverging components as feelings specific whereas abstract conceptualization focuses on converging and assimilating as thinking and doing continuum. Both active and reflective domains are observed on the processing continuum.

#### **2. The Felder-Silverman Model**

Richard Felder and Linda Silverman introduced the model based on determining the learning style differences among engineering students and providing engineering instructors with the knowledge to design relevant teaching to cater to students learning needs. Later on, it did not remain specific to engineering students only.

The Felder-Silverman model proposes that students have preferences in terms of the way they receive and process information. The model presents the following four dimensions that are indicative of learning preferences:

- 1. Active and Reflective Learners:** Some people learn best by doing. Others prefer to think things through instead. These differences distinguish between active and reflective learners.
- 2. Sensing and Intuitive Learners:** Some courses require significant memorization of facts. Others focus on theoretical or conceptual ideas.
- 3. Visual or Verbal Learners:** Visual learners tend to prefer images, graphs etc. while verbal learners are more inclined towards written or spoken words.
- 4. Sequential or Global Learners:** Sequential learners prefer learning linearly with logical steps; whereas, global learners prefer a holistic approach.

#### **3. The 4MAT System**

It was developed by Bernice McCarthy in 1972 with 4 major learning styles; each of the styles displays different strengths during the learning process. The model is constructed along two continuums. First, **perceiving** – how people judge new information and **second, processing** – what people do with the new information. It proposes the learners' styles based on addressing what, why, if, and how.

**Lesson-38****SOCIAL CONTEXTS IN SLA****Topic 118: Language Community and Communicative Competence**

Language Community has been defined as a group of people who share knowledge of a common language and its use. The language community involves language and culture as both are closely connected to each other. Language community consists of monolinguals as well as multi-linguals, and both use knowledge of language rules appropriate to the given social contexts. Social groups have common ways of using language for social needs. These groups are called 'Discourse Communities' and have the following characteristics:

- A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.
- A discourse community has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.
- A discourse community uses its participatory mechanism primarily to provide information and feedback.
- A discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.
- In addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis.
- A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discourse expertise.

Communicative Competence is the ability to use the language appropriately in a given situation. It is divided into:

- Mind Competence which has language, extra-linguistic codes, cultural values, language abilities, and behaviour abilities
- World Performance which has communicative events

**Topic 119: Societal and Environmental Factors in Learning Setting**

The societal factors are influenced by large social groups based on their norms, beliefs, and customs in a given society and community, and affect the learning process. Praveen (2016) proposed a comprehensive list of societal factors which include social change, transmission of culture, social problems as issues for curriculum, economic issues, technology, home/family, technology, diversity, environment, political factors, and religion. Richards (2001) proposed the following societal factors: policy makers in government, educational and other government officials, employers, business community, politicians, tertiary education specialist, educational organization, parents, citizens, and students. These societal factors affect the learning settings and contribute in determining the relevant processes.

Learning Environment refers to the diverse physical locations, contexts, and cultures in which students learn. The learning environment takes into account all the physical conditions including classroom, text books, as well as cultural norms. It also equips teachers to organize educational settings to facilitate learning. The term also encompasses the culture of a school or class—its presiding ethos and



characteristics, including how individuals interact with and treat one another—as well as the ways in which teachers may organize an educational setting to facilitate learning.

### **Topic 120: Microsocial Factors**

The Microsocial factors are primarily concerned with language acquisition process in the immediate social contexts which includes: language production, interpretation, and interaction. The factors affect the level of formality, relationship of participants, and the nature of interaction as the immediate microsocial contexts refer to the social elements in the immediate contexts. The frameworks of ‘Accommodation Theory’ and ‘Variation Theory’ serve as the basis of the microsocial factors.

The Accommodation Theory, also known as Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT), was developed by Howard Giles in 1971. It argues that people adjust their communication according to others’ responses. The theory has two elements, namely, **divergence** which highlights group identity and **convergence** which occurs when there is a strong need for social acceptance.

The Variation Theory was introduced by Marton with emphasis on four patterns of variation: **Contrast** seeks to distinguish different and unlike things, **Separation** is the awareness of critical features and/or dimensions of variation, **Generalization** is a purposeful contrast to explore whether an observed pattern can occur while certain aspects vary, and **Fusion** integrates critical features or dimensions of variation into a whole under simultaneous co-variation.

The Microsocial factors include:

- L2 Variation: It occurs during language acquisition when language learner and native speaker use different linguistic codes. L2 variety is acquired from the social networks, the learner has.
- Input and Interaction: Language input is necessary, and simple interaction between L2 learner and native speaker can facilitate learning.
- Interaction – basic genesis of language: Interaction is at the core of language acquisition. It refers to interpersonal and intrapersonal communication as key components of language interaction.

### **Topic 121: Macrosocial Factors**

The Macrosocial factors are concerned with the broader and fundamental structures within a society, such as economic or political systems, social and cultural institutions, demographic (especially ethnic) groupings, etc. Macrosocial factors draw primarily on the frameworks of the ‘Ethnography of Communication’ and ‘Social Psychology’ for analyzing social contexts’ effects on SLA.

The theory of ethnography of communication was developed by Dell Hymes in 1960. It explains that how people use language in real situations with the help of communicative competence. It highlights the importance of the language rules and their learning by the children. He introduced the following mnemonic S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G to explain the communication process:

- S: Setting
- P: Participants
- E: Ends

- A: Acts sequence  
K: Key  
I: Instrumentalities  
N: Norms  
G: Genres

Social Psychology is a sub-field of psychology that studies how others influence our thoughts, feelings, and actions. The theory of social psychology examines the effects of large social forces and the ways different people act in the same and different situations. It involves the following factors:

- **Social Influence** – one’s behaviour affected by others presence
- **Social Cognition** – ways of thinking about others
- **Social Interaction** – people relating to others

The **macrosocial** factors include:

- Global and National Status of L1 and L2: Language represents power and status symbolically and practically at the national and international levels.
- Boundaries and Identities: The territories of nations often act as language barriers but sometimes useful for acculturation processes whereby a new culture and behaviour are acculturated.
- Institutional Forces and Constraints: These factors are concerned with the impact of social control, political and religious practices, and educational and economic opportunities for L2 knowledge and its use.
- Social Categories: Age, gender, ethnicity, educational background, occupation, and economic statuses are some of the major social categories that might affect the learning processes.
- Circumstances of Learning: Learners’ previous experiences influence L2 learning.

## Lesson-39

**ACQUIRING KNOWLEDGE FOR L2 USE****Topic 122: Academic Competence**

There are two fundamental types of communicative competence for the purpose of L2 learning: ‘Academic Competence’ and ‘Interpersonal Competence’.

**Academic Competence:** is the ability to demonstrate the language knowledge which the learner acquires for some subjects and use it as medium for developing research. It focuses on the acquisition of specific vocabulary for reading and writing purposes. According to Diperna and Elliot Model, the academic competence consists of ‘the skills, attitudes, and behaviours of learners who contribute to success in the classrooms.’ (p. 294).

To develop the academic competence, the learners must have the academic self-efficacy which is the learners’ belief that they can accomplish any academic task successfully. Academic outcome expectations and academic efficacy expectations are the two general elements of academic self-efficacy.

**Topic 123: Interpersonal Competence**

It refers to the learners’ ability to use the appropriate L2 vocabulary, primarily in the face-to-face interaction with other speakers. The learner must be equipped to adjust his/her interaction according to other people’s responses. The interpersonally competent people have the following characteristics:

- They use this awareness to better understand others and to adapt their behaviour accordingly
- Interpersonally competent people build and nurture strong, lasting, mutually beneficial relationships.
- Interpersonally competent people resolve conflict in a positive manner. UCLA researchers (1988) proposed five dimensions of interpersonal competence:
  1. Initiating relationships
  2. Self-disclosure
  3. Providing emotional support
  4. Asserting displeasure with others’ actions
  5. Managing interpersonal conflicts

Priorities for L2 communicative activities: For academic competence, these are reading, listening, writing, and speaking; whereas, for interpersonal competence, the order is listening, speaking, reading and writing. They are further divided into receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (writing and speaking).

**Topic 124: Receptive Activities**

Receptive Activities are designed to develop the receptive skills. Listening and Reading are called receptive skills as the learner receives the input and does not produce the language. They are sometime

referred to as passive skills, but the learner is still required to participate in the process by comprehending the input to create meaningful learning. Reading, as a receptive skill provides the learner with knowledge of technological developments, world news, and scientific discoveries etc. It includes the following prerequisites of L2 linguistic knowledge:

- Recognition of vocabulary of both basic and subject-specific terms, including their meaning, graphic representation etc.
- Complex sentence structures, and punctuation conventions
- Organization of features at the sentence level
- Organization of features at the discourse level and texts structuring (Grabe, 2002)

For effective communication, listening plays an important role because if listening is not clear, it might lead to the lack of appropriate comprehension on the part of the learner. Its continuum consists of listening tasks – on a continuum from ‘reciprocal to non-reciprocal communication’ (Lynch, 1998).

### **Topic 125: Productive Activities**

Productive Activities are designed for the development of the productive skills. Speaking and writing are known as productive skills as they produce language. Writing is the most important productive activity for L2 learners to express themselves for developing relevant texts according to the target situation requirements. The learners need to follow the following steps for writing proficiency:

- Formulating mental concepts, that are to be expressed centrally, requires content knowledge.
- Recognizing what content will be relevant for intended readers, and what will be shared versus new information, requires context knowledge.
- Constructing text within socially defined conventions of expression (including selecting linguistic forms and organization patterns that are appropriate for the topic, purpose, and audience) also requires other aspects of knowledge of culture.

L2 learners use speaking for interpersonal as well as academic or professional purposes. It consists of speech acts and pragmatic competence. ‘Speech Acts’ are the utterances which fulfill certain actions of what is said by people in the course of interpersonal communication. Learning how to perform these acts in the L2 is central to language learning, and knowing when to deploy them is basic to what we call pragmatic competence.

**Lesson-40****RESEARCH TRENDS IN ESP CLASSROOM****Topic 126: Trends and Issues**

Researches on trends and issues have highlighted the differences between the general purposes language and specific purposes language. According to Long (2005), ‘General (language for no purpose) courses at any proficiency level almost always teach too much, e.g., vocabulary, skills, registers or styles some learners do not need, and too little, e.g., omitting lexis and genres that they do. It is more defensible to view every course as involving specific purposes instead of a ‘one-size-fits-all approach’ (Long, 2005, p. 19).

Some of the emerging trends in ESP are:

- Teaching and learning is to create such a learning environment where students’ knowledge construction can be facilitated. Such an environment is one in which students are challenged without being frustrated, and in which they are focused on intentional learning to fulfill a set of learning goals (Jonassen et al., 2003).
- ESP digital learning environment that is ‘learner-centered, knowledge-centered, community centered and assessment-centered’ (Bransford et al., 2000).
- Blended Learning (BL) and attitudes of ESP students towards it. Tafazoli (2012) argues that technology-based course is best regarded as a student motivator.
- Replacing traditional ESP classroom with flipped classroom.
- Authentic material for situated learning.
- Training for ‘skills gap analysis’ – assess the current state and formulate a desired state.

Issues in Pakistani contexts are related to lack of understanding of differences between EGP and ESP, larger class size, lack of content appropriacy and relevancy, outdated teaching practices, teacher’s lack of expertise, and learner’s motivation.

**Topic 127: Needs Analysis for Curriculum Development**

The term ‘Needs Analysis’ has been defined as ‘... Needs is actually an umbrella term that embraces many aspects, incorporating learners’ goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, their reasons for taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences, and the situations they will need to communicate in ... (3, pp.73-74). (Hyland) and NA is ‘the cornerstone of ESP and leads to a much focused course’ (1, p. 122).

According to Allwright:

- Needs: are the skills which a student sees as being relevant to him or herself.
- Wants: are those needs on which students put a high priority in the available, limited time or in other words it is what learner feels she/he needs.
- Lacks: are the difference between the students’ present competence and the desired competence.

Dudley-Evans and St. John proposed the following as key characteristics for needs analysis:

- A. Professional information about the learners
- B. Personal information about the learners
- C. English language information about the learners
- D. The learners' lacks: the gap between (C) and (A) – lacks.
- E. Language learning information
- F. Professional communication information about (A)
- G. What is wanted from the course?
- H. Information about the environment in which the course will be run

### **Topic 128: Assessment Issues in ESP Teaching**

The assessment issues in ESP teaching are primarily concerned with the ongoing evaluation of the course's learning objectives and learners' performance. The basic purpose of assessment is to provide learners with useful feedback to develop the required competence in ESP.

Types of monitoring and assessment in ESP contexts include:

- 1. Placement assessment
- 2. Observation of learning
- 3. Short -term achievement assessment
- 4. Diagnostic assessment
- 5. Achievement assessment
- 6. Proficiency assessment

According to Bojović (2006), the four basic components of teacher training are:

- 1. Selection, initial and terminal, is necessary because not every human being would become an adequate language teacher,
- 2. Continuing personal education – the assumption is that graduates level of education is insufficient.
- 3. General professional training as an educator and teacher. It involves what all teachers need to know regardless of which subject they teach.
- 4. Special training as a teacher of a foreign or second language.

### **Topic 129: Teachers Training in ESP**

The emphasis on teachers training in ESP emerged in 1970s by J. R. Ewer with a limited scope, only concerned with students' conceptual weaknesses, material analysis of scientific texts, and the organization of the program. It was McDonough (1984) who broadened the scope of teachers training in ESP by redefining the term to include the areas of classroom skills as well as teachers' education. The training aims at providing the teachers with the necessary knowledge and tools to deal with their own students' specializations.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) prefer the term 'ESP Practitioner' and distinguish the following roles of ESP practitioners:

- 1. Teacher

2. Course Designer
3. Researcher
4. Collaborator
5. Evaluator

Abdulaziz et al. (2012) in their article ‘Change from a General English Teacher to an ESP Practitioner: Issues and Challenges in Pakistan’, highlighted the following challenges for ESP teachers in Pakistani context:

- ‘In the future, students will come up with different objectives, specialized vocabulary, and expressions. More field-specific vocabulary will emerge.... In order to overcome situations as these, the ESP practitioners need to be more dynamic in their approach; keep themselves sentient and updated about the demands of the world, learn to make use of the internet....’
- ‘More trained teachers are needed and teacher training institutions are required because the teacher training programs run by the Government offer a very minute number of seats and cannot supply sufficient amount of trained English teaching faculty.’
- ‘Team teaching of subject/content teacher and language teacher is a new concept. Therefore, issues might emerge regarding this new notion of their working in collaboration for course designing implementation, etc.’
- ‘Some ESP practitioners are not aware of the fact that they are teaching ESP.’
- ‘ESP practitioners should be good researchers as well. Nowadays, however, the researches done are focused more towards achieving fame and not for learning.’