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 form 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-today 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 behavior (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).

Topic-079: Bridging Language Learning Research and Language Education

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
3. Evaluation includes:
   - Placement assessment
   - Observation of learning
   - Short-term achievement assessment
   - Diagnostic achievement assessment
   - Proficiency assessment

Lesson-23 DIRECTIONS FOR RESEARCH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Topic-081: Research Within Applied Linguistics

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.

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: Schimdt'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.

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).

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.

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 (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). (Towelland Hawkins, 1994, p. 15).

Lesson-26

COMPARING SIX THEORIES-I

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 shortterm 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.

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

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 behaviorist 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-095: Age

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. Behavioristic: 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.

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

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

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]

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 behaviors 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

• 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 metacognitive 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-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 abilitie

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 behavior.' 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 selfjudgment 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, selfefficacy 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 behavior. 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.

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 behavior 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.

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

Stages of Culture Acquisition

3) Stage 1: is a period of excitement and euphoria over the newness of the surroundings.
4) 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.
5) 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.
6) 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

Lesson-35

LANGUAGE LEARNING PEDAGOGY

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 behavior.

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

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 117: Learning Styles Model

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.

Topic 119: Societal and Environmental Factors in Learning Setting

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 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 behavior affected by others presence
- Social Cognition – ways of thinking about others
- Social Interaction – people relating to others

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 behaviors 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 behavior 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

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

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.

Topic 127: Needs Analysis for Curriculum Development

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

B. Professional information about the learners
C. Personal information about the learners

D. English language information about the learners
E. The learners' lacks: the gap between (C) and (A) – lacks.
F. Language learning information

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.



Social strategies

Oxford (1990) suggests three sets of social strategies.

1- Ask questions for clarification or verification and for correction.
2- Cooperate with others which cover cooperation with peers and cooperating with proficient users of the new language.
3- Empathize with others which include developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others thoughts and feelings.

Intrinsic motivated behavior

Intrinsic motivation involves engaging in a behavior because it is personally rewarding; essentially, performing an activity for its own sake rather than the desire for some external reward. Essentially, the behavior itself is its own reward.

cognitive strategies

- Practicing
- Reviewing and sending messages
- Analyzing and reasoning
- Creating structure for input and output

Input learning

Input refers to the exposure learners have to authentic language in use. This can be from various sources, including the teacher, other learners, and the environment around the learners. Input can be compared to intake, which is input then taken in and internalized by the learner so it can be applied.

Input Learning: process of learning things from resources, teachers or other people and keeping them in our brain. (Listening, Reading)

Levelt model

For language generation, Processability Theory relies on Levelt's Model (1989) which refers to language processing in real time and within human psychological constraints, such as word access and human memory. The process how to follow from Conceptualization to Formulation to Articulation and to self monitoring. So these are different stages that a learner goes through. Conceptualization; the learner conceptualize what s/he wishes to communicate Formulation; where you formulate the thought into linguistic plan, the lexicons basically Articulation; you execute the plan through the biological speech system that how u articulate those linguistic plans Self-monitoring; which monitors the speech to check whether it is what we intend to convey and how we intend to say it contributes towards solving for SLA what is known as the 'developmental problem': why do learners follow universal stages of acquisition?

Positive and negative evidence in L2

The accepted, correct language elements of target language learners receive through their exposure to L2 is positive evidence. In Positive evidence is the information has to be authentic, modified, simplified, elaborated.

Negative evidence is the “information about what is incorrect in the language produced by learner and what is needed to make a correction to align the learner’s language with the target language” (Gass, 2002, pp.170-171). To Mitchell & Myles (2004, p.22), negative evidence is “some kind of input that lets the learner know that a particular form is not acceptable according to target like norms”.

Factors of affective learning

1. Attitude: A positive attitude towards anyone or anything that has to do with learning, can have a positive effect in second language acquisition
2. Level of anxiety: Feelings of anxiety are obviously uncomfortable and students in the process of second language acquisition can feel anxiety due to diverse factors which in turn leads to language inhibition
3. Self esteem/self confidence: Self-esteem is the self-confidence level and self-respect a person has and it can influence learning

Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are one type of learning strategy that learners use in order to learn more successfully. These include repetition, organizing new language, summarizing meaning, guessing meaning from context, using imagery for memorization. All of these strategies involve deliberate manipulation of language to improve learning. Classifications of learning strategies distinguish between cognitive strategies and two other types, metacognitive strategies (organizing learning), and social/ affective strategies.

Monitor model

The monitor model is an interesting set of hypotheses that were developed by Stephen Krashen in the late 1970s. The monitor model is interesting because some of its premises have been disproved, but during the 80s and 90s the monitor model was adopted by some educational systems much to their chagrin. However, this is not to say that this theory is unusable for the language educator, but what is taken from the theory and applied to the classroom must be weighted accordingly.

Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

The origin of this hypothesis is completely flawed and science has disproved the basis, but if examined from a different aspect, can be beneficial to instruction.

Krashen saw acquisition as subconscious learning that was facilitated by something Chomsky had proposed in universal grammar (UG Theory) called the language acquisition device (LAD). The LAD was a feature in the brain that helped people learns languages, but Chomsky would have to later admit that there was no such thing.

If acquisition was subconscious, then the learning part of the hypothesis was what actually happens in the classroom. Since the educator is making the students consciously aware of the information, this was considered learning which is not as effective as acquisition.

Although there is no LAD as Krashen had considered when penning this hypothesis, many researchers do note there can be a difference between subconscious learning (acquisition) and conscious learning (learning).

Information processing theory

The information processing theories approach to the study of cognitive development evolved out of the American experimental tradition in psychology. Developmental psychologists who adopt the information-processing perspective account for mental development in terms of maturational changes in basic components of a child's mind. The theory is based on the idea that humans process the information they receive, rather than merely responding to stimuli. This perspective equates the mind to a computer, which is responsible for analyzing information from the environment. According to the standard information-processing model for mental development, the mind's machinery includes attention mechanisms for bringing information in, working memory for actively manipulating information, and long-term memory for passively holding information so that it can be used in the future.

Integrative motivation and instrumental motivation

Instrumental motivation refers to the one that drives human beings to reaching goals and objectives. Integrative motivation is the one that employees feel when they want to be part of the company and thrive with it

Instrumental motivation:

- task or goal-oriented, this type of motivation mainly focuses on expanding, reaching and growing
- Always looks ahead and outside
- Those whose motivation is mainly instrumental will set and pursue goals and objectives more than anything else.
- routine will be their number one enemy, destroying their drive and desire
- The perfect driving force when looking to expand, grow or disseminate

Integrative motivation:

- the motivation of permanence and stability Always looks inside
- Those whose motivation is mainly integrative will strengthen the company's values and philosophy and will seek every opportunity to create greater internal cohesion and team spirit.
- risk will be their number one enemy, paralyzing them
- the perfect force when stabilizing a new company or in situations of crisis

- Basic in departments seeking to consolidate the company: human resources, accounting, and so on.

Traditional methods of teaching that are still being adhered to in the schools:

- Teacher-centric classrooms
- Teachers in the mode of knowledge dispensers rather than facilitators
- Chalk and talk methods
- Regimented classrooms
- Lack of collaboration and group learning
- More emphasis on examinations and results rather than understanding of concepts
- Improper alignment between objectives, activities and assessments

Steps of writing

1. **Prewriting**: This is the planning phase of the writing process, when students brainstorm, research, gather and outline ideas, often using diagrams for mapping out their thoughts. Audience and purpose should be considered at this point, and for the older students, a working thesis statement needs to be started.
2. **Drafting**: Students create their initial composition by writing down all their ideas in an organized way to convey a particular idea or present an argument. Audience and purpose need to be finalized.
3. **Revising:** Students review, modify, and reorganize their work by rearranging, adding, or deleting content, and by making the tone, style, and content appropriate for the intended audience. The goal of this phase of the writing process is to improve the draft.
4. **Editing:** At this point in the writing process, writers proofread and correct errors in grammar and mechanics, and edit to improve style and clarity. Having another writer's feedback in this stage is helpful.
5. **Publishing:** In this last step of the writing process, the final writing is shared with the group. Sharing can be accomplished in a variety of ways, and with the help of computers, it can even be printed or published online