Willy A. Renandya
Handoyo Puji Widodo *Editors*

English Language Teaching Today

Linking Theory and Practice

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Editors

Willy A. Renandya is a language teacher educator with extensive teaching experience in Asia. He currently teaches applied linguistic courses at the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore. He has published articles and books on various topics, including an edited book *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* with Jack C. Richards (Cambridge University Press, 2002, 2008). His latest publications include *Motivation in the Language Classroom* (2014, TESOL International) and *Simple, Powerful Strategies for Student Centered Learning* with George M Jacobs and Michael Power (Springer, 2016).

Handoyo Puji Widodo has published extensively in refereed journals and edited volumes and presented his work at international ELT conferences in the areas of language teaching methodology, language curriculum and materials development, systemic functional linguistics in language education, and teacher professional development. His work has been grounded in socio-semiotic, socio-cognitive, and critical theories. His recent publications include "Framing vocational English materials from a social semiotic perspective: The design and use of accounting English materials" (*Second Language Acquisition Research and Materials Development for Language Learning*, Routledge) and "Engaging students in literature circles: Vocational English reading programs" (*The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, Springer).

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Helena I.R. Agustien earned her master's and doctorate degrees in applied linguistics from Macquarie University, Sydney, where she develops a special interest in discourse analysis. Her systemic functional linguistic background has the foundation of her doctorate research as well as her subsequent works. Based on this linguistic theory, she developed the national English curriculum in Indonesia known as Competence-Based Curriculum in 2004. The competence standards are now used as the basis for the School-Based Curriculum officially launched in 2006. She has been a tenured lecturer at Semarang State University since 1980, but she also spent two and a half years teaching at SEAMEO RELC. In both institutions, she is in charge of grammar in discourse that gives her ample opportunities to observe grammar issues faced by English teachers in Asia that deserve her attention. In the last year of her stay at RELC, she was the chief editor of the *RELC Journal*, and she is now an external reviewer of the journal.

Brad Blackstone is lecturer, Singapore Institute of Technology, and former chief editor of ELTWorldOnline.com. Before Singapore, Brad taught English composition, EAP, and communication skills in universities in Japan, Malaysia, Portugal, and the USA. He has also designed, directed, and implemented numerous teacher-training workshops and has presented at conferences throughout Asia. Brad's previous publications are in the areas of intercultural communication, academic writing, and CALL.

James D. Brown is professor of second language studies at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. Educated at California State University Los Angeles, the University of California Santa Barbara, and UCLA, his areas of specialization include language testing, curriculum design, program evaluation, and research methods. In addition to over 250 book chapters and journal articles, he has published two dozen books, including *The Elements of Language Curriculum* (Heinle & Heinle, 1995); *Using Surveys in Language Programs* (Cambridge, 2001); *Doing Applied Linguistic Research* (with Rodgers, Oxford, 2002); *Testing in Language Programs* (McGraw Hill, 2005); and *Teaching Chinese, Japanese, and Korean Heritage Students* (with Kondo-Brown, LEA, 2008); as well as six volumes in the NFLRC/University of Hawaii Press monograph series. He has conducted workshops and courses in over a dozen countries, has served on many journal editorial boards, and has been on the TOEFL Research Committee, the TESOL Advisory Committee on Research, and the Executive Board of TESOL.

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Part I
Theories, Research, and Principles

English Language Teaching Today: An Introduction

Willy A. Renandya and Handoyo Puji Widodo

Abstract This introductory chapter provides a broad overview of the edited volume by describing the rationales, aims, theoretical underpinnings and organization of the book. The chapter first presents key changes that have had a major impact on the way English is used and learned by geographically diverse groups of people in the world today. It then outlines a set of research-based principles that could be used as a basis for critically examining our curriculum, for selecting and adapting our teaching materials to suit the local contexts, for designing our lessons for the teaching of listening, speaking, reading, writing and other language skills and for developing tasks and activities that meet the linguistic, cognitive and affective needs of our students. The last part of the chapter provides a brief synopsis of each of the 20 chapters.

Keywords ELT • EIL principles • SLA principles • L2 teaching methodology

1   Background

English language teaching (ELT) continues to be as dynamic and complex today as, if not more so than, it has been in the past. First, the English language itself has undergone a dramatic change in terms of its use and users. It is now used by a much greater number of people around the world and for far more diverse communicative purposes in different social settings (e.g., diverse workplaces and academic encounters). In many places in the world, it has assumed a new role as a second or official language of the country where the language is widely used in the classroom as the medium of instruction and for social and business purposes in the community. While there are countries in the world where English still continues to have the

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status of a foreign language or an additional language and has a restricted role in society, many believe that the language will soon assume a more important role in these countries. Japan is a case in point where multinational companies (e.g., Honda) have started to make compulsory the use of English in some of their business dealings (Kubota 2015).

The widespread use of English in the world today has also given rise to the emergence of new varieties of English. Thus, in addition to the more familiar varieties of English spoken in inner circle countries (e.g., the US and UK), there are other varieties spoken in outer circle (e.g., Singapore and the Philippines) and expanding circle (e.g., China, Indonesia, and Japan) countries. The question of whether these newer varieties have an equal sociolinguistic status as the more established ones (e.g., American English) and the extent to which these newer varieties should be incorporated in the L2 classroom is still being debated, but it has become increasingly clear that in order to prepare L2 learners to become effective speakers of English as an International Language (EIL), they will need to understand these new varieties and be understood by speakers of these varieties (Mckay 2012).

Second, the way English is learned and taught in the world has changed too. People are no longer preoccupied with the quest for the best or most effective teaching methods. This is because teaching methods touted by method gurus to be effective has proven to be less so when implemented under authentic classroom conditions. The belief that designer teaching methods would work in all ELT contexts has now been largely abandoned. Richards and Renandya (2002) highlighted two reasons: (i) methods minimize the role of the individual teacher and requires that they religiously follow the methods regardless of their teaching style and (ii) methods fail to take into account the larger contexts of learning and "focus on only one small part of a more complex set of elements" (p. 6). We now know that other curricular elements such as the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teachers and the assessment procedures play an equally, if not more, important role in the success of a language programme. In addition, the larger societal context in which the teaching of English is situated has a big influence on the process and outcome of learning. For example, teaching methods that conform to the local socio-cultural norms are more likely to be more well-received and contribute more to the attainment of the goals of learning compared to those teaching methods that clash with the local traditions. Similarly, in places where society holds a positive view towards English language learning, the outcome of language instruction is likely to be more positive compared to other places where negative attitudes towards English prevail. Hence, instead of discussing specific teaching methods and recommending them for adoption, this book focuses on widely accepted pedagogical principles, i.e., research-based generalizations that could be used as a basis for planning, delivering and evaluating classroom instructions.

Next, the increasing use of the digital technology in the classroom has changed the way English is learned and taught. Language learning is no longer limited to the traditional classroom context where the teacher and the teaching materials often provide the main source of language input and language practice. The Internet has made it possible for learners to immerse themselves in the rich and abundant target

language input which is practically available 24 h a day and to seek more numerous opportunities to use what they have learned for authentic communication with other English speakers and learners from around the world.

Finally, at the policy level, wide ranging changes that have direct impact on the way English is used and taught are being (or have recently been) introduced. An increasing number of countries have now adopted English as a second or official language, making English as the official language of the government, the medium of instruction in schools and in universities and the language of the media. In many countries, English is now taught at increasingly younger age levels. These changes naturally have huge implications for teaching. Teachers need to be trained and re-trained to meet the changing language learning needs of their students; new teaching methodology will need to be used to cater for the diverse proficiency levels of the students and new ways of assessing learning outcomes will also need to be devised. In some countries (e.g., Malaysia and Vietnam), the training or retraining of English teachers also included helping teachers improve their language proficiency. In these countries, teachers are expected to possess an advanced level of proficiency in the English language (e.g., C1 or C2 on the Common European Framework of Reference).

The changes discussed above are not exhaustive, but they illustrate the kind of changes that has made ELT a vibrant and dynamic field of study. As the field changes, we too must change in terms of the way we develop our curricula, write teaching materials, design our lessons and assess learning outcomes.

2   Aims of the Book

This book has been written to illustrate the complexity and multi-faceted nature of ELT in the world today and suggest a principled way of dealing with this complexity. It is intended for undergraduate and graduate students studying in TESOL, Applied Linguistics or other second language education programmes, for practising TESOL professionals and scholars who wish to keep up with recent changes in ELT. This book has three goals:

- To provide a broad overview of recent thinking and scholarship on second and foreign language learning with a particular focus on ELT in diverse learning contexts;
- To provide a source of readings and discussion activities that can be used in undergraduate and postgraduate TESOL programmes, and other pre-service and in-service language teacher training centres in the world;
- To provide a source of teaching principles and strategies that practising teachers can adapt and use in their work.

As the book covers a wide range of topics typically included in a TESOL methodology book, it can be used as a required or recommended textbook for a language teaching methodology course. Another option would be to select relevant chapters

in the book (e.g., the chapters on speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary and intercultural competence) as supplemental readings for a methodology course.

3   Principles and Practices

The chapters in this volume reflect three broad categories of principles. The first category of principles is fairly general and applies to wider learning contexts:

1. L2 curricula should place the learner at the centre of learning.
2. Teachers should continually engage in reflective practice to boost their professionalism.

Jacobs and Renandya's chapteron student-centred learning "Student-Centred Learning in ELT" reflects the first principle above, i.e., for optimal learning to occur in the L2 classroom, teachers need to take into account students' linguistic, social, cognitive and emotional needs. Farrell's chapter "Does Writing Promote Reflective Practice?" exemplifies how teachers should continually examine and reflect on their beliefs, teaching philosophy and pedagogical practices in order to develop deeper understanding of their own teaching strategies and how these can be used to maximize student learning. We believe that a reflective teacher who places their students at the centre of learning is well-placed to create optimal conditions for L2 learning.

The second category of principles comes from recent research and thinking in the field of Teaching English as an International Language (Mckay 2012; Renandya 2012). Some of the key principles are listed below:

3. L2 curricula should promote multilingualism.
4. L2 curricula should promote awareness of emerging varieties of English and exposed students to these varieties.
5. L2 curricula should embrace multiculturalism and promote cross-cultural awareness.

Mahboob and Lin's chapter "Using Local Languages in English Language Classrooms" nicely illustrates Principle 3 above, arguing that a monolingual approach to teaching English where English should be used solely in the English language classroom is no longer tenable in today's multilingual contexts. They maintain that students' first languages can instead be used as useful pedagogical resources to aid students' learning of English. Principles 4 and 5 are evident in the chapter "Current Issues in the Development of Materials for Learners of English as an International Language (EIL)" by Tomlinson on how teaching materials should expose students to a range of English varieties used by international speakers of English, in "Teaching Pronunciation to Learners of English as an Lingua Franca (ELF)" by Wong on the teaching of pronunciation which encourages teachers to teach English sounds for international intelligibility, in "Teaching English for Intercultural Spoken Communication" by Newton on increasing students'

intercultural competence, and also in "Teaching Academic Writing in Context" by Xu on how teachers should respect students' written production which may contain features of emerging varieties of English.

The last category of principles is derived from extensive research in second language learning and acquisition. Some of the key principles include the following:

6. L2 curricula should provide learners with large amounts of oral and written language input.
7. L2 curricula should provide learners with ample output practice opportunities.
8. L2 curricula should include deliberate and systematic teaching of language features such as pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

Principle 6 finds its application in a number of chapters in the volume, notably in Renandya and Jacobs' chapter "Extensive Reading and Listening in the L2 Classroom" and Siyanova-Chanturia and Webb's chapter "Teaching Vocabulary in the EFL Context" on vocabulary learning and how learners can enhance their vocabulary size and depth via extensive reading and viewing. Chang's chapter "Teaching L2 Listening: In and Outside the Classroom" also encourages teachers to provide learners with a great deal of language input via repeated listening practice. "Teaching Reading and Viewing to L2 Learners" by Zhang and "Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP): English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)" by Widodo also encourage teachers to provide learners with large amounts of language input. Finally, Wilkinson's chapter "Language Learning with ICT" illustrates how the Internet could be tapped on to increase the amount of language exposure that L2 learners can get.

Principle 7, i.e., learners need varied and meaningful practice in using language they have previously learned, is reflected in the chapter on Teaching Speaking by Goh and the two chapters on writing "Teaching Writing" and "Teaching Academic Writing in Context". These chapters discuss principled and systematic ways in which learners could be guided and scaffolded to produce spoken and written language using approaches that are well-aligned with recent thinking in second language production. The last chapter "Facilitating Workplace Communicative Competence" by Jaidev and Blackstone illustrates a classroom-based project that allows students to use their language and communication skills for authentic purposes.

Principle 8 encourages teachers to teach important language features in a more systematic and deliberate manner. Chapter "Teaching English Grammar in Asian Contexts" by Agustien encourages teachers to teach grammar in context and focus on both the linguistic forms and functions in clearly defined contexts. Finally, the chapter "Teaching Vocabulary in the EFL Context" by Siyanova-Chanturia and Webb present principled ways in which high frequency words could be selected for deliberate teaching that focuses both on breadth and depth of vocabulary learning. Learning vocabulary in this way is believed to contribute productively to learners' developing proficiency in the language.

4   Organization of the Book

The book is organized into two sections. Section 1 contains more theoretically-oriented chapters that lay the ground for the more practical chapters in Sect. 2. The first section, *Theories*, *Research*, *and Principles*, consists of six chapters. In "Student-Centred Learning in ELT", Jacobs and Renandya sets the scene by first discussing the theories and principles of students-centred learning (SCL). They argue that SCL is well-aligned with current thinking and scholarship in ELT and can be used as a basis for developing effective second language curricula. They then outline the key elements of SCL such as student-student interaction, learner autonomy, curricular integration and respect for diversity, and illustrate how each of these elements can be implemented in the language classroom. In their chapter "Using Local Languages in English Language Classrooms", Mahboob and Lin argue for the inclusion of local languages in English language classrooms. They first provide a historical account of the role of local languages in English classes and then elaborate on how a dynamic, situated, multimodal, and semiotic understanding of language helps teachers recognize possible roles of local languages in English language education. In the next chapter "Applying Language Learning Principles to Coursebooks", Macalister critically examines the extent to which the coursebook we use reflects current research and thinking in ELT. He argues that since for many teachers the coursebook is in actual fact the enacted curriculum that guides instruction, it is of utmost importance that the contents and organization of the coursebook reflect research-based principles. He encourages teachers to not just follow the coursebook uncritically, but to take proactive actions by modifying the coursebook and adding teacher-designed activities to better meet the language learning needs of the students. Thus, the teacher should become a critical user of the coursebook and their roles should not be limited to being a curriculum-transmitter, but should be expanded to those of a curriculum-developer and curriculum-maker.

The following chapter by Tomlinson "Current Issues in the Development of Materials for Learners of English as an International Language (EIL)", discusses how the needs of learners of English as a lingua franca (ELF) should be reflected in language materials development (e.g., course books). He contends that coursebooks today should expose L2 learners to a wider variety of language features that reflect the way English is used by both native English speakers and ELF speakers. In response to this need, he provides a set of guidelines that can be used to make our teaching materials meet the varied needs of ELF users. The chapter "Assessments in ELT: Theoretical Options and Sound Pedagogical Choices" by Brown illuminates 12 theoretically sound assessment types currently available to language teachers for assessing the knowledge and skills of their students. He offers practical suggestions on how to select the most relevant assessment types for classroom use. The selection procedures typically involve analyzing the communicative characteristics of the assessment types and the logistics needed to administer the test types. In the last chapter of Sect. 1 "Does Writing Promote Reflective Practice?", Farrell documented how three teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) made use of a teaching

journal as a reflective tool. He found that two of the three participating teachers reported that writing a teaching journal allowed them to reflect on their practice, but one teacher found that keeping a teaching journal, while useful, could be rather stressful. Drawing on this empirical evidence, Farrell offers some suggestions and cautions about using teaching journals to promote reflective practice.

The second section, *Pedagogical Practices*, consists of chapters which discuss a variety of pedagogical approaches for teaching language skills. Renandya and Jacobs's chapter "Extensive Reading and Listening in the L2 Classroom" explores the potential of implementing extensive reading (ER) and extensive listening (EL) in a language programme. They present key principles for implementing both approaches in the L2 classroom, arguing that L2 learners' language development can be greatly facilitated by capitalizing on the synergistic effects of ER and EL. They conclude the chapter by outlining problems and concerns that language teachers may have when implementing ER and EL in their classroom. In her chapter "Teaching L2 Listening: In and Outside the Classroom", Chang discusses how the teaching of L2 listening can be carried out more effectively. Drawing on recent research into L2 listening, Chang offers numerous strategies that can be used to provide the kind of support that L2 learners need at the pre-listening (e.g., language support activities), while-listening (e.g., focused listening) and post-listening (e.g., reflecting on listening problems) phases of a listening lesson. While listening practice in the classroom is valuable, Chang suggests that students should be encouraged to continue with their own independent listening practice outside the classroom. Zhang's chapter "Teaching Reading and Viewing to L2 Learners" presents a pedagogical framework for teaching reading and viewing skills. He outlines a number of practical reading and viewing strategies that teachers can use (e.g., schema-based inferencing, predicting, connecting, skimming and scanning strategies) to help students read both traditional and multimodal texts with greater comprehension. The chapter by Goh "Teaching Speaking" presents a comprehensive and holistic approach to teaching speaking. This approach can offer rich affordances for practice. Informed by metacognitive theory, she elaborates on the construct of speaking and pedagogical procedures that can contribute positively to L2 learners' speaking performance. She argues that the design of an effective lesson on speaking must address not only the linguistic, but also the affective, cognitive and metacognitive needs of the learners.

Given an increasingly important need for learning ELF, Newton, in his chapter "Teaching English for Intercultural Spoken Communication" proposes a set of principles to guide the teaching of English for intercultural spoken communication. He argues that by understanding these principles, teachers can cultivate the practice of intercultural communicative language teaching in their teaching. In the chapter "Teaching Writing", Cheung presents an overview of approaches to teaching writing, highlighting the strengths and limitations of each approach when implemented in a writing class. Current scholarship in L2 writing, she contends, suggests that a principled approach to L2 writing instruction must take into account the social and cognitive nature of writing so that L2 writing teachers could provide the kind of support that students need to produce a piece of writing that is socially and

linguistically acceptable. Her chapter describes how a socio-cognitive model can be used as a basis to inform L2 writing instruction. The next chapter by Xu "Teaching Academic Writing in Context" explores how EIL ideas could be used as a basis for teaching academic writing in diverse geographical contexts. Xu examines three academic writing courses offered in three different contexts, i.e., Beijing, Hong Kong and Melbourne and highlights pedagogical principles for teaching academic writing in these contexts. The chapter by Agustien "Teaching English Grammar in Asian Contexts" addresses the teaching of English grammar in Asian contexts. She proposes a form-meaning-use strategy for teaching English grammar and illustrates how this strategy could be used for teaching of a hard-to-learn grammar concept known as Finite.

In their chapter "Teaching Vocabulary in the EFL Context", Siyanova-Chanturia and Webb discuss principled ways for teaching vocabulary in EFL contexts. Their chapter addresses pedagogically important questions when we teach L2 vocabulary: Which words should be taught? How many words do EFL learners need to know? What should a vocabulary-learning program include? How can vocabulary learning be fostered given limited classroom time? Which activities might be useful in indirect vocabulary learning? The next chapter by Wong "Teaching Pronunciation to Learners of English as an Lingua Franca (ELF)", explores three major issues in the teaching of English pronunciation: WHY, WHAT, and HOW in order to cater to the needs of learners whose primary language is not English or who use English as a lingua franca (ELF). Informed by insights from ELF research, she offers practical tips on how teachers can approach the teaching of pronunciation that focuses on clarity and comprehensibility speech rather than on getting students to produce native-like speech. Wilkinson's chapter "Language Learning with ICT" addresses key issues in language learning with ICT. While the use of ICT is becoming a norm in many L2 classrooms, he suggests that the use of ICT should be informed by relevant L2 learning principles. He offers practical suggestions on how to select ICT tools for classroom use and how to develop instructional activities that can enhance L2 learning. The next chapter by Widodo "Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP): English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)" do provides a theoretical and practical account of how to teach English for Specific Purposes in general and English for vocational purposes (EVP) in particular. He presents such key issues as needs analysis in ESP, EVP, elements of EVP materials, and Vocational English tasks that ESP teachers can adopt or adapt. In the last chapter, "Facilitating Workplace Communicative Competence", Jaidev and Blackstone provide an account of an inquiry-based proposal communication project designed to equip undergraduate students with workplace communicative competence. The project nicely illustrates how twenty-first century skills (e.g., collaborative and critical thinking skills) can be productively incorporated in the teaching of workplace communication skills.

5   Conclusion

We hope that this book can be an invaluable resource for teacher educators who wish to enrich their course syllabus and teaching contents and provide their students with current thinking and scholarship in ELT. We believe that the 20 chapters in this book, written by ELT experts and practitioners from diverse L2 teaching contexts, reflect the complex and dynamic nature of ELT in the world today. We also believe that the chapters provide principled accounts of how a set of research-based principles could be used a basis for examining our curriculum, for selecting and adapting our teaching materials, for designing our lessons for the teaching of listening, speaking, reading, writing and other language skills and for developing language learning tasks and activities that meet the diverse needs of our students.

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Student-Centred Learning in ELT

George M. Jacobs and Willy A. Renandya

Abstract   This chapter has three parts. The first part briefly defines student centred learning and some of its elements. The chapter's second part examines some of the roots of student centred learning. The final and largest section of the chapter goes deeper into ten elements of student centred learning and discusses their application in second language education. These ten elements are students and teachers as co-learners, student-student interaction, learner autonomy, focus on meaning, curricular integration, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessments, learning climate and motivation. The chapter seeks to emphasize the idea that in essence learning is a student centred journey. Whether teachers accept this idea or reject it, the reality remains. The chapter's authors welcome and exult in this reality, and they wrote the chapter to share with fellow teachers some of what other teachers and their students have, in turn, shared with them about how to teach given this student centred reality.

Keywords Student-centred learning • Active learning • Cooperative learning • Student-student interaction • Learner autonomy • Thinking skills • Diversity • Students and teachers as co-learners • Learning climate • Constructivism

1   Introduction

Many second language teachers are familiar with the term Student Centred Learning (SCL), also known as Learner Centred Teaching, Active Learning, Person Centred Learning and, in preschools and primary schools, as Child Centred Teaching. This chapter begins by looking at some of the meanings and elements of SCL such as student-student interaction, learner autonomy, curricular integration, respect for

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diversity, thinking skills and alternative assessments. It then traces some of the construct's roots. Four of the most important roots, i.e., Progressive Education, Humanistic Psychology, Constructivism and Socio-Cultural Theory, are briefly discussed and explicit connections between these roots and SCL elements are highlighted. The largest part of the chapter suggests practical applications of SCL in second language learning so that L2 teachers can try these out and explore further applications appropriate for their own teaching contexts.

2 Meanings and Elements of Student Centred Learning

Definitions of student centred learning (SCL) vary. Felder and Brent (1996, p. 43) defined SCL as "a broad teaching approach that includes substituting active learning for lectures, holding students responsible for their learning, and using self paced and/or cooperative (team-based) learning." SCL shifts the focus of instruction from teachers to students and prepares students to be lifelong learners, i.e., people with the ability and desire to continue learning inside and outside of formal education.

Many elements have been proposed for SCL. Table 1, adapted from Jacobs et al. (2016), describes some of these elements.

Table 1 Ten elements of student centred learning

Elements of student centred learning	Brief explanation
Students and teachers as co-learners	Teachers gladly acknowledge that they do not know everything and teachers learn along with students
Student-student interaction	Teachers encourage students to share with their peers in both face-to-face and online contexts
Learner autonomy	Students become more independent of teachers and, thus, more responsible for their own learning
Focus on meaning	The best learning takes place when students fully understand what they are studying and why they are studying it
Curricular integration	Students understand the links between, on one hand, what they study in school and, on the other hand, life beyond the classroom
Diversity	Learning caters to students' differences and helps students appreciate the benefits of diversity
Thinking skills	Students go beyond the information given to them, as they apply, give examples, disagree, make new connections, teach each other, and discover
Alternative assessment	Assessment broadens to include non-traditional forms and students join teachers as assessors
Learning climate	Students and teachers strive toward an atmosphere conducive to robust participation by all class members
Motivation	Intrinsic motivation becomes predominant, as classroom climate harmonises with students' innate desire to learn

3   Roots of Student Centred Learning

This second section of the chapter looks briefly at roots of SCL in four overlapping perspectives on education: Progressivism, Humanistic Psychology, Constructivism, and Socio-Cultural Theory. Readers will certainly note the links between the four perspectives and the ten elements of SCL described in the chapter's first section. While each of these perspectives applies to education generally, each is also most applicable to second language education. These applications of SCL to second language acquisition will be explored in the third section of the chapter.

Progressive Education can perhaps best be understood by contrasting it with teaching that is based on the learning of traditional curricula passed down from tens, hundreds and even thousands of years in the past. Dewey (1929) was a champion of Progressivism, which emphasises learning by doing, interacting with the worlds in which students live in the present day, cooperating with classmates and with others beyond the classroom, and using learning to improve the lives of others. Classical, traditional knowledge is valued by Progressivism, but it is valued for what it offers for use in enjoying and improving the world today, not as knowledge for the sake of grades or exams.

Humanistic Psychology can be understood by contrasting it with Behaviourist Psychology, in particular, three characteristics of Behaviourism: (1) emphasis on behaviours, rather than the thoughts and feelings underlying those behaviours; (2) a view that laws of learning are generalizable across species and regardless of contexts; and (3) extrinsic motivation, i.e., motivation from outside students, rather than inside, the organisms. Humanistic Psychology, led by theorists such as Rogers (e.g., Rogers et al. 2013), take a very different view, one which emphasises not just cognition but also affect, such as attitudes, self-esteem and motivation, which looks for what is unique in each situation and each individual and which strives for intrinsic motivation, i.e., motivation from inside students.

A third influence on SCL flows from Constructivist Theory (Piaget 1954). Constructivism derives its name from the belief that learners internally construct their own knowledge, rather than passively receiving knowledge which is poured into learners by external agents, such as teachers and course materials. The process of knowledge construction is an active one based on learners taking information from teachers, course materials, the internet and other sources and making it their own, by such means as explaining, debating, role playing, creating visuals, comparing and connecting.

This interaction with others is highlighted by Socio-Cultural Theory (Vygotsky 1978), a fourth perspective that influences SCL. A key concept in Socio-Cultural Theory is scaffolding, i.e., the learning students gain via interaction with teachers, peers and others. However, not all types of interaction are of equal value. For instance, Webb et al. (2009) reported research on the learning of mathematics suggesting that just sharing answers helps neither the givers nor the receivers of the answers. Instead, providers and receivers of help only benefit when they engage in forms of higher order thinking, such as explanations. Thus, Socio-Cultural Theory has much in common with Constructivism, including that they both emphasise what has been called Social Constructivism, i.e., constructing knowledge in a process of learning from and with others.

4 Linking Ten Elements of SCL with Second Language Pedagogy

This fourth section of the chapter examines each of the ten elements of SCL presented in Table 1 and links these elements with second language teaching.

4.1 Students and Teachers as Co-learners

Inspiration for the Students and Teachers as Co-Learners element of SCL comes from Socrates, the ancient Greek philosopher, who supposedly said, "To know is to know that you know nothing. That is the meaning of true knowledge." Indeed, language teachers, as do all teachers, have a great deal to learn from and with their students. Areas of learning for language teachers include language, content and pedagogy. In the area of language, for instance, many years ago, the first author of this chapter attended a talk by a renowned linguist, Michael Halliday, in which he stated that "Language is more complicated than nuclear physics." Part of that complication stems from the many, many language varieties, including the interlanguage of second language learners (Selinker and Rutherford 2013), i.e., the language produced by second language learners when they use their second language, which contains features that may be markedly different from the language of native speakers of the target language.

Many means exist for second language teachers to be co-learners with their students. One way is for both teachers and students to learn and share about electronic resources and tools. For example, new websites and apps for language learners seem to appear every week. A second way for us to be co-learners with our students is for us to say to students, "I'd like to know more about _____ . Would any of you like to investigate it with me? Afterwards, we can share what we learn with the rest of the class." While it seems easy to say that, for many teachers, including the authors of this chapter, it can be difficult for teachers to swallow their pride and admit to students that teachers do not know everything.

4.2 Student-Student Interaction

The Student-Student Interaction element of SCL offers a prime means of putting students at the centre of learning activities. When students interact with peers, they become the active ones, while teachers talk much less, acting instead as guides on the side by monitoring student-student interaction and intervening to praise, correct, question, share, and motivate. Speaking less can be a major adjustment for many

teachers, because teachers are accustomed to teacher centred instruction, beginning from when they were students themselves (Oleson and Hora 2014).

Fortunately, the Student-Student Interaction element of SCL is one for which second language teachers can access much support, as most course books and teachers' guides already include group activities. Furthermore, many books and articles have been written to help teachers adjust to their role as guides on the side (e.g., Jacobs and Kimura 2013). One frequent piece of advice suggests that teachers coach their students in the use of collaborative skills, i.e., skills that enable groups to function well, e.g., skills such as praising others, asking for reasons and offering suggestions. Second language students often lack the language involved in utilizing collaborative skills. For instance, to encourage students to praise their group mates, teachers might want to pre-teach praising gambits, such as "I like the way you _____" and "You are a good group mate because you _____." Additionally, a great deal of software facilitates electronic interaction among students. For example, the Track Changes and Comments functions in Microsoft Word facilitate peer feedback.

4.3 Learner Autonomy

The previously discussed SCL element, Student-Student Interaction, encourages students to be more independent of their teachers, as students form support networks with peers. These support networks prepare students for Learner Autonomy which Benson defined as "a capacity to control important aspects of one's learning" (2013, p. 852). "Control" is the key concept here. As part of SCL, students, with guidance from family, teachers, peers and others, take increasingly greater control of their own learning, in preparation for becoming lifelong learners. Internet resources, such as online dictionaries, facilitate learner autonomy.

However, many students lack the skill to wisely exercise control of their own learning. Furthermore, many students prefer to avoid the responsibility that accompanies learner autonomy. Thus, it may be best to introduce autonomy in a gradual manner. For instance, students can be given choices in areas such as sub-topics to study, what extensive listening or extensive reading materials to use, which post-listening or post-reading activities to do, what name to give to their group, which extra question to ask their partner or who the beneficiaries of their service learning (Billig and Waterman 2014) activity should be. [Note: service learning activities involve students (perhaps along with their teachers) in providing a service to others while at the same time, students learn knowledge and skills in line with their curriculum. An example of a service learning project might be students reading about the plight of abandoned pets before visiting a shelter for such animals and spending time with the animals there].

4.4 Focus on Meaning

How can students exercise the SCL element of Learning Autonomy when they do not understand why they are learning, what they are learning, or why the content is being taught in one particular way? Students' frequent lack of understanding of the big picture of their learning is why the SCL element of Focus on Meaning is important. Focus on Meaning becomes especially important for second language students who, unlike students in first language contexts, face the additional challenge of using a second language as they attempt to understand what is taking place.

The authors of this chapter learned a simple technique to promote Focus on Meaning from their former colleague Stephen Hall who now heads second language instruction at Sunway University in Malaysia. At the beginning of each lesson, Stephen writes or projects the lesson's agenda, consisting of the what and the how of his lesson planning. Next, Stephen explains this agenda to students and seeks their input. As each point on the agenda is tentatively completed, Stephen gives that point a tick mark. Near the end of the lesson, this agenda can serve as a tool to review the lesson. Nowadays, much course material, including syllabi, are made available to students online.

4.5 Curricular Integration

The next element of SCL, Curricular Integration, links closely to one of SCL's roots, Progressivism. The Progressivists argue for strong ties between the curriculum and the wider world. For example, language instruction can follow a content based approach, with students listening, speaking, reading and writing on topics from their future or current studies, their future careers or global issues, such as the use of non-human animals for humans' entertainment, clothing, or food. Additionally, Curricular Integration fits with Focus on Meaning, because the latter helps students grasp why they study what they do.

Here is an oft-told tale that second language teachers use to start discussions with students about the importance of learning second (or third or fourth) languages.

It's Great To Be Bilingual

A little mouse, named Minerva, awoke one morning and was about to go out from her mouse hole when she heard "thump, thump, thump, thump" "meow." "Hmmm," said the wise little mouse. "Cats go 'meow.' Cats eat mice. I better not go out now." So, Minerva returned to her little mouse bed and went back to sleep.

Later, after a pleasant 30 min of extra sleep, Minerva was feeling very hungry, so our little friend again started out to search for food, but stopped before exiting from the mouse hole when she heard, "thump, thump, thump, thump" "woof-woof." "Hmmm," said the mouse. "Dogs go 'woof-woof.' Dogs do not eat mice. I'll go out."

As soon as Minerva stepped outside the mouse hole, there was Lydia, the cat. Lydia grabbed our little hero and soon the mouse was no more. After the cat had finished devouring her prize, Lydia licked her lips and said, "No doubt about it. It sure is great to be bilingual!"

4.6 Diversity

The SCL element of Diversity becomes important, because every class of students consists of a diverse group of individuals. These differences can be seen in such forms as students' races, countries of origin, religion, sex, social class, personality, interests, achievement level and intelligence profile. SCL involves teachers being aware of and appreciating this diversity among students, so that all students have equal opportunities to learn and to enjoy their education. Furthermore, teachers can develop this diversity as a means of broadening and deepening students' learning experiences.

One means of deploying the SCL element of Diversity involves utilizing the understanding gained from Multiple Intelligences Theory (Gardner 1993), which flows from the Constructivist theory described in the second section of this chapter. By using tasks that call upon many different intelligences, i.e., different abilities and interests, some aspects of those tasks will fit the ways that different students enjoy learning and perform well. For example, a writing task can also involve creating an image or video to accompany the writing, or posting their writing on social media. In this way, different students can be stars of their groups, not just those students who write relatively well. Furthermore, students may come to better appreciate the advantages of working with people different from themselves. The internet offers many tools for mobilizing different intelligences, e.g., for visual/spatial intelligence, the internet offers a wide range of images and videos; for musical/rhythmic intelligence, songs, lyrics and scores are readily available online; and for verbal/linguistic intelligence, students and teachers can access a wide range of word puzzles, as well as tools for creating their own puzzles.

4.7 Thinking Skills

SCL offers students more responsibility for managing their own learning and the learning of peers and teachers. In order to shoulder that responsibility, students need to be able to do more than follow teachers' orders. Students need to be able to think for themselves and to be able to deal with new situations. Thus, students need to develop their thinking skills. A short list of these skills includes explaining, comparing, sequencing, categorizing, applying, creating, and evaluating.

One technique for facilitating students' development of thinking skills is Exchange-A-Question. Here, instead of students waiting for teachers to provide questions for learning, as in teacher centred learning, students, guided by their teachers, write their own questions.

Step 1   Teachers explain the types of questions students might write, such as questions that ask for explanations or comparisons. Teachers help students understand the characteristics of such questions.

Step 2   Students work alone to write one or more questions. They also write answers for their own questions. Students answering their own questions make it more likely that students will write doable questions, i.e., questions that peers can answer.

Step 3   Students exchange questions with a partner, answer each others' questions, and then compare answers.

Critical thinking skills can be fostered using a technique called Switching (McLaughlin and DeVoogd 2004). Switching, such as gender switch, setting switch, language switch and emotion switch, enables students to deepen their learning by examining different perspectives. For instance, after reading a short story, students can be asked questions such as: Would the story have ended differently if the main characters were women? (gender switch); If the story took place in a different country, would the characters come up with a different solution to their problem? (setting switch); If the heroes were more cheerful, would this change the tone of the story? (emotion switch).

4.8   Alternative Assessment

Assessment plays an important role in SCL, because students need frequent information in order to monitor their own and their peers' learning. Traditionally, teachers have been the only ones assessing students. Alternative assessment welcomes students to join in assessing the processes and products of learning, as well as the affective side of learning, such as students' motivations, attitudes, and self-esteem as learners. Other terms that are similar to alternative assessment are assessment for learning, authentic assessment, holistic assessment, and integrative assessment.

One way to implement authentic assessment involves the use of the 3-2-1 technique. 3-2-1 has many variations. Below is one variation; teachers and students can develop their own.

3. At some point in a lesson, usually but not necessarily near the end of the lesson, each pair of students write a total of three points (at least one point from each student) they have learned so far. This step encourages students to review, check, and consolidate their learning.

2. The pair members each ask two questions. These questions can be "I do not understand" questions or "I want to know more" questions. This step highlights that learning is never complete.

1. The pair members each think of one way that they can use one of the points that they have learned. This step links to the Focus on Meaning element of SCL, as the step aids students' understanding of why they learn what they learn.

4.9   Learning Climate

The SCL element of Learning Climate recognizes the affective side of learning. This follows from the work on human needs by Maslow (1971) and other Humanist psychologists. Maslow posited that in order for people to develop toward their potential, certain needs must be met. In the case of second language students' learning environment, these needs include feeling safe to communicate in a second language, being part of a learning community in which everyone is supported, feeling respected by others, and having the opportunity to develop their unique selves.

Many strategies exist for building conducive learning climates. One strategy involves teachers and students looking for the positive. For example, when teachers and students give feedback on student writing, instead of only highlighting errors, they can also point out areas of excellence in students' writing. This attention to the positive not only provides support and shows respect but also encourages students to continue doing what they do well, while at the same time, they work to improve those areas where they have yet to achieve excellence.

4.10   Motivation

Emphasis on the affective side of learning also links to the SCL element of Motivation. Whereas teacher centred learning focuses on extrinsic motivation, i.e., motivation that comes from teachers and others outside of students, SCL seeks to build intrinsic motivation, i.e., motivation that comes from within students, with students doing tasks not only as a means to an end but also for the enjoyment of the tasks themselves. Of course, as with most constructs in education, overlap exists, e.g., students may do tasks for both extrinsic and intrinsic reasons (Lepper et al. 2005).

One means of building students' intrinsic motivation connects to the first SCL element discussed in this chapter: Students and Teachers as Co-Learners. Just as in an SCL environment, students are not the only ones who learn and teachers are not the only ones who teach, in SCL, teachers are not the only ones who motivate others. Students should appreciate that they can motivate their teachers. For instance, when students show interest in a task or topic, it becomes easier for teachers to become more interested. In other words, in keeping with a key message of SCL, students are powerful; students have control. When students engage with learning, that energy motivates peers and teachers.

5   Conclusion

This chapter has explored student centred learning (SCL). Three main sections were, firstly, a definition of SCL and a look at elements of SCL. Secondly, some of the roots of SCL were discussed. Thirdly, applications of these elements were suggested. These applications may be useful in both second language and other learning contexts.

To conclude, SCL forms just one part of a larger paradigm shift (Jacobs and Farrell 2001). This shift involves greater power flowing to those who have traditionally been near the bottom of hierarchies. Traditionally, teachers have stood atop the classroom hierarchy. However, outside the classroom, in the school, principals and other administrators have been the powerful ones; they appear to control teachers in ways similar to those via which teachers appear to control students in classrooms. Thus, hand in hand with students taking on a greater role in controlling their own learning, this paradigm also calls for teachers taking on a greater role in shaping what happens in the school.

The authors of this chapter want to make one last point, a point often left out of discussions of SCL. SCL talks about students being given more power over their own learning, but in the final analysis, when it comes to learning, students have always been and will always be the powerful ones. Constructivism tells us that teachers cannot pour knowledge into students' heads; students must construct that knowledge for themselves. Similarly, teachers cannot make students want to learn, regardless of how many tricks teachers use to motivate their students. The essential point is this: learning is a student centred process. SCL merely recognizes this reality and seeks to teach with that reality in mind.

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Using Local Languages in English Language Classrooms

Ahmar Mahboob and Angel M.Y. Lin

Abstract This chapter explores possible roles that local languages can play in English language classrooms. In order to do this, the chapter starts off by discussing some of the factors that have historically marginalised the role of local languages in English language teaching. It then discusses how non-recognition of local languages is supported by and contributes to other hegemonic practices that limit the role of local languages in education. The chapter questions static, monolingual, and mono-modal models of language, and outlines a teaching-learning model that builds on a dynamic, situated, multimodal and semiotic understanding of language, which shows the possible roles that local languages can play in English language education. In doing so, the chapter provides some guidelines on how teachers can use local languages productively in their classrooms. The chapter also contributes to and encourages further research that extends our understanding of language (and language learning/teaching) in ways that enable and empower researchers and teachers to make a difference in their communities and in their students' lives.

Keywords Bilingual education • Local languages • English language teaching • Mother tongue based multilingual education (MTBLE) • Multilingualism • Minority languages

1   Introduction

One of the crucial facts, often ignored in TESOL theory and methodology programs, is that students in our ESL/EFL classrooms already speak at least one other language. This gap in our teacher training programs implies that teachers, especially those who share their students' local languages, do not always know if, when, or

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how to use students' local languages in their teaching. This gap also leads to confusion and varying positions about the purpose and use of local languages in the classroom. For example, as part of a recent survey of over 230 participants from diverse social, linguistic, and geographical backgrounds in the Philippines (Mahboob and Cruz 2013), participants were asked the following question: Should local languages be used in English language classes? The responses to this question were quite distributed. While 38.4 % of the participants said 'no,' 37.9 % said 'sometimes,' and 23.7 % said 'yes.' The explanations given by the participants to support their positions also varied. For example:

- *No. How do we improve our English if we speak different languages in English class*?
- *No. Bilingualism*? *No way*!
- *Sometimes. Not for the entire session*, *but only to demonstrate the nuances of different languages when applicable*.
- *Sometimes. Basically some sort of code switching is necessary for better comprehension. Being purist in form seem not very feasible.*
- *Yes. To add flavor to the class – such as in studying regional literary works… or if it is necessary.*
- *Yes. The use of local languages (L1) helps develop the conceptual understanding and basic learning skills of students*; *thus*, *learning another language (L2) will be easier. This assumption conforms to Jim Cummins' Iceberg Hypothesis.*

The conflicting and diverse positions taken by the participants in this survey do not only reflect the perspectives of the Filipino participants, but also of how teachers (and others) often see the place and purpose of local languages in English language teaching. What are some of the reasons for these diverse positions? What do these opinions tell us about the politics of the English language? What are some of the implications of these positions? And, how can we develop more informed language teaching practices? These are some of the questions that will be discussed in this chapter. In responding to these questions, we will explore the positions that are taken, the politics behind these perspectives, and the possibilities that are available to us if we look beyond this debate.

2   Why is the Use of Local Languages Not Integrated into Mainstream TESOL Theory and Practice?

One of the most consistent findings in the NNEST (non-native English speakers in TESOL) literature is that both students and teachers find the NNESTs' (and other teachers) proficiency in the students' vernacular as a positive and useful resource (see, for example, Braine 2010; Mahboob et al. 2004; Moussu and Llurda 2008; Selvi 2014). If these findings are indeed valid, then one might ask: why is it that ELT teacher education programs and teacher educators do not train the teachers in judicious and pedagogically appropriate uses of local languages in the classrooms?

Why is it that the administrators do not sanction or approve of the use of local languages in classrooms (and sometimes the whole school)? And, why is it that teachers often feel ashamed and guilty of using local languages as part of their lessons?

One key reason that has led to a development of negative attitudes towards the use of local languages in English language classes is related to the history of English language teaching and teacher education. English language teaching evolved from practices in foreign language teaching. In early days, the dominant approach to language teaching was the grammar translation approach. This approach gave primary position to a (dominant) local language[1] and used it extensively in building knowledge of and about the target language. Many of the teachers of languages in these contexts were non-native speakers of the target language and shared a local language with the students. The grammar-translation approach was used to teach not only English but also a range of other foreign languages.

The teaching approaches that developed in the twentieth century can be seen as a succession of methods that reacted to the (perceived) shortcomings of preceding ones. For example, the Direct Approach, which Howatt and Smith (2014) consider to be one of the Reform Methods developed in the early twentieth century, reacted against the focus on grammar in grammar translation method and emphasized oral communication skills. The Direct Approach, like the other major approaches to language teaching in the twentieth century was developed in inner-circle English speaking countries. Teachers trained for teaching English (and the teacher trainers/ researchers) in inner circle countries mostly spoke English as a mother tongue; furthermore, the ESL student population in these countries came from a number of different language backgrounds. Given these contextual factors, the role of local languages was not really considered as a factor in the development of pedagogical material or training of teachers. The emphasis on oral skills and the weakening of the role of other languages in English language classrooms can, in this case, be seen as a result of the shift of theory development to 'inner-circle' countries, where the majority of teachers were native speakers of English (as opposed to the colonies where the majority of English teachers were non-native speakers of the language and shared some of the local languages with their students). Howatt and Smith (2014) also point out this negative impact of the Direct Approach:

> However, translation into the language being learnt was, in general, firmly rejected within the Reform Movement as well as by Berlitz. With hindsight, it is a pity that this distinction between L2 to L1 and L1 to L2 translation did not survive the adoption of 'Direct Method' as a blanket term and that the many techniques and procedures developed by non-native speaker school teachers ('Reform Methods') have remained under-acknowledged. The Direct Method – in all its forms – was set, however, to strongly influence the subsequent era. (p. 84).

As pointed out by Howatt and Smith (2014), the Reform Methods (including the Direct Method) have had a continuing effect on language teaching approaches and one of these influences can be noted in a continual denial of the role of local languages in ELT methodology.

Table 1 below provides a summary of some of the key teaching approaches developed in the twentieth century, the context in which these methods were

Table 1 Major teaching approaches and the role given to local languages

Teaching approach	Context of development	Use of local language
Grammar translation	EFL (also used for other languages)	(Dominant) local languages used extensively
Direct approach	Europe and US	No use of students' vernaculars
Audio-lingualism	US (then spread)	No use of students' vernaculars
Cognitive approach	US	Limited use of students' vernaculars
Affective-Humanistic approaches	US	Varied, but limited use of students' vernaculars
Natural approach	US	Use of vernaculars discouraged
Communicative approach	US & UK (then spread)	Use of vernaculars discouraged

developed, and their position vis-à-vis the use of vernaculars. The table shows that other than the grammar-translation method, the dominant approaches do not have a systematic approach to using local languages in English language classrooms. It also shows that most of these approaches were developed in the USA and/or the UK, which partly explains why they did not have a clearly defined role for using local languages.

In addition to being the context of development of some of the major approaches to language teaching in the twentieth century, academics and researchers in inner-circle countries also published key textbooks for preparing English language teachers. These textbooks, which excluded and/or critiqued the use of local languages in English language teaching, were not only used in the inner-circle countries, but also in outer and expanding circle countries. Thus, methods and approaches that were designed for particular contexts were marketed as being 'global' and used to train teachers around the world. Teachers who chose not to adopt these methods were (and are) considered traditional and backwards, whereas teachers who adopt(ed) West-influenced teaching techniques are considered progressive and modern. As larger groups of international teacher trainees came to the West for being trained as teachers and teacher educators, they continued to be trained in the methodologies developed for (and by) native-English speaking teachers teaching in inner-circle contexts. As a consequence of this, these teachers and other educators from non-English speaking backgrounds were not trained or instructed in the use of local languages in teaching English. In many cases, they were explicitly instructed not to use the vernaculars as it was seen as a potential threat to the development of the target language.

Over time, these Western trained educators, who were valued in their home countries as being 'foreign' trained, went back to their home countries, and further spread the belief that the use of local languages needs to be discouraged in ESL and other English-based education. One result of this has been a negative attitude towards the use of local languages in schooling. While the negative positioning of local languages was initially more a result of the context in which these methodologies were developed and used, it spread and gave support to a general perception

that using local languages in English language classrooms was not pedagogically sound or supported by research. These positions developed as a consequence of theory building that occurred in inner-circle countries rather than by a careful consideration of the value and role of local languages in outer and expanding circle countries where teachers might share students' local languages.

The above factors combined with a number of hegemonic ideologies to make use of local languages a taboo in western-originated language methodologies. Below is an explication of some of these hegemonic ideologies.

3 Hegemonic Ideologies About Language, Language Use, and Language Learning and Teaching

Phillipson (1992) pointed out five central fallacies in English language teaching: monolingualism, native-speakerism, the maximum exposure theory, the early-start hypothesis, and the subtractive principle. All of these form part of the normative knowledge base in the field of second and foreign language education, which can be said to have originated from paradigms shaped by a combination of monoglossia, purism, and recently also global capitalism and commodificationism. Building on the literature on this topic, below we summarize three major strands of these ideologies.

3.1 Language as Stable, Standardized, Monolithic, Discrete Entities Rather Than as Fluid Resources for Situated Social Practice

Language has traditionally been taught as a system of rules that are abstracted from native speaker intuitions about language. In doing this, language is seen as a discrete entity and separated from other languages and meaning making systems and modalities. Recent literature (Canagarajah 2007) has critiqued the essentialist views of language as discrete systems that are pervasive in the language policy and TESOL methodology discourses. The official discourses of language in education policy makers in many postcolonial societies, however, still tend to project and assert the view of languages as stable, monolithic (uniform), reified (concrete) entities with clear-cut boundaries. The job of the language planner is seen as lying in the prescription and standardization of linguistic systems culminating in the production of authoritative dictionaries, grammars, and teaching manuals of the national and official languages to be spread among the population. These standard languages are put forward as educational targets, and the state's acquisition planning aiming at designing the most effective approaches for achieving these targets usually results in the recommendation of monolingual immersion approaches: total use of the target language is supposed to be the best way to achieve target language proficiency.

However, such thinking and theorisation of language has been questioned in recent times. Recent work on language has questioned the limitation of studies based on their focus on a single semiotic (meaning-making) mode and ignoring how meanings are construed and represented multimodally (using more than one mode, e.g., by using images and text together, as in children's story books) (see ; Canagarajah 2005; Bezemer and Kress 2014) in different contexts. In responding to this gap, Mahboob (2014) presents a 3-dimensional model that attempts to explain how language variation can be understood in terms of three interrelated factors: relationship between participants (users of language), register (purpose/use of language), and mode (channel of communication); along with a fourth dimension, time. Similarly, work on language as a complex adaptive dynamic system points out: "(1) The system consists of multiple agents (the speakers in the speech community) interacting with one another; (2) The system is adaptive, that is, speakers' behavior is based on their past interactions, and current and past interactions together feed forward into future behaviour; (3) A speaker's behavior is the consequence of competing factors ranging from perceptual mechanics to social motivations; and (4) The structures of language emerge from interrelated patterns of experience, social interaction, and cognitive processes" (Beckner et al. 2009, p. 2) (see also, Hensley 2010; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008).

3.2   *Language Learning as a Zero-Sum Game*

Closely associated with the above ideology is the belief that allowing diverse linguistic resources in the classroom will reduce the students' exposure to the target language. Such a belief is derived from a zero-sum view or the subtractive view of language learning: the limited cognitive processing capacity of the individual will be thinly spread over too many linguistic systems if more than one language is allowed into the classroom (see critique of this view by Cummins 2007). Language learning under this belief seems to be conceptualized within a 'banking' model that Freire (1972) has long problematized. Students are metaphorically seen as limited-capacity 'containers' and if they are exposed to diverse languages, it will be too overwhelming to them. While intuitively this might sound right, the pitfall of this assumption lies in ignoring the enormous human capacity for translanguaging (Canagarajah 2011, 2014; Creese and Blackledge 2010; Garcia and Li 2014) – drawing on diverse linguistic resources to achieve their purposes in situated communicative practices.

The works identified above are also closely aligned with research on transculturalism (see Motha et al. 2012) that also questions the traditional static models of and boundaries between languages. These works have also led to the questioning of the notion of 'language proficiency' in recent years; for example, Mahboob and Dutcher (2014) argue that models of language proficiency need to respond to criticisms of the static nature of language and engage with dynamic models. Presenting their Dynamic Approach to Language Proficiency (DALP), they posit that "being proficient

in a language implies that we are sensitive to the setting of the communicative event, and have the ability to select, adapt, negotiate, and use a range of linguistic resources that are appropriate in the context" (p. 117). This evolving body of research questions traditional static approaches to understanding language and have implications for teaching and use of local languages in the classroom. If language is a semiotic tool, if language is multimodal, and if language proficiency is context dependent, then teaching language does not need to exclude local languages, but use them as part of the rich set of semiotic resources that can help students develop their understanding and use of language.

The real challenge, therefore, does not lie in the limited capacity assumed in the zero-sum game metaphor, but in how to engage students in social practices that present language learning not as acquisition of discrete entities (such as rules, vocabulary items) but as opportunities to mobilize various semiotic (meaning-making) resources to achieve situated purposes as well as identities deemed meaningful to the students.

3.3 Language as a Commodified and Standardized Set of Knowledge Items and Skills That Can be Bought/Sold in Transactions Between Teachers and Students

The banking model (Freire 1972) of language learning and teaching also fits well into the recent trends of global capitalization and commodification of language (Heller 2003). Language teaching is increasingly packaged and delivered as standardized products—in chain-shops/institutes or factories (e.g., the global corporatization of English language teaching) selling standardized, marketable language products (e.g., 'BBC English,' 'Wall Street English'). And the monolingual 'native-speaker' is often marketed as the best 'provider' of the best 'language products.' This commodifying ideology of language teaching and learning has gradually penetrated into school practices, turning teachers into 'service providers' of prestigious standardized language products (e.g., 'BBC English'). The invisible consequence of this is that language learning/teaching has become a transaction—teachers passing on a marketable set of standardized knowledge items and skills to students. Instead of seeing language learning/teaching as having both teachers and students engaged in fluid co-creation of diverse language resources appropriate for situated social practices meaningful to both parties, this static, commodifying view of language and language teaching has in a way 'killed' language and turned it into a static, standardized, marketable commodity to be passed onto students in the 'transaction' of language teaching. The associated ideology is that the 'native-speaker' is the most qualified 'provider' of the 'purest' kind of standard language skills and knowledge.

The above ideology is also connected to the research on second language acquisition. For example, the notion of 'acquisition' itself suggests that something is

being acquired which is different from what one already has (as opposed to the notion of 'development', where one is developing language by adding new ways of creating and representing meanings). This sense of acquisition is most salient in foundational work in SLA (second language acquisition) studies. For example, Selinker's (1972) notions of fossilization and interlanguage highlight a belief that the goal of a learner is to move away from their mother tongue features and adopt the features of an 'ideal' 'native' speaker of the target language. In this context, there was little role for the use of mother tongue in English language learning/teaching – local languages were seen as a source of interference that needed to be overcome.

In another major theory of SLA, Krashen (1985) posited that the one necessary and essential requirement for SLA is access to comprehensible input in the target language. Once again, there was no real place for or role of local languages in Krashen's model. While many researchers today question the validity of Krashen's work; there is still a belief that the use of local languages has negative consequences in an ESL class. Some of the beliefs and myths that result from this work in SLA include: (a) use of vernaculars lead to language transfer or negative interference; (b) additional languages are best learnt by being immersed in target language, i.e., immersion in the target language is essential; and (c) the goal of additional language learning is to sound like native speakers.

The above ideologies underlie many knowledge claims in additional language learning (ALL) literature: e.g., immersion models, monolingual principle, maximum exposure hypothesis (with the exception of some recent cognitive approaches trying to prove the positive effect of using some local language(s) in ALL; e.g., Macaro 2009). These knowledge claims have great influence in the developing world, which still often 'imports' and 'worships' overseas experts and knowledge (Lin 2012). The symbolic domination (Bourdieu 1991) or hegemony (Gramsci, trans. by Hoare 1971) of these knowledge claims are often imposed on local situated classroom participants (e.g., the monolingual principle). Teacher preparation institutes in the developing and/or 'post'-colonial societies often embrace these teaching methodologies as the most 'advanced' language education principles to be promoted in their countries (e.g., in China, see He and Lin 2013).

Recent research has been trying to dispel these myths and to ground research in teaching and learning of additional languages within more inclusive and context dependent models of language. In our context today, with a growing number of non inner-circle academics and researchers doing (critical) research in ELT, the role of local languages in teaching English is being reconsidered. In the latter part of this paper, we will discuss some of this work and consider ways in which we can use local languages productively.

4 Benefits of Integrating Local Languages in English Language Classes

Research on use of local languages in English language classes have yielded findings that can be summarized by drawing on the functional view of language from Halliday (1994). Under this view, local languages can be seen as communicative resources readily drawn upon by classroom participants (usually the teacher but sometimes also students) to achieve the following three kinds of purposes:

1. Ideational functions: Providing basic-TL[2] (target language)-proficiency students with access to the TL-mediated curriculum by switching to the students' local languages (LL) to translate or annotate (e.g., key TL terms), explain, elaborate or exemplify TL academic content (e.g., drawing on students' familiar life/world experiences as examples to explain a science concept in the TL textbook/curriculum). This is very important in mediating the meaning of academic texts which are written in an unfamiliar language—the TL of the students.
2. Textual functions: Highlighting (signalling) topic shifts, marking out transitions between different activity types or different focuses (e.g., focusing on technical definitions of terms vs. exemplifications of the terms in students' everyday life).
3. Interpersonal functions: Signalling and negotiating shifts in frames and footings, role-relationships and identities, change in social distance/closeness (e.g., negotiating for in-group solidarity), and appealing to shared cultural values or institutional norms.

Below we shall illustrate the strategic use of local languages with an example provided in Lin's seminal study in 1999, in which it was found that by skilfully intertwining the use of LL (Cantonese) for a story focus with the use of TL (English) for a language focus, a Grade 7 (Secondary 1) bilingual teacher in a Hong Kong English language classroom successfully got her students interested in learning English and gaining confidence in reading English storybooks, and thus transforming the habitus of these working class students for whom English had been an alien language irrelevant to their daily life. Drawing on Heap's (1985) notion of discourse format, which was in turn built on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) seminal analysis of the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) exchange structure, Lin (1999) offered a fine-grained analysis of how LL-TL code-switching was built into two kinds of IRF discourse formats to enable the teacher (Teacher D) to engage students in both enjoying the story and in learning English through this process:

> Analysis of a reading lesson (Lin 1999):
> The lesson excerpt below is taken from the beginning of the reading lesson. The teacher announces that she is going to ask them questions about the part of the English storybook, *Sinbad the Sailor*, which they had read in a previous lesson.
> Note: The bolded utterances in square brackets < > were spoken in Cantonese but shown here in English translation for the ease of reading. The numerals are readings on the cassette tape recorder.
> 469T: **<Okay**, **let me ask you about the story**, **and see if you can still remember it**! **Last time we told the story to page 40**, **that is the last- the lesson before the last lesson**,

and then in the last lesson we told the story from page 40 to 42! **Now let me see if you can still remember the story** … **Sinbad was sailing in a boat**, **remember**? **Those jewelleries**, **then he had given away half of the jewelleries to**.. **and he had bought a boat**, **and he had bought**.. **recruited many sailors**, **after that**, **he also bought four boats**, **one sailing towards the East**, **one towards the South**, **one towards the West**, **and one towards the North. Sinbad himself took a boat**, **sailing back to where**? … **sailing back to where**>? {A girl raises her hand; T turns to her and says} Yes,

478 Girl 1 {stands up and speaks}: **<Brazil>**!

478.5T: **<Go back to Brazil>**?! No:::,

478.8 Some Ss {speaking in their seats}: **<Baghdad>**!

479T: No, not**<Brazil>**! {many students raise their hands now and T points to a boy}

479.5 Boy 1 {stands up and speaks}: **<Baghdad>**!

479.8T: **<Baghdad>**, how to spell.. **<Baghdad>**? English **<that is>**, in English .. **<Baghdad>**. {Girl 1 raises her hand again; T turns to her and gestures her to speak} Yes,

481.5 Girl 1 {stands up and speaks}: b-a-g-h…-d-a-d {T writes it on the blackboard as the girl spells it}

483T: Yes!**<How to read this word>**?

483.8 Some Ss {speaking up in their seats}: **<Baghdad>**!**<Baghdad>**!

484T: No, Baghdad, Baghdad, Baghdad **<that is. Okay**, **as they were thinking of going back home**, **alas! on the way back**, **they ran into a GROUP OF>**…

487 Ss {speaking up in their seats}: **<monkeys! monkeys! monkeys!>**

488T: Monkeys! Yes! {T writes the word "monkey" on the blackboard} **<That group of monkey-men**, **that group**.. **monkey-men that is**, **monkey-men that is**, **they took them to an island>**, what is the na::me of this island? Can you spell the word? {Another girl raises her hand} Yes,

492 Girl 2 {stands up and speaks}: Z-u-g…

492.5T: Z-u-g…

492.8 Girl 2 {standing up}: (d)

493T: No, b, b for boy. {T writes the word "Zugb" on the board}**<How to read it**? **A very ugly place.>**

494.3 Some Ss {speaking in their seats}: Zugb!

494.5T: Z::ugb::

495 Ss {repeating in their seats}: ZUGB!!

495.5T: **<Alas>**! Zugb!! An ugly place for the ugly men. **<An ugly place for those ugly men to live in. Those monkeys brought them there for what>**?

498 Boy {speaking in his seat}: < (**Dump him there**)>! {Another boy raises his hand}

498.3T: Yes,

498.5 Boy 2: < (**Giant** ? ?) >

498.8T: **<Right! How to say giant in English>**?

499 Another boy {speaking in his seat}: **<Giant>**!

499.5T: **<Giant in English is** .. **Leuhng-Mahn-Yih>**!

500L {stands up and speaks}: Giant.

500.5T: Giant! Very good! Yes! {T writes the word "giant" on board}

In the excerpt above, the teacher dramatizes, with intonations and gestures, the part of the story about Sinbad sailing in a boat. The teacher then asks the students where Sinbad is sailing back to (last three lines in turn [469]). Notice how the teacher uses a bilingual IRF discourse format to systematically lead students from expressing meanings in their familiar language (L1) to expressing them in the unfamiliar target language (L2).

To summarize, the teacher has used two different IRF formats in the following cycle in the reading lesson:

(1) Story-Focus-IRF (focusing on interpersonal involvement):

Teacher-Initiation [LL]
Student-Response [LL]
Teacher-Feedback [LL]

(2) Language-Focus-IRF (focusing on ideational and textual development):

Teacher-Initiation [LL/TL][3]
Student-Response [LL/TL]
Teacher-Feedback [TL], or use (2) again until Student-Response is in TL

(3) Start (2) again to focus on another linguistic aspect of the TL response elicited
in (2); or return to (1) to focus on the story again.

This kind of discourse practice allows the teacher to interlock a story focus with
a language focus in the reading lesson. There can be enjoyment of the story, via the
use of the story-focus IRF (i.e., social involvement strategy—the interpersonal
functions of LL use), intertwined with a language-learning focus, via the use of the
language-focus IRF (i.e., thematic development strategy—the ideational and textual
functions of LL in helping students to unpack and repack TL content and language
learning). We have noted above that Teacher D never started an initiation in TL. She
always started in LL. This stands in sharp contrast with the discourse practices of
Teacher C (another teacher in the study) who always started with TL texts or ques-
tions in her initiations. It appears that by always starting in LL, Teacher D always
started from where the student is—from what the student can fully understand and
is familiar with. On the other hand, by using the language-focus IRF format imme-
diately after the story-focus IRF format, she can also push the students to move
from what they are familiar with (e.g., LL expressions) to what they need to become
more familiar with (e.g., TL counterparts of the LL expressions) (see Lin 1999).

5   How and When Should Local Languages be Used
in English Language Classes?

Following up on the pioneering conceptualization work started by Laupenmuhlen
(2012) in planning the systematic and functional use of LL and TL in the learning
process, which might stretch across a number of lessons in a unit of work, we draw
on the notion of 'curriculum genre' to propose that since there are different stages
and phases in a curriculum genre, LL and TL can be strategically planned to fulfil
the pedagogical functions specific to the different stages and phases of a curriculum
genre. If the classroom lessons are seen as constituting a curriculum genre, then
there are stages and phases in the curriculum genre where there are recurrent, typical
functions to be achieved in these different stages and phases, just as in other spoken
genres that occur in everyday life (e.g., a debate, a political speech, a television
interview). One such curriculum genre that Lin (2010) has been conceptualizing is

the Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (inspired by Rothery 1994; cited in Rose and Martin 2012). Below we shall delineate this cycle and the potential role of LL in this curriculum genre.

6   The Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (MEC)

A cluster of useful scaffolding strategies in TL content learning involves shunting between different kinds of textual and multimodal mediation of academic content/ experience. The core processes behind the use of these strategies can be summarized in the following three stages of the MEC:

Stage 1: Create a rich experiential context to arouse students' interest, and immerse the students in the topic field (e.g., festivals in the students' country) using multimodalities such as visuals, images, Youtube videos, diagrams, demonstrations, actions, inquiry/discovery activities, etc.—for instance, on the Makha Bucha Day in Thailand: http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2284509/Thousands-Thai-monks-light-candles-walk-statue-Buddha-celebrations-moon-religious--festival-begin.html; this site hosts pictures and videos that can provide a rich experiential context for stimulating students to think, talk, discuss, inquire, read, and write descriptive texts about this important Buddhist day in joint activities with the teacher later on. In this stage, the familiar local languages of students (e.g., LL everyday language, TL everyday language) can be used to help the students to grasp the main gist of the experience.

Stage 2: Engage students in reading a coherent piece of TL text on the topic introduced in Stage 1 (e.g., a short descriptive text to inform the reader about this important Buddhist festival), and then engage students in note-making or mindmapping tasks that require some systematic 'sorting out' or re-/presentation of the TL textual meaning using different kinds/combinations of *everyday* LL/TL spoken/written genres and multimodalities (e.g., bilingual notes, graphic organizers, mind maps, visuals, diagrams, pictures, oral description, story-boards, comics); these activities help students to *unpack* the TL academic text using LL/TL everyday language and multimodalities.

Stage 3: Engage students in *entextualizing* (putting experience in text) the experience using TL spoken/written genres (e.g., poems, short stories, descriptive reports) with language scaffolds provided (e.g., key vocab, sentence frames, writing/speaking prompts, etc.)

These three stages form a curriculum genre which Lin (2010) calls the Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (MEC). The MEC (see Fig. 1 below) can be reiterated until the target language learning goals have been achieved. The key principle is to use LL and TL everyday languages and genres together with multimodalities to scaffold students' learning of specialized second/foreign languages and genres through the systematic scaffolding of both LL and multimodalities. To enhance the scaffolding effect, information technology (IT) can be
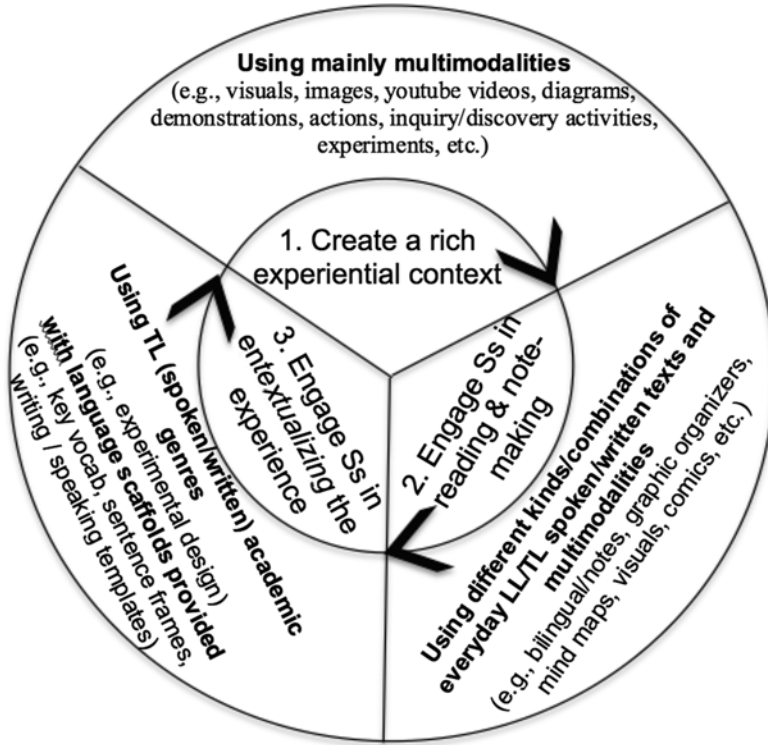
Fig. 1 The Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (MEC) (Adapted from Lin (2010) (Key: *Ss* students))

used. For instance, some of the discussion and note-making activities in Stage 1 and 2 of the MEC can first start in the classroom but then continue using digital platforms such as Facebook and weblogs (Deng and Tavares 2013; Deng and Yuen 2011). As students are apprenticed into the different stages of the MEC, IT mediated discussion and exchange platforms can assist students to become avid learners in reading and writing about specific topics. For instance, with teachers' encouragement and guidance, students can create their own blogs on specific topics and carry out the MEC Stage 1 and 2 activities on their blogs using both LL and TL as well as multimodalities. Then with the participation of the teacher in these IT mediated platforms, activities in Stage 3 can be carried out with online support from the teacher.

When we adopt a balanced and open-minded stance towards the potential role of LL in English language classrooms, there is a lot of systematic planning and research that we can do to try out different kinds of combinations of different LL and TL everyday resources (together with multimodal and IT resources) that can scaffold the development of TL.

7 Concluding Remarks

This chapter argued that non-recognition of local languages in dominant TESOL theories and practices is a consequence of the context in which these theories and practices developed rather than an outcome of well-researched investigations of the use and role of LL in TL learning. As much of the dominant theory building over the last century was done by native speakers of English in inner-circle countries (for teaching of English in inner circle countries), this work did not need to consider a role for local languages. The chapter illustrated how non-recognition of LL in TESOL relates to, is supported by, and contributes to other hegemonic practices that further limit the role of LL. In discussing the dominant work, we also referred to a growing body of research that questions axioms in theories of TESOL and Applied Linguistics. This emerging work, which questions static, monolingual, and mono-modal models of language, opens up space for us to reconsider and theorise the role of LL in TL learning/teaching. The chapter, then, broadly outlined a teaching-learning model that builds on a dynamic, situated, multimodal and semiotic under-standing of language, which shows the possible roles that LL can play in TL education. In doing so, this chapter contributes to and encourages further research that extends our understanding of language (and language learning/teaching) in ways that enable and empower researchers and teachers to make a difference in their communities and in their students' lives.

Notes

1. In this paper, we use the term (dominant) local language (LL) instead of first language (L1). By (dominant) local language, we mean a language that is con-sidered a language of literacy in local contexts; this might or might not be the same as a learners' mother tongue.
2. In this paper, we use the term 'target language' (TL) instead of L2 to recognize that English language (or another target language) learners may already speak two or more languages.
3. "LL/TL" denotes "LL or TL".

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Applying Language Learning Principles to Coursebooks

John Macalister

Abstract For many teachers the course book is the curriculum. Furthermore, because of contextual constraints such as those imposed by an external examination, the course book becomes an unexamined curriculum. Yet in such circumstances the learning outcomes may not be optimal because teachers are not applying principles; principles, in this sense, refer to research and theory about best practice in language teaching and learning. This chapter explores this issue, beginning with an examination of classroom practices in relation to course books, followed by a brief examination of the relationship between course book publication and research-based principles. It then examines and exemplifies principles teachers can apply to ensure that their classroom practice is better informed by research and theory than it would be if they relied on the course book alone. The focus will be on key principles that the survey of course books suggests appear to be absent from this conveniently ready-made but too often unexamined curriculum.

Keywords Course books • Principles • Fluency • Interference • Frequency • The four strands • Curriculum

1 Introduction

The situations in which English is taught across the globe are many and varied. Given this reality, it would be unwise to generalise about the English language classroom. Rather, it might be useful to consider the English language classroom – and the experiences of teachers and learners – as ranging along a continuum. At one end the situation is that of freedom and choice. Only when the teachers and learners meet for the first time do decisions begin to be made about the goal of the course, the materials to be used, the way in which learning will happen, and how learning will be assessed. This is the world of the negotiated syllabus (Clarke 1991) and may perhaps be most commonly found in the private sector (as exemplified by Boon

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2011). At the other extreme is the situation where teachers and learners are working with a set course or textbook towards tests or examinations closely tied to a national curriculum. There is no need to make decisions about the course goals, the materials, the way in which learning will happen, and so on. These decisions have already been made. The coursebook is accepted as the curriculum, and remains largely unexamined.

To some extent, the continuum imagined in the preceding paragraph is a theoretical one, for there is not a great deal of information in the literature about how teachers actually use textbooks in the language classroom. Indeed, as has recently been pointed out, "textbook consumption studies are sorely lacking in the ELT literature at present" (Grammatosi and Harwood 2014, p. 200). This may be a reflection of limited time and funding being available for research in ELT, and priorities being given to other areas of investigation (Harwood 2014).

One such study, however, examines teaching in a middle school classroom in Korea. This is a situation where the national curriculum is the prime determiner of what occurs in the classroom; the teacher is positioned "at the terminal end of the curriculum chain" (Parent 2011, p. 186). While there is some scope for teacher-created activities, this only occurs in the advanced class where the students progress more quickly through the prescribed material than those in the lower-level classes. The teachers, in this study, may be characterised as 'curriculum-transmitters' (Shawer 2010). There is no attempt to suit the materials to the learners. One example is that, despite the homogeneity of the student population, they follow the unit on introducing themselves; this, Parent suggests, "is seen to send a message to the learners that what they are to learn are theoretical constructs" (2011, p. 193). The constructs have no immediate use; they have no meaning focus for the students, in the sense that the students have no need to know or use them. This seems reminiscent of the situation described by Connelly and Clandinin (1988) of teachers lacking agency in the classroom, of being passive transmitters of the curriculum.

Curriculum-transmitter is not, however, the only role proposed by Shawer (2010). His two other roles are those of curriculum-developer and curriculum-maker, both of which Menkabu and Harwood (2014) identify in their seven teachers working in an EAP context at a Saudi Arabian university. Here, there was evidence of teachers making decisions based on their knowledge of the students, such as engaging with culturally inappropriate material (or occasionally deleting it). Menkabu and Harwood recognise, however, that their teachers were rather conservative in the adaptations they made and in the occasional additions of external material (ibid. 2014, p. 166). By contrast, unquestionably a curriculum-maker is the teacher in another case study (Grammatosi and Harwood 2014), who rejected the coursebook as he did not like it. He appeared to be constructing his teaching around source materials rather than course materials, an approach favoured by Prabhu (1989), the architect of the influential Bangalore project (Prabhu 1987).

A characteristic shared by the teachers in Parent's and Menkabu and Harwood's case studies is that they worked in situations where teaching was driven by high-stakes examinations. The Korean middle school students needed to enter high school; the Saudi Arabian university students were preparing for nursing careers.

For the teachers in these studies, the coursebook became the curriculum. And, even though he disliked the required text, the curriculum-maker in Grammatosi and Harwood's study still found that "the book's syllabus (table of contents) made it 'easier to plan […] and link my lessons'," (Grammatosi and Harwood 2014, p. 194). In varying degrees, then, the coursebook plays an important role in determining what happens in the classroom.

2   Course Book Publication

In an examination of the extent to which corpus data inform coursebook writing, Burton (2012) compared the stance of applied linguists and publishers and made the following somewhat depressing observation: "The only incentive for real change is demand from the market" (Burton 2012, p. 97). Market feedback is, for example, credited with a reduction of inferential comprehension questions and an increase in explicit questions in the revision of one coursebook series; these changes were made because the earlier edition was judged "a bit difficult" (Freeman 2014, p. 101) and so was seen as less attractive to potential purchasers. While no-one could blame publishers for paying attention to commercial imperatives, for the publishing industry is unlikely to benefit from a spate of bankruptcies, one could ask about the extent to which coursebooks are informed by research about effective language learning.

3   Teachers and Coursebooks

Teachers have a limited range of options when facing issues with using a coursebook. Issues may not lie in the coursebook itself, but may arise from environmental factors, such as the time available for teaching. (Another environmental factor, the learners themselves, is considered in the chapter "Current Issues in the Development of Materials for Learners of English as an International Language (EIL)" of this volume). But, whatever the cause of the issues, the options remain the same; whether considering the content or the methods teachers have the option to adapt, to replace, to omit, to add, or simply to use as is (Grant 1987, pp. 16–17). The extent to which teachers do make changes can be surprising; for instance, in a study in a Vietnamese high school, of 64 oral textbook tasks across Grades 10–12, teachers adapted 12 and replaced 43 (Nguyen et al. forthcoming). In other words, only nine were used as is.

In the case studies mentioned earlier, the teachers also demonstrated their facility with exercising choice among these options. For example, the teachers in Saudi Arabia tended to delete speaking and writing activities, because they were not skills that were examined. The middle school teachers in Korea added their own activities to the advanced class. These included songs, games, and the introduction of additional vocabulary as a means of maintaining student interest. A similar impetus for change was demonstrated by the teachers in the Vietnamese high school; they were

attending to the socio-affective dimension of the classroom in the changes they were introducing. They wanted, in their own words, to replace tasks they viewed as 'dry' or 'boring' with others that might be 'fun' or 'interesting'.

In making these decisions, it does seem that the teachers were making pragmatic choices rather than principled ones. They were, it seems, primarily responding to factors that, in curriculum design terms (Nation and Macalister 2010), emerged from an environment analysis of their learning and teaching context. Environment and needs analyses should not, however, be the sole determiner of decisions teachers make. Principles should not be overlooked as a lens for examining the unexamined curriculum. The remainder of this chapter, then, considers ways in which teachers can apply principles in order to achieve optimal language learning outcomes for their students.

4 Principles

Principles, in this sense, refer to research and theory about best practices in language teaching and learning. Specific sets of principles have been proposed for different aspects of language learning, with well-known examples being those suggested by Day and Bamford (2002) for extensive reading, by Ellis (2005) for instructed second language acquisition, and by Cotterall (2000) for promoting learner autonomy. Less well known examples of specific sets of principles are those for blended learning (Liu 2011) and for the use of video games in the classroom (Gee n.d.). While seemingly diverse, it is often worth looking at the commonality behind different sets of principles for they often draw on the same general research. For example, the importance of input is a feature of different sets of principles no matter what the explicit focus of the principles. Input is achieved via listening and reading, and Cotterall (2000, p. 111) proposes that "Course tasks are explicitly linked to a simplified model of the language learning process", of which input forms a core component. Day and Bamford (2002, p. 138) advise that "learners read as much as possible" – that they receive a large amount of comprehensible input – and Ellis (2005, p. 217) is clear that "Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input." While extensive reading and instructed second language acquisition may not seem, at first glance, to share many common features, at least some of the principles that should be applied in order to achieve successful outcomes are the same.

A more general set of principles has been suggested by Nation and Macalister (2010), whose model of language curriculum design makes it clear that principles should play an important role in informing what occurs in the classroom. They propose 20 principles and these relate to all aspects of classroom decision-making – that is, decisions about content and sequencing, about format and presentation, and about monitoring and assessment. There is a great deal of commonality between this list and those more specific lists mentioned above; to illustrate this commonality, and returning to the input example given in the preceding paragraph, Nation and

Macalister (2010, p. 52) have a principle relating to comprehensible input – "There should be substantial quantities of interesting comprehensible receptive activity in both listening and reading" – which fits very closely with the extensive reading and instructed second language acquisition examples given earlier. The key difference between this more general set of principles and the more specific lists is that these 20 principles are intended to be generally applicable. While it is not the case that all principles will receive equal attention in every course, the remainder of this chapter will focus on four key principles that experience suggests appear to be absent from many course books and thus, especially for teachers for whom the course book represents the curriculum, can provide a basis for making decisions about how to use the course book.

4.1   The Principle of the Four Strands

The four strands (Nation 2007) is an approach to curriculum design that advocates that a language course should have a balance between the four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development. The four strands should not be confused with the four macro-skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, although the four skills are variably present in the strands. For instance, listening and reading are the means of providing meaning-focused input, while fluency development needs to occur across each of the four skills.

Each strand has a number of conditions attached to it, and without the conditions being met the strand does not exist. Thus, an activity in a course book labelled 'reading' may not form part of the meaning-focused input strand; it may be a poorly disguised form of grammar instruction in which case it is much more likely to be contributing to the language-focused learning strand. This is not the place to delve into the conditions for each strand (Macalister 2011 unpacks two of the strands in terms of teaching reading; the conditions for all four strands are discussed by Nation 2007), but it is worth drawing attention to the phrase 'meaning-focused' that precedes 'input' and 'output.' When learners are interested in the message they are receiving or communicating, the activity is much less likely to be a thinly disguised excuse for grammar instruction. Attention to meaning is important to all the strands and is perhaps the unifying condition of this approach to curriculum design, even in language-focused learning where the focus should be on how language is used to convey and create meaning.

A skilled teacher is generally capable of adapting an existing activity or adding an activity to the published material as a way of making the material more meaningful for the learners, and thus increasing the proportion of meaning-focused input and meaning-focused output in the course. A teacher may, for example, precede a listening or reading activity with an activity to activate top-down processes as a way of promoting meaning-focused input. One such activity is the construction of a semantic map which both finds out what students already know about a topic, and

provides a framework for making sense of new information encountered during the reading or listening (Chia 2001 discusses semantic maps and other top-down processing activities). The strand that is often missing, however, and that may be overlooked if teachers do not apply the four strands principle to any evaluation of the coursebook is that of fluency.

4.2   The Fluency Principle

This principle states simply that "A language course should provide activities aimed at increasing the fluency with which learners can use the language they already know, both receptively and productively" (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 54). It is a slight expansion of the old teaching adage: learn a little, use a lot. An example of this attention to fluency is the recent promotion of extensive listening (Chang and Millett 2014; Renandya and Farrell 2011), which has been described as "learners doing a lot of easy, comprehensible, and enjoyable listening practice such as listening to audio books or radio programmes" (Chang and Millett 2014, p. 31). The ever-increasing range of on-demand, on-line listening resources, and the ability to alter playback speeds, should encourage teachers to make more of this type of activity.

A peculiarity of coursebooks is that material that is introduced in one unit or chapter is often not encountered again in that book. This may be most obviously seen in the treatment of vocabulary. Topic is a common organising approach in coursebooks; as a result, vocabulary relating to one topic lacks currency in other topics. Without repeated opportunities to encounter or use new lexical items the likelihood of their being learned, let alone of learners becoming fluent with processing or producing them, becomes greatly reduced.

It is not difficult for teachers to add fluency development activities to coursebook materials; it can be as simple as preceding a reading input activity with a listening activity that uses language and content that learners will meet in the reading, or adding a spoken output activity to a writing activity so that learners have the opportunity to re-use content and language already produced in one mode. Teachers do object, it is true, that such additions reduce the time available for covering the course, but this should be balanced against the desirability of optimising language learning outcomes. Teachers should also bear in mind Ray Williams' wise words: "Teachers must learn to be quiet" (Williams 1986, p. 44). Quite possibly less teacher talk would translate into greater time available for fluency development.

4.3 The Frequency Principle

One reason why learners do not have sufficient opportunities to encounter or use new lexical (or grammatical) items is that coursebook writers have not applied the frequency principle which says, "A language course should provide the best possible coverage of language in use through the inclusion of items that occur frequently in the language, so that learners get the best return for their learning effort" (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 40). Common sense suggests that the higher the frequency of occurrence in a language, the greater the likelihood that learners will meet it again. That repeated meeting may be in the coursebook, or in the classroom, or beyond the classroom. The more frequently encountered, the more likely it is to be learned.

Focusing for the moment on vocabulary, coursebooks raise two concerns in terms of the frequency principle. The first is that they do not provide sufficient exposure to high frequency items; O'Loughlin (2012), for example, estimates that after completing three levels of one popular coursebook series, learners would have had exposure to fewer than 1500 high frequency words. The second concern is that, as a result of the topic-based approach to coursebook organisation, learners are presented with a mix of low frequency as well as high frequency items simultaneously. Attention to low frequency vocabulary that is not important for understanding the text is usually not time well-spent. Learners' vocabulary development is more likely to be enhanced through attention to useful items (Nation 2004 provides useful guidance on how to treat vocabulary in intensive reading).

Similar concerns have been raised about the presentation of grammatical items. The modal, *will*, for example, is introduced after *going to*, despite the far greater frequency of the former in language use (Mindt 1996). Similarly, early attention is often given in coursebooks to relatively low frequency verb forms, such as the present continuous, despite information about verb form frequency having long been available (George 1963).

It is difficult for teachers to ignore entirely the sequencing of content in a coursebook, but directing attention towards higher frequency and away from lower frequency items is one means of paying attention to this principle. It may also be necessary to add material to ensure sufficient exposure to high frequency items; in this regard, extensive reading cannot be overlooked. One of the features of graded readers, the material commonly used on extensive reading programmes, is that they are written with a controlled vocabulary of high frequency words; thus learners have repeated exposure to useful vocabulary through reading.

For teachers who want to check the lexical burden of a text so that they can be properly informed about frequency, a very useful resource is the website designed and hosted by Tom Cobb, http://www.lextutor.ca/.

4.4   The Interference Principle

A common feature of topic-based coursebooks is the introduction of lists of new semantically-related lexical items. This violates the interference principle, which states that "The items in a language course should be sequenced so that items which are learned together have a positive effect on each other for learning, and so that interference effects are avoided" (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 48). An example of this principle in this chapter was the discussion of the four strands and the four skills in the same paragraph. If any readers were not already familiar with the concept of the four skills, then they would be learning about skills and strands simultaneously, and would be struggling to keep the two separate. In other words, the learning of skills and strands would be interfering with each other. However, as the assumption was that readers would already be fully conversant with the four skills, the interference principle was not being violated; only one potentially new item was being introduced.

It can be a challenge for teachers to work against the interference effects that coursebooks sometimes seem determined to promote. Teacher responses can include decisions about sequencing in order to avoid introducing all members of a lexical set at once, and selection. Here, there may be some interplay with the frequency principle; learner attention may be directed away from low frequency items in a set and towards high frequency items.

To illustrate the interference effects that coursebooks can, no doubt unintentionally, cause, consider the introduction to words for describing colours in four randomly selected introductory level coursebooks (Bygrave 2012; Clandfield 2007; Eales and Oakes 2012; Kay and Jones 2007). All introduce words for colours at approximately the same point in the course, and in all cases these words are introduced as a lexical set. One coursebook introduces six word types, another seven for colours. Both include two items, *brown* and *yellow*, from the second thousand word family list (using BNC data, Nation 2006), and the higher frequency, *green*, being from the first thousand word list, is omitted from one coursebook. In other words, neither the interference nor the frequency principle seems to be operating. The interference principle does not operate because a number of colour names are being learned simultaneously, the frequency principle because less useful words are being learned at the same time as more useful. This is also true of the other two coursebooks, with one introducing 10, the other 11 word types for colours. Both include three words from the second thousand word family list – *grey*, *orange*, and *pink* – and the book with the longest list also includes *purple*, which comes from the 3000 word family list.

4.5 Other Principles

The four principles, which have been the focus of this discussion have been chosen because their application often appears to be absent from published material. They have not been chosen because they are necessarily more important than the other 16 proposed by Nation and Macalister (2010, pp. 38–39). However, it is worth noting that attention to these four principles triggers many of the others. The fluency principle, for instance, links to principles about the importance of time on task and of repetition, or spaced retrieval. As another example, application of the interference principle also relates to the principle focussing on reducing the learning burden. Possibly, the most linked principle is that of the four strands; in order to ensure this principle is operating, other principles, such as those referring to comprehensible input and to output, are drawn on. Finally, the application of principles leads to a course that gives learners a more successful learning experience than would otherwise have been the case, and success is a motivating force – motivation being another of the 20 principles. Motivated learners and successful learning are surely outcomes all teachers desire.

5 Concluding Remarks

Paraphrasing Socrates, William C. Miller (1978, p. 60) suggested that "The unexamined curriculum is not worth implementing." Although his focus was on the hidden curriculum (Snyder 1970), his warning is deserving of consideration by all teachers with a concern for effective language learning and teaching, and especially perhaps those for whom the coursebook represents the curriculum. Rather than it being viewed as a constraint, as a straitjacket, as a brake on innovation, the coursebook is best viewed as presenting an opportunity for the critical application of principles derived from research and theory that will lead to success in the language learning classroom. Such an end is surely worth the effort involved.

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Current Issues in the Development of Materials for Learners of English as an International Language (EIL)

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Abstract This chapter refers to recent literature criticising global coursebooks for not catering for the needs of learners of English as a global language. It then goes on to suggest ways in which new materials could meet the needs of learners of English who will be communicating more with other non-native speakers than with native speakers of English. It suggests approaches to selecting content, to using texts and to devising tasks, which would differentiate such materials from those developed to cater for learners of English as a foreign language. In doing so, it stresses the need to make use of authentic texts and authentic tasks and, in particular, to provide motivated exposure to English actually being used for international communication. It also suggests ways in which learners can be helped to increase their pragmatic awareness of how non-native speakers achieve their intended communicative effects when interacting with each other and it suggests ways of providing them with opportunities to improve their ability to achieve communicative intent when interacting with other non-native speakers.

Keywords Authentic materials • Authentic tasks • Communicative intent • Global coursebooks • Learner needs • Lingua franca • Materials development • Pragmatic awareness

1 Introduction

Global EFL courses are used mainly by non-native speakers who will need to communicate in English with other non-native speakers outside of English speaking areas i.e., they will need English as a lingua franca (Jenkins 2012). Yet, most of these courses still seem to be developed as though all their users need to communicate with native speakers of English in English speaking countries i.e., they need to

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use English as a foreign language. For example, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013) review six current EFL courses published in the UK and conclude that most of the texts illustrate a 'correct' version of English as it is written and spoken by native speakers interacting with each other and that the courses do very little to help prepare learners for the realities of using English as a global lingua franca. They do find some dialogues in the courses, which are spoken by non-native speakers, but the language and strategies used in these dialogues seems indistinguishable from those that would have been used by native speakers interacting with each other. One of the evaluation criteria used by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013, p. 244) is, "To what extent is the course likely to help learners to use English as a lingua franca?" Two of the courses score 2 out of 5 and the other four only manage 1 out of 5 each. Although some of the courses do acknowledge the participation of non-native speakers in the recording of the dialogues, Tomlinson and Masuhara conclude that the focus is almost exclusively on British English and the language 'taught' is contemporary British middle-class standard English. Burns and Hill (2013, p. 241) also review current global coursebooks and ask, "How far do speaking activities reflect the changing nature of English as a global language, and the fact that most interactions in English in the world today are not between two NS". They found the occasional non-native speaker but concluded that, "their impact is minimal and the purpose is not for exploration of communication between different speakers of English." They also found for one book that, "Little that happens in this book seems to take place outside Britain and most of the interaction is between white NS." If the coursebooks evaluated in the reviews referred to above are typical of current global coursebooks, and the indications are that they are typical, then concerns need to be expressed about the failure of such courses to really cater for the needs of the majority of learners who are using them. We need to ask why this situation prevails and to consider ways of addressing the problem, which would not only help users of English as a lingua franca to achieve effective communication but would also ensure that publishers would continue to make the profits they understandably need. That is what this chapter intends to do.

In this chapter, I am going to argue that the materials developed for learners of EIL (e.g., the majority of learners of English around the world) need to be substantially different from the materials traditionally used to teach EFL. In order to do so, I will be discussing issues related to materials for EIL, putting forward and justifying my own views and outlining the sort of materials I would welcome in future courses.

2 The Needs and Wants of Learners of English as a Lingua Franca

2.1 The Needs

In addition to course and learner specific needs, learners of English as a lingua franca need primarily to develop their ability to:

- understand English when it is written or spoken by non-native speakers of English
- make themselves understood in speech and writing to non-native speakers of English
- interact effectively with non-native speakers of English

    They might also need to develop their ability to:

- understand English when it is written or spoken by native speakers of English from different regions of the world
- make themselves understood in speech and writing to native speakers of English from different regions of the world
- interact effectively with native speakers of English from different regions of the world

In addition, they might need to pass examinations in order to progress academically and/or professionally. Unfortunately, all the major examinations of proficiency in English still assume that the model to be emulated is a standard variety of native speaker English, and they assess candidates in relation to their approximation to native speaker norms (Tomlinson 2010). This is despite many proposals for change. Jenner (1997) and Jenkins (2000) have long argued that a corpus of the phonological lingua franca core of English should be made use of in testing pronunciation. Seidlhofer (2001), Cook (2002), Prodromou (2003), and Jenkins (2012) have proposed the use of corpora of International English to inform the testing of English as an L2. Tomlinson (2006, p. 145) has proposed a "Core Examination of Proficiency in English as an International Language … plus supplementary examinations in proficiency in the use of specific sub-varieties of EIL." Tomlinson (2010, p. 609) has argued that, "The English we should test is the variety of English which is appropriate and effective in the contexts in which the candidates are likely to need to use English."

2.2   The Wants

The wants of learners of English as a lingua franca are very similar to those of learners of English for any other purposes. They want, for example, to be able to express themselves as human beings, to be able to communicate their feelings and ideas, to be able to be humorous and interesting in English, and to be themselves. These human wants are very important and should not be sacrificed for instrumental needs in any syllabus or materials for learners of English as a lingua franca. It is the satisfaction of these wants, which often creates the confidence and competence, which then facilitates the satisfaction of the more instrumental needs.

Another want, which is similar to those of other learners, is ironically the want to use English as native speakers do. Surveys of learners and teachers (e.g., Timmis 2002) have demonstrated a preference for native speaker norms. This preference is

understandable given the prestige accorded to standard varieties of native speaker English, but it is regrettably holding back the movement towards more realistic teaching of learners who need English as a lingua franca. Just like the dismissal of English as a lingua franca as an inevitably inferior variety of the language, the preference for learning to speak native speaker English probably reflects an understandable lack of awareness of all the issues involved.

An important point rarely made is that the English that learners are exposed to and taught in global coursebooks is not native speaker English at all. It is very often an idealised and simplified version of a standard variety of English, which bears very little resemblance to the English that is actually used in native speaker interaction in the real world. This is especially true in lower level coursebooks where most texts are contrived to illustrate language points and where most tasks are designed to practise these points. Not only are these texts and tasks unrepresentative of the reality of actual language use, but they can be damagingly misleading too, especially when presenting exemplars of written grammar as examples of spoken English (Burns and Hill 2013; Timmis 2013). As Burns and Hill say (2013, p. 243), "the model dialogues still read like written English."

3 Ways in Which Materials Can Cater for the Needs and Wants of Users of English as a Lingua Franca

3.1 The Use of Authentic Texts

Users of English as a Lingua Franca need to experience language as it is actually used in the real world, not as it is practised in the idealised world of the typical coursebook dialogue. They are not learning English as a hobby or an academic pursuit but as a vitally important means of participating in an international world. They need to be able to communicate with people from different cultures and language backgrounds; they need to establish credibility; they need to be able to express their views and opinions; they need to be able to conduct transactions; and they need to be able to make friends and get on well with colleagues. To achieve this, they need to experience people doing these things both successfully and unsuccessfully in both speech and in writing. This means that they need to read and listen to texts which are authentic in the sense that they relate to the learners' current and future worlds, in the sense that they engage the learner and in the sense that they have not been contrived to illustrate teaching points (Tomlinson 2013a, p. 6).

> Materials aiming at explicit learning usually contrive examples of the language which focus on the feature being taught. Usually these examples are presented in short, easy, specially written or simplified texts or dialogues, and it is argued that they help the learners by focusing their attention on the target feature. The counter-argument is that such texts overprotect learners, deprive them of the opportunities for acquisition provided by rich texts and do not prepare them for the reality of language use.

I would personally argue that what learners of English as a lingua franca need is not a contrived focus on language features but a focus on how English is used as a lingua franca. This can be partly achieved by engaging exposure to authentic spoken and written texts, which illustrate how English is typically used as a lingua franca. Such texts could, for example, be extracts from non-native speaker literature in English, non-native speaker films in English, non-native speaker television programmes in English, English medium newspapers and magazines from non-native speaker countries, and recorded transactions and interactions between non-native speakers. I believe that all the texts on a course for learners of English as a lingua franca should be authentic in the sense that they have been "produced in order to communicate rather than to teach" (Tomlinson 2012, p. 162). I also believe that meaningful engagement with authentic lingua franca texts is a prerequisite for the development of communicative and strategic competence when using English as a lingua franca. Such texts can be collected and kept in libraries ready for use in materials development but they can also be created by interactive negotiation between lingua franca learners. The latter is perhaps the best way of collecting texts for lower level learners. One way of doing this is to get lingua franca learners at a slightly higher level to improvise dialogues and record them.

The internet and the mobile phone offer great opportunities for materials writers and teachers to find authentic lingua franca interactions to use as materials and for students to interact with native and with non-native speakers in the same or other countries both as a means of providing experience of lingua franca communication and of providing texts for use as materials with the same or with other students. An example of the use of mobile phones to create semi-authentic lingua franca materials is reported in Kern (2013) when taxi drivers in Bursa, Turkey used their phones to create and send in taxi driver/tourist customer dialogues whilst they were in their taxis waiting for customers.

3.2   The Use of Authentic Tasks

My definition of an authentic task is "one which involves the learners in communicating to achieve an outcome, rather than to practice the language" (Tomlinson 2012, p. 162). Authentic tasks can be realistic in the sense that they replicate in the classroom contexts of communication from outside the classroom. For example, they could involve scenarios in which company executives are deciding, which advert should lead the promotion of a new product or in which a teenage girl is attempting to persuade her new boyfriend to take her out of an important football match because she feels ill. However, authentic tasks can also be 'pedagogic' rather than real life in that they replicate the use of real life skills in an artificial activity, which would never be conducted outside the classroom. For example, students in groups could use the skills of providing instructions and of seeking clarification in order to reproduce a model or drawing, which is only visible to the 'runner' in their group. Or they could make use of the skills of visualisation and inner speech to

solve mathematical problems which determine which member of a team plays next in a game of newspaper hockey (Tomlinson and Masuhara 2010). Such tasks help learners to develop skills in artificial classroom tasks, which they can transfer to real life tasks outside the classroom. I believe that all tasks should be authentic in a realistic or pedagogic way; otherwise, the learners are not being prepared for the realities of language use.

What is needed when developing materials for learners of English as an International Language (EIL) is an inventory of typical contexts of communication for users of EIL (for an example, see Tomlinson 2006, p. 139) and an inventory of the key skills and sub-skills needed by users of EIL. Then, authentic tasks can be developed to facilitate the development of relevant skills and of pragmatic EIL competence (see Cohen and Ishihara 2013).

Contexts of EIL communication which come readily to mind include:

- a foreign visitor seeking information/directions/assistance from a local resident in a non-English speaking country
- a foreign visitor giving directions to a local taxi driver in a non-English speaking country
- a foreign resident seeking and giving information to a local official in a non-English speaking country
- travellers from different countries interacting at an airport/on a plane/on a train
- business men from different countries negotiating a contract
- a foreign visitor/resident consulting a local doctor in a non-English speaking country
- sports fans/experts/commentators communicating at an international sports event
- delegates at an international conference discussing a presentation
- travellers booking flights, hotels, restaurants etc. on the phone, Skype or internet
- travellers communicating about arrangements for meetings, travel, conferences etc. by e-mail

Vital skills of EIL communication which come readily to mind include:

- achieving intelligibility with non-native speakers with a much higher or lower level of communicative competence
- seeking appropriate clarification without losing face or giving offence
- accommodating towards speakers of different varieties of English
- achieving satisfactory social interaction whilst conducting a transaction with someone who is using a different variety of English
- being sensitive to cultural differences in how speech acts are performed in English (e.g., *greetings*, *apologies*, *justifications*, *invitations*, see Cohen and Ishihara 2013)

It is the use of such inventories of contexts and skills to inform the development of tasks, which should distinguish an EIL coursebook from a global EFL coursebook.

3.3 The Use of Spoken Interactions Between Non-native Speakers

Listening to and replicating dialogues between idealised native speakers is what users of most global EFL coursebooks are asked to do. This is hardly likely to prepare EIL learners for the reality of language use as a lingua franca. What they need is rich, varied and extensive experience of listening to/viewing interactions between non-native speakers of English. Ideally, they need experience of interacting themselves with non-native speakers of English from different parts of the world. The first need is easily satisfied by including in the course a library of audio and video recordings of non-native speaker authentic interactions (both dialogues and group conversations) plus web references to other sources of such interactions, both in real life and in films and television programmes. Ideally and controversially, these interactions should not only be between successful users of EIL but also between interactants struggling to achieve communication. Successful non-native speaker interactions can be motivating to learners and can act as positive models. Struggling interactions can provide learners with experience of typical reality and help them to develop strategies for coping with it. The second need mentioned above (e.g., the need to interact with a variety of other non-native speakers) is less easily satisfied if the class is monolingual but use can be made of mobile technology (e.g., Skype) to help learners to participate in lingua franca interaction and visitors can be invited to visit the class. Having cross-school activities face to face or through mobile phones can also help learners to become effective communicators with learners at different levels of proficiency (a real need in the lingua franca world, which is not helped by keeping learners in groups that are as homogeneous as possible).

3.4 Learner Unstructured Interaction

Barker (2011) reports an experiment he conducted in a university in Japan. Convinced that the time devoted to learning English in class was totally inadequate for the achievement of communicative competence he persuaded many of his students to sign a contract agreeing to speak only English to each other whenever they met in or outside the university. After a year the students who regularly participated in such unstructured interaction with other students had improved considerably in confidence and communicative competence and, in particular, had increased their typical length of utterance when communicating and had enriched their vocabulary. I once encouraged a similar activity at a university in Addis Ababa and this also led to positive effects. Both the activities mentioned above involved learners who shared an L1 but they were inevitably at different levels of proficiency and therefore developed many of the skills required by non-native speakers of English interacting with other non-native speakers. Such an approach could be even more beneficial if used in institutions in which the learners had many different L1s and the activity was

spread over many different levels of learners. It could also be encouraged between students when they communicate with each other by e-mail, on the phone or on social networks and between students and members of the local community who speak English as an L2.

3.5   Pragmatic Awareness Activities

One of the major problems that non-native speakers have when communicating with native speakers or with other non-native speakers is achieving pragmatic effectiveness (i.e. achieving the intended effect of their communication). They might use correct grammatical structures but not achieve the intended effect because they are, for example, too formal or informal, too direct or indirect, and too blunt or tentative. What learners of EIL need is much more experience of communicating with EIL speakers from different cultures and far greater awareness of how intended effects can be achieved. In particular, they need to develop sensitivity towards different cultural norms and to be able to accommodate their pragmatic norms towards those of their interlocutors, for, as Biber et al. (1999, p. 1045) say, "conversation is co-constructed by two or more interlocutors, dynamically adapting their expression to the on-going exchange." Obviously, EIL learners cannot during their course become proficient in communicating with interactants from all the regions and cultures they are likely to encounter after their course. They can however develop their ability to become sensitive to different ways of, for example, greeting people, inviting people, declining invitations, seeking information, seeking clarification, giving opinions, expressing agreement, expressing disagreement, and expressing gratitude. They can also develop their ability to vary the way in which they perform such speech acts themselves in order to narrow the gap between their own cultural norms and those of their interactants. They will not achieve this though if they are restricted to practising idealised native speaker like dialogues. What they need is monitored opportunities to experience both successful and unsuccessful lingua franca interactions (with comedy films and videos via the web being an ideal source for the latter) as well as opportunities in the classroom, on social networks and outside the classroom to participate in lingua franca communication tasks.

Cohen and Ishihara (2013) point out how inadequate most EFL coursebooks are in helping learners to develop pragmatic competence, and Timmis (2013) reveals the gaps between the realities of spoken interaction and its representation in dialogues in coursebooks. In order to prepare for the realities of spoken interaction, it is obviously important that EIL learners are exposed to authentic interactions (ideally between speakers from many different regional and cultural backgrounds) rather than scripted dialogues in which native speakers (or near native speakers) interact orally in a standard written English. Burns and Hill (2013, p. 243), as reported earlier, find that in the coursebooks they investigate "The model dialogues still read like written English." They also ask the question, "how far do speaking activities reflect the changing nature of English as a global language, and the fact

that most interactions in English today are not between two NS?" They find that most of the conversations are between white NS and that "the conversations do not really reflect any global contexts" (p. 242).

What I would suggest is that materials for EIL learners should include scenarios involving problematic conversations between non-native speakers as well as pragmatic awareness activities in which the learners are helped to make discoveries about a specific pragmatic feature which is salient in a spoken or written text they have already responded to holistically (Tomlinson 2013b). In a scenario half the class in groups prepare to be one of the interactants in a conversation (e.g., a customer in a taxi trying to get to a specific hotel; the taxi driver trying to take the customer to a different hotel, a salesman trying to sell a particular make of car; the customer trying to buy a different make of car, a young woman trying to persuade her boyfriend to take her to the ballet; the young man trying to persuade his girlfriend to go to a football match with him). The groups know who the other interactant is but they do not know what they are going to say and do. Once the groups are ready they choose a representative to take part in a conversation with the representative of the other groups. During the conversation the groups can call a 'time out' during which they coach or substitute their representative. After the conversation is concluded the teacher leads a post-mortem, which focuses on the pragmatic strategies which the representatives used and the strategies they could have used. In a pragmatic awareness activity, the learners are prepared to read, listen to or watch a text (e.g., a short story, song or extract from a film) through reflecting on their own experiences of similar situations to those portrayed in the text. They then experience the text holistically before responding to it personally (e.g., expressing their view of one of the characters or their response to a proposal). Then, in groups, they focus on a particular pragmatic feature of the text (e.g., strategies for persuasion; attempts to justify; ways of declining) and make discoveries about how it is used to achieve the intended effect. This is followed by 'research' activities that involve the learners in finding further samples of the use of the pragmatic feature in discourse used outside the classroom (in, for example, newspapers, magazines, novels, tv programmes, internet communications). Finally the learners get together, share their findings and articulate generalisations. From then on they look out for further use of the pragmatic feature to test their hypotheses against.

On a number of courses, I have combined the ideas of the scenario and the pragmatic awareness activity by developing my scenarios from authentic texts. This has enabled me to subsequently use the texts for personal response and pragmatic awareness activities after the scenarios have been performed and reflected on.

3.6   The Use of Written Texts Produced by Non-native Speakers for Global Readership

So far, I have focussed to a large extent on EIL as a lingua franca for oral communication. This is undoubtedly its main function and, because of its many varieties and the multiplicity of its cultural norms, its main problem too. Written EIL tends to be closer to native speaker norms, but nevertheless it varies sufficiently to pose problems for learners unfamiliar with particular varieties. Typically in coursebooks, learners only encounter texts written in standard British or American English. It would really help them if there were also texts taken from literature, songs, newspapers advertisements, notices, instructions, blogs, tweets, e-mails and letters written by non-native speakers from such ESL countries as Nigeria, India and Malaysia, as well as from such EFL countries as Brazil, Egypt and Japan. Instead of being treated as deviations from standard norms such texts should be treated as samples of authentic language use for the learners to gain experience in responding to.

3.7   The 'Teaching' of Capabilities which are Particularly Important in Achieving Successful Communication in a Lingua Franca

A number of capabilities are particularly important when using English as a lingua franca. Inevitably, each interactant's English will differ from the other interactant(s) and the ability to accommodate towards the English of others is a crucial contributor towards the achievement of effective communication. In their description of Communicative Accommodation Theory, Giles et al. (1991, p. 7) defined such convergence as "a strategy whereby individuals adapt to each other's communicative behaviours in terms of a wide range of linguistic-prosodic-nonverbal features including speech rate, pausal phenomena and utterance length, phonological variants, smiling, gaze and so on." It seems that non-native interactants are much more adept at accommodation than native speakers interacting with non-native speakers. But, even so it would be extremely useful for EIL learners to experience such convergence through, for example, watching videos of lingua franca interactions to make discoveries about how effective communicators achieve accommodation and being given opportunities themselves to converge towards other non-native speakers when communicating with them. One source I have used in developing lingua franca materials is interviews with famous non-native speaking players on Premier League websites. First I elicit personal responses to the interviews, then use them to make discoveries about how the interactants achieve accommodation and then get students to role play famous non-native speaker sports stars in interviews in English. Jenkins (2000) has written about accommodation as an important feature of lingua franca communication and Tomlinson (2010) has suggested that accommodation

should be one of the most important capabilities to be assessed in a Core Examination of Proficiency in English as an International Language.

Other capabilities that lingua franca users need to develop include monitoring of communicative effect, achieving communication repair, seeking clarification, stimulating positive responses, achieving credibility and achieving respect. Such capabilities rarely feature in global coursebooks but arguably should receive a lot of attention in EIL coursebooks.

3.8   The 'Teaching' of Language Items and Features Important for International Communication

Although English as an International Language is mainly distinguished from standard native speaker Englishes by its significant functions and required capabilities, there are some language items and features which are recognisably EIL rather than Standard English. Many of these are phonological features, some are lexical items, some are syntactic and grammatical features and some are manifestations of speech acts. In order to determine what these items and features are, it would be necessary to examine the many corpora of Englishes (e.g., the Hong Kong Corpus of Spoken English www.engl.polyu.edu.hk/department/academicstaff/chengwinnie.html; the International Corpus of English <www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/ice/>; the Limerick Corpus of Irish English <www.ul.ie/~Icie/homepage.htm>) and the many corpora of English as an International Language (e.g., The Cambridge International Corpus www.cambridge.org/elt; the International Corpus of Learner English www.fltr.ucl.ac.be/fltr/germ/etan/cecl/Cecl-Projects/Icle/icle.htm;   the   Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English <www.univie.ac.at/voice/>). Such an examination could help us to discover the commonalities between the corpora. For details of corpora which can be accessed online, see Appendix 1 of O'Keefe et al. (2007) and for chapters on many different Englishes, see Kirkpatrick (2010).

3.9   The Development of Inter-Cultural Competence

There are many recent publications on the importance of learners of an L2 developing inter-cultural competence at the same time and as part of their development of communicative competence in the L2. Most of these publications focus on developing inter-cultural competence in relation to the cultures associated with the target language and some of them focus on developing materials to help learners to achieve this goal (e.g., Mason 2010; Troncoso 2010). However, in the case of learning English as a lingua franca, it is not possible to specify the cultures of all the interlocutors the learners are likely to interact with in the future. What they need is to develop awareness of the norms of the EIL 'culture' as well as competence in using

English to interact with interlocutors from any culture. What Byram and Masuhara (2013) have to say about materials for inter-cultural competence is relevant to such goals but to help learners to achieve them we need to find out more about the actual sensitivities and capabilities needed to achieve lingua franca cultural integration. Pulverness and Tomlinson (2013) suggest that one way of helping learners to achieve this multi-culturality is through providing them with experience of stimulating literary texts that employ deliberate strategies of de-familiarization by taking readers on voyages of discovery or by making them look in new ways at their everyday surroundings. They say that genres which typically displace the reader in this way include historical fiction, science fiction and Utopian fantasies and that their value is 'the way in which it may encourage them not simply to observe the difference in the Other culture, but to become less ethnocentric and more culturally relativist' (p. 448).

Activities which could facilitate the eventual development of 'multi-culturality' include:

- experiencing 'texts' in which there are communication problems caused by lack of inter-cultural awareness (e.g., an Indonesian meeting a French business colleague and asking, 'Where are you going?') and suggesting strategies which could have prevented or solved the problems
- participating in scenarios in which the teacher deliberately causes inter-cultural communication problems (e.g., by bluntly asking, 'Where is the station?' rather than making a polite request for information)
- extensive reading/viewing of 'texts' in which English is used in cultures very different from those of the students
- matching appropriate strategies and utterances to specified lingua franca contexts (e.g., an Egyptian shopkeeper trying to persuade a German tourist to buy perfume; an African student writing a letter of application to a Japanese university)
- changing lingua franca strategies and utterances in response to changes in the context (e.g., greetings in formal meetings changed from Brazil to China to Nigeria)
- listening to/reading interviews with lingua franca users about their inter-cultural experiences
- interviewing lingua franca users about their inter-cultural experiences
- the use of non-native speaker literature, films, songs etc.

For suggestions for how to make use of the internet (and especially of social networks) as a source of lingua franca 'texts' see Tomlinson and Masuhara (2016).

Finally I need to reiterate a point which is either implicit or explicit in all the sections above:

In order to become effective users of English as a lingua franca, learners need a rich and varied exposure to English being used as a lingua franca.

4   Conclusion

It would be a brave publisher who published the first *Use English with the World* coursebook which did what I have proposed above. However, doing so could bring the publisher great acclaim, and it could be very profitable too, provided of course that potential users are persuaded that they do not need to speak and write like native speakers of English and that examinations are developed which reward candidates for effective lingua franca use of EIL. Let us hope it happens soon. I think though that it is much more likely that publishers will incorporate a weak EIL approach within their mainstream coursebooks with a few texts and dialogues being applicable to lingua franca contexts. Then, the main hope for a way forward will be for ministries and large institutions to develop their own materials in which they adopt a strong EIL approach and prepare their learners primarily for lingua franca interaction in English.

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Assessment in ELT: Theoretical Options and Sound Pedagogical Choices

James Dean Brown

Abstract This chapter begins by describing 12 theoretically sound assessment options that are currently available to language teachers for assessing the knowledge and skills of their students. These 12 assessment types are classified into four categories: receptive-response (true-false, multiple-choice, and matching items); productive-response (fill-in and short-answer items, and performance assessment); personal-response (portfolios, conferences, and self/peer assessment); and individualized-response (i.e., continuous, differentiated, and dynamic assessment). The chapter then examines the pedagogical implications of these 12 assessment types in terms of (a) the content that each can assess, (b) how logistics affect each one, (c) how scoring can be done for each, and (d) what the communicative characteristics are for each. The paper ends by considering the steps teachers might want to follow in deciding which assessment type best matches the materials and activities they are using in their classrooms and thereby maximize the positive washback effects of their assessment on their students' classroom learning.

Keywords Selected-response assessment • Constructed-response assessment • Personal-response assessment • Individualized-response assessment • Washback • Communicative testing • Classroom testing

1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and analyze the theoretical options that language teachers currently have for assessing the knowledge and abilities of their students. As you will see, the chapter identifies 12 such options and provides teachers with information they can use to choose among those options in creating pedagogically sound assessment procedures that match the materials and activities they are using in their classrooms.

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2 Assessment Options

The 12 assessment options are shown in Appendix 1 in four categories.[1] Notice that the categories (along with the advantages of each category) are listed in the first column, the assessment types in the second column, and the advantages of each of the assessment types in the third column (For examples of all 12 assessment types, see Brown 2013a).

The **selected-response category** requires students to listen and/or read and then select the correct answer (by circling, making a mark). Items in this category are suitable for testing the receptive skills of reading and listening and passive knowledge of subjects like grammar and vocabulary. Such items are relatively quick and easy to administer and score, and scoring them is considered objective. ***True-False items*** most often ask students to read or listen to statements and determine if they are true or false (for more, especially on handling the guessing factor that is uniquely problematic for these items, see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 65–67). These items are particularly useful for assessing students' abilities to distinguish between two choices and can serve as simple and direct measures of knowledge or reading/listening comprehension. ***Matching items*** require students to indicate which entry in one list matches each item in another list (see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 67–68). These items are compact and require little space. Thus, they are often used to efficiently assess students' passive knowledge of vocabulary by requiring them to match definitions with vocabulary words. Matching items also have a fairly low guessing factor (e.g., about 10 % for a ten item set). ***Multiple-choice items*** require students to choose the one answer from among three, four, or five options that best completes or matches specific language material (see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 68–71). These items can be used to test a wider range of language learning points than true-false or matching items and have a relatively low guessing factor (e.g., about 25 % for four-option items).

The **constructed-response category** differs fundamentally from the selected-response category in that, while students are often required to listen and/or read, they are also expected to produce either written or oral language (ranging from single words as in fill-in items to entire oral presentations as in performance assessment). Thus, this category allows for the assessing of productive language use, active knowledge, as well as interactions of receptive (reading/listening) and productive (writing/speaking) skills. In addition, this category typically has a very small guessing factor. ***Fill-in items*** require students to write in the missing word(s) in blanks created in written text (see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 72–73). These items are relatively easy to create and score, flexible to use, and relatively quick to administer. ***Short-answer items*** ask students to write a few words, phrases, short sentences, and a formula, diagram in response to a written or oral question about a written or spoken passage (see Brown and Hudson 2002, p. 74). These items are relatively easy to create, flexible to use, and quick to administer. ***Performance assessment*** requires students to perform a task like writing a composition and performing a role play (see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 74–78, or Norris et al. 1998).

Such assessment can be designed to simulate authentic language use and thus can be used to compensate for the negative effects of standardized testing that may be occurring elsewhere in the students' lives and thereby provide positive *washback effects* (i.e., the effects of testing on the teaching and learning associated with it).

The **personal-response category** adds a learner-focused dimension to the assessment process by getting students to use the language to create meanings personally important to them, by getting them personally involved in the assessment process, and/or by simulating authentic language use. Assessment in this category is necessarily integrated into the teaching/learning curriculum and can be used to examine the learning processes that are going on. All of which helps provide positive washback effects on the students and their learning. *Conference assessment* usually involves teachers meeting with single students or small groups of students and going over various language points that need review or practice (see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 78–81). Teachers can use conference assessment to elicit and give feedback on specific skills, tasks, functions, and grammar points that students need to review and practice. Teachers can also use conferences to help students improve their self-images. Such assessment can also help students to understand their own learning processes and strategies. In short, conferences can be used to inform, observe, mold, and gather further information about students. *Portfolio assessment* requires students to collect work of their own choosing that they have done throughout a course, as well as reflect on that work and display the portfolios for a particular audience (see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 81–83). Such assessment is particularly useful for enhancing learning and buy-in to the assessment process because students are creating their own personal portfolios. If properly structured, portfolio assessment can also reduce the teacher's role in the assessment process and encourage student autonomy and learner motivation. *Self/peer-assessment* involves students scoring or rating their own or their peers' work (see Brown and Hudson 2002, pp. 83–86). Such assessment can take less time than teacher scoring if well organized. It also combines well with performance, conference, or portfolio assessment. Since self/peer assessment involves students directly and intimately in the assessment process, it helps students understand that process and encourages student autonomy and motivation.

The **individualized-response category** is even more learner-focused than the personal-response category in that the assessment and feedback are tailored to the individuals. The assessment types in this category are the best tailored to a specific curriculum. Indeed, since they are tailored to individual students, they can be used to precisely examine the learning processes that the students are going through. Thus, this category can help compensate for any negative effects of standardized testing and provide positive washback effects on students and their learning. *Continuous assessment* turns most or all learning activities into assessment activities by providing feedback in a constant, cyclical, and cumulative way (see Puhl 1997). Such assessment is integrated firmly in the curriculum as well as in the grading process for the course. Creating a constant assessment feedback loop may also increase learning and learner motivation. In many instances, continuous assessment could be implemented by simply adding a feedback component to existing classroom

activities and/or making existing assessments more like the activities that students are experiencing on a daily basis in the classroom. ***Differentiated assessment*** requires teachers to first assess students' learning style preferences using an instrument like the *Visual*, *Auditory*, *and Kinesthetic Learning Styles* questionnaire at http://www.businessballs.com/freepdfmaterials/vak_learning_styles_question-naire.pdf and then provide different assessment procedures to suit the preferences of different groups of students (see Stefanakis and Meier 2010). Such assessment is tailored to the visual, auditory, or kinaesthetic learning style strengths of individual students—a practice that is viewed by advocates as fairer than traditional testing methods. One way to think about differentiated assessment is that it allows students to demonstrate their learning or skill getting in the way that best suits their abilities. For example, to demonstrate that they understood a set of oral instructions for building robot, a visual learner might draw a representation of what would result, while an auditory learner might orally repeat the directions, and a kinesthetic learner might actually make the robot—each in the service of demonstrating that they have the skill or ability to understand oral instructions, but in three different ways. Such assessment should be integrated firmly into the choices and options teachers make about all teaching, materials, and classroom activities in the curriculum. In addition, tailoring assessment to students' individual learning style preferences may increase learning and learner motivation. ***Dynamic assessment*** involves integrating teaching and assessment by either actively predicting learner problems and prearranging mediation, called the interventionist strategy, or by supporting learner development through assessment and feedback, called the interactionist strategy (see Poehner 2008). Such assessment tailors teaching and assessment to the learning of individual students as they develop, which is seen by advocates as socio-linguistically fairer and more effective than traditional assessment practices. Since the assessment is directly integrated into the learning processes that are designed/tailored for each individual student, it may increase learning and learner motivation.

To further explore all 12 forms of assessment described above, try searching any terms that you are not familiar with online, and you will find a wealth of information out there about each of them along with examples of how to use them. For example, searching *dynamic assessment* provided me with thousands of web leads defining the key concepts, explaining the processes involved, and providing examples. For additional information about how computers and technology could be used to improve classroom assessment using any of these 12 forms of assessment, see Brown (2004, 2009, 2013b, 2016).

3   Pedagogical Implications

In order to help you better understand and use the 12 theoretical assessment options discussed above in your classrooms, I will now directly compare them in terms of the content, logistical, scoring, and communicative issues involved.

3.1 How Do Content Issues Compare for the Assessment Types?

So far I have presented the advantages of each of the 12 assessment types in fairly glowing terms. However, these forms of assessment are not all equal in the sorts of content they can assess. Thus, you will need to make judgments about which assessment type(s) to choose based on the content that you ware teaching. Table 1 presents each of the 12 assessment types in terms of how they can accommodate different content areas:

1. Generally (X)
2. For passive (P) knowledge only (e.g., knowing vocabulary definitions, but not necessarily being able to actively use them)
3. For both (B) passive knowledge *and* active use (e.g., knowing grammar rules, and being able to actively apply them)

The content issues shown in Table 1 include: *Large-Scale Standardized*, which means testing on standardized tests like the *Test of English as a Foreign Language* (TOEFL) that are administered to millions of students; *Small-Scale Classroom*, which represents assessment in classroom situations with relatively small numbers of students; *Productive Language*, which is language that the students produce in the form of speaking or writing: *Reading*, *Writing*, and *RxW Interaction*, which are the reading and writing skills or their interaction (e.g., reading two passages, and writing a critical comparison of the two); *Listening*, *Speaking*, and *LxS Interaction*, which are the listening and speaking skills or their interaction (e.g., listening to two short lectures, and orally presenting a critical comparison of the two); *Vocabulary*, which includes lexical items and collocations; *Grammar*, which covers both syntax and morphology; *Pronunciation*, which consists of all consonant sounds, vowel sounds, and diphthongs; *Connected Speech*, which includes aspects of pronunciation like stress timing, schwa, transition, and assimilation; *Pragmatics*, which is taken here to be the rules that govern linguistic choices based on contextual factors like social distance, and power differences between speakers; and *Translation*, which refers to the process of converting in either direction between any two languages as appropriate in the context.

Notice that Table 1 can be read in two different ways. First, if you want to know the sorts of things that can be tested with a particular assessment type, you can go to the row for that type and examine the sorts of things that it can assess. For example, if you are interested in what can be done with *fill-in items*, you can go to that row (the fourth row inside the table) and see that fill-in items can be used for both large-scale standardized testing and small-scale classroom assessment, and for both passive and active knowledge or skills, but only in a limited number of skills and knowledge (reading, listening, vocabulary, and grammar). Second, if you would like to know which assessment types are best suited for different content purposes, you can read the table in the other direction. For instance, if you are interested in assessing productive language, you can examine the third column inside the table and see

Table 1 Content issues compared for the 12 assessment types

Category	Assessment type	What can each assessment format assess?					
		Large-scale standardized	Small-scale classroom	Productive language	Reading	Writing	RxW interaction
Receptive-response	True-false items	X	X		P	P	
	Multiple-choice items	X	X		P	P	
	Matching items	X	X		P	P	
Productive-response	Fill-in items	X	X		B		
	Short-answer items	X	X	X	B	B	B
	Performance assessment	X	X	X	B	B	B
Personal-response	Portfolio assessment		X	X	B	B	B
	Conference assessment		X	X	B	B	B
	Self peer-assessment		X	X	B	B	B
Individualized-response	Continuous assessment		X	X	B	B	B
	Differen-tiated assessment		X	X	B	B	B
	Dynamic assessment		X	X	B	B	B

X can be accommodated generally, *P* passive knowledge only, *B* both passive knowledge and active use

Listening	Speaking	LxS interaction	Vocabulary	Grammar	Pronunciation	Connected speech	Pragmatics	Translation
P			P	P	P	P	P	
P			P	P	P	P	P	
P			P	P	P	P	P	
B			B	B				
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B

that eight assessment types from short-answer items down can accommodate productive language.

Several patterns emerge from Table 1. First, large-scale standardized tests are typically limited to the top 6 assessment types, while the small-scale classroom assessment can use all 12 assessment types. Also given that only the bottom eight types can assess productive language, by extension that means that the top 4 assessment types can only be used to test receptive language. Thus, if you want your students to be able to use the language productively, the top 4 assessment types may not serve your purposes very well. In other words, if you favor communicative, functional, or task-based teaching and learning, you would be well advised to consider using some of the bottom eight assessment types if you are not already doing so.

3.2 How Do Logistical Issues Compare for the Assessment Types?

Table 2 analyzes each of the 12 assessment types in terms of logistical issues with regard to whether they are easy (E) to deal with, moderately difficult (M), or difficult (D).

The logistical issues shown in Table 2 are: *Creating Items/Test*, which includes planning, writing, and piloting individual items, and directions for the assessment; *Administering*, which covers everything to do with managing and running the assessment; *Scoring/Feedback*, which involves all aspects of converting the assessment results to scores or other types of feedback; *Overall Practicality*, which combines all of the creating, administering, and scoring/feedback issues in a kind of overall practicality estimate; and *Integrating it into the Curriculum*, which involves all aspects of incorporating the assessment into the learning and teaching processes.

Notice that, like Table 1, Table 2 can be read in two different ways. Consider how each of those could be useful to you. Patterns are not as obvious in Table 2 as they were in Table 1. Generally speaking, in terms of overall practicality, the top 5 assessment types in Table 2 are the easiest to apply, and the others are relatively difficult or moderately difficult, which may go a long way to explaining why so many teachers and testers tend to rely on true-false, multiple-choice, matching, and fill-in items. Beyond that single pattern, each assessment type appears to have its own easy, moderately difficult, or difficult logistical characteristics.

3.3 How Do Scoring Issues Compare for the Assessment Types?

Table 3 analyzes each of the 12 assessment types in terms of scoring issues with regard to whether each scoring issue can currently be applied (X) to the particular assessment type in question or, in two cases of machine scoring, is in development (?).

Table 2 Logistics issues compared for the 12 assessment types

Category	Assessment type	Logistical issues				
		Creating items/test	Administering	Scoring/Feedback	Overall practicality	Integrating it into the curriculum
Receptive-response	True-false items	M	E	E	E	D
	Multiple-choice items	M	E	E	E	D
	Matching items	M	E	E	E	D
Productive-response	Fill-in items	M	E	E	E	D
	Short-answer items	M	E	E	E	D
	Performance assessment	D	M	D	D	M
Personal-response	Portfolio assessment	D	M	D	D	E
	Conference assessment	D	D	D	D	E
	Self-peer-assessment	M	M	D	M	E
Individualized-response	Continuous assessment	M	M	D	M	E
	Differentiated assessment	M	M	D	M	E
	Dynamic assessment	D	D	D	D	E

E easy, *M* moderately difficult, *D*, difficult

The scoring issues shown in Table 3 include: *Right-Wrong* scoring, which can apply to any assessment type with only one correct answer and all other possibilities considered wrong; *Machine Scoring*, which means using a scoring machine linked to a computer with software for scoring, record keeping, and analyzing the results; *Glossary of Answers*, which involves working out a glossary (i.e., a list) of possible answers when two or more answers are possible for an item with all other possibilities considered wrong (e.g., a fill-in item with three possible answers); *Idea Units*, which is a type of scoring typically applied to speaking or writing output, where the goal is to count up the number of ideas students have understood or included from among the ideas in an written or oral text, usually without reference to grammaticality, and spelling; *Rubric*, which is scoring that involves using a matrix with scores on one dimension and one or more language categories on the other dimension with descriptors in the cells of the matrix for each language category at each score; and *Checklist*, which is scoring that involves keeping track of things that students have done (e.g., checking off each time they bring a slip from the language lab) or ticking off abilities or knowledge that students have displayed (e.g., in group work or pairs).

Notice that like Tables 1 and 2, Table 3 can be read in two different ways. Consider how each of those could be useful to you. One pattern that emerges from this table is that certain types of scoring are only useful for certain assessment types. For example, machine scoring only works for the first four assessment types (and is in development for two others), and rubrics and checklists are typically only applied to the last seven assessment types from performance assessment on down (i.e., those most commonly used in communicative or task-based teaching).

3.4   How Do Communicative Characteristics Compare for the Assessment Types?

The last set of issues to consider for the 12 assessment types is their characteristics in terms of communicative teaching, learning, and assessment. Brown (2005, pp. 21–22) listed the characteristics of communicative tests in terms of five *communicative requirements* and three *bases for ratings* (as shown across the top of Table 4).

Communicative requirements include the need for communication in the assessment procedure to be: *Meaningful* in that the message is something that the students might actually communicate (i.e., not of the useless "this is a pencil" sort of demonstration language); *Authentic* in that it is contextualized in a realistic situation in which the students might actually find themselves; *Unpredictable* in that the responses are variable; after all, the language input in the real world does not follow a single pattern (e.g., after 3 years of French study, I arrived in France only to find that the French did not know their lines in the dialogs I had memorized); *Creative* in that students' output should be allowed to be inventive and original (i.e., they may create sentences that are not exactly the way native speakers would produce the

Table 3 Scoring issues compared for the 12 assessment types

Category	Assessment type	Scoring issues					
		Right-wrong	Machine scoring	Glossary of answers	Idea units	Rubric	Checklist
Receptive-response	True-false items	X	X				
	Multiple-choice items	X	X				
	Matching items	X	X				
Productive-response	Fill-in items	X	X				
	Short-answer items		?	X	X		
	Performance assessment		?	X	X	X	X
Personal-response	Portfolio assessment					X	X
	Conference assessment			X	X	X	X
	Self/peer-assessment	X		X	X	X	X
Individualized-response	Continuous assessment	X		X	X	X	X
	Differentiated assessment	X		X	X	X	X
	Dynamic assessment	X		X	X	X	X

X can be applied, *?* in development

same utterances, but nevertheless manage to communicate their meaning); and *Multi-skill* in that, like communication in the real world which is seldom restricted to a single skill, the communication can involve interactions of reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

The **bases for ratings** should include at least: *Success* in that actually getting their meanings across (whether the communication is 100 % grammatical) should be considered as an important aspect of students' scores and the feedback given to them; *Language Use* in that the ability to *use* the language should be one focus of the scoring (i.e., scores should be based on the degree to which the students understood and produced intelligible output, rather than based on accuracy or grammaticality); and *New Components* should be considered in the rating process (e.g., use of suprasegmentals, pragmatics rules, collocations, etc.) instead of, or in addition to, the traditional pronunciation of phonemes, grammatical rules, and vocabulary.

Notice that like the other tables in this paper, Table 4 can be read in two different directions. Consider how each of those could be useful to you. One clear overall pattern that emerges from this table is that the communicative requirements and bases for ratings can only really be applied to the last seven assessment types from performance assessment on down. There are three things to keep in mind here. First,

Table 4 Communicative characteristics compared for the 12 assessment types

| Category | Assessment type | Communicative issues | | | | | | Bases for ratings | | |
| | | Communicative requirements | | | | | | | | |
		Meaningful	Authentic	Unpredictable	Creative	Multi-skill	Success	Language use	New components
Receptive-response	True-false items								
	Multiple-choice items								
	Matching items								
Productive-response	Fill-in items								
	Short-answer items								
	Performance assessment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Personal-response	Portfolio assessment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Conference assessment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Self/peer-assessment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Individualized-response	Continuous assessment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Differentiated assessment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Dynamic assessment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

the fact that these communicative requirements can be met and ratings can be based in communicative theory in these seven assessment types does not necessarily mean that they will be; it just means that they *can* be. Second, if you are not interested in communicative language teaching, you should ignore this table altogether. Third, if you are interested in communicative language teaching, but not experienced with it, you might consider not only using these requirements and ratings in your assessment practices, but also using them for designing communicative materials and activities in your classroom.

4   Conclusions

One limitation of this paper is that the descriptions and judgments in all of the tables are based entirely on my own personal experiences with them. Since my perspective may be different from yours, you should obviously include your own experiences in your thinking about these issues. Nonetheless, I hope you will agree that all of the issues I have raised here are worth including in your decision making about which assessment types to use in your classrooms. It might also help to follow these six steps:

1. Examine Tables 1 and 2 to decide which specific assessment type(s) you may want to consider using in a given situation for a specific group of students and assessment purpose.
2. Examine Tables 3 and 4 in more depth for the specific assessment type(s) you decided to consider in step 1 in order to include different aspects of those assessment types in your thinking.
3. Make your decision(s).
4. Develop and use those assessment types with your students.
5. Revise your judgments if necessary.
6. Begin again at step 1 for the next situation, group of students, and assessment purpose.

One important caveat: I have recently come to realize that classroom assessment is really just a special case of materials or activity development. By *special case*, I mean that assessment is (or should be) different from classroom materials or activities only in that it provides *purposeful feedback*, that is, "a way of observing or scoring the students' performances and giving feedback in the form of a score or other information (e.g., notes in the margin, written prose reactions, oral critiques, teacher conferences) that can enlighten the students and teachers about the effectiveness of the language learning and teaching involved" (Brown 2013a, p. x). For example, if your students have been using pair work to practice a set of functions that you have been teaching, then you should probably use performance assessment with students working in pairs (or perhaps pairing with you) in a manner similar to the classroom activities they have become accustomed to. Imagine the message you would be sending to your students if you instead used multiple-choice items to

assess the students' knowledge of the correct grammar that should be used in those functions. They would probably never trust you again and might refuse to do pair work in the future, asking instead to study the grammar rules underlying the functions.

In this chapter, I have stressed the importance of teachers understanding their options in language assessment and making pedagogically sound choices while keeping the situation and students in mind. I hope that you have found this chapter or some portions of it personally useful in helping you to make and defend rational assessment choices in your day-to-day classroom teaching so that your assessment will not only help you make judgments about your students and assign grades, but also help you to provide positive washback on your teaching and their learning.

Note

1. I will systematically refer to the assessment categories as *categories*, but, as shown in the second column of Appendix 1, I will refer to some assessment types as *items* (e.g., true-false items) because they generally focus on single narrowly defined language points, and other assessment types as *assessment* because they assess more generally and because they describe ways of gathering assessment information (i.e., through performances, portfolios, self/peer scoring, continuously, differentially, or dynamically).

Appendix 1: Advantage of the Four Categories and 12 Assessment Types

Category	Assessment type	Advantages of assessment type
Selected-response – good for testing receptive skills and passive knowledges; quick to administer; scoring quick, easy, and objective	True-false items	Are useful for assessing ability to discern between two choices; simple and direct measure knowledge or comprehension
	Matching items	Require little space; can efficiently assess passive knowledge of vocabulary; low guessing factor (e.g., about 10 % for 10 item test)
	Multiple-choice items	Are useful for testing a wide variety of learning points; relatively small guessing factor (e.g., about 25 % for four-option items)

Category	Assessment type	Advantages of assessment type
Constructed-response – allows for assessing productive language use, active knowledge, and interactions of receptive and productive skills; very small guessing factor	Fill-in items	Are relatively easy to create and score; flexible to use; relatively quick to administer
	Short-answer items	Are relatively easy to create, flexible to use, and quick to administer
	Performance assessment	Can be designed to simulate authentic language use; can compensate for negative effects of standardized testing; can provide positive washback effects
Personal-response – provides personal assessment; can simulate authentic language use; integrated into curriculum; can examine learning processes; provides positive washback	Conference assessment	Teachers can elicit specific skills or tasks that need review and help students (Ss) develop better self-images; can help Ss understand their learning processes and learning strategies; can be used to inform, observe, mold, and gather information about Ss'
	Portfolio assessment	Enhances S learning and buy-in; reduces teacher's role in assessment process; encourages S autonomy and motivation
	Self/ peer-assessment	Takes less time than teacher scoring, and combines well with performance, conference, and portfolio assessments; involves Ss intimately in the assessment process and helps them understand it; encourages S autonomy and motivation
Individualized-response – better tailored to specific curriculum; better personalized for individual Ss; can precisely examine learning processes; provides positive washback	Continuous assessment	Integrates assessment into the curriculum; should all be considered when grading at the course end; May increase learning and motivation
	Differentiated assessment	Tailors teaching and assessment to the learning style strengths of individual Ss; may be fairer and more effective than traditional practices; is integrated firmly in the curriculum; may increase learning and motivation
	Dynamic assessment	Tailors teaching and assessment to the learning of individual Ss as they develop; may be socio-linguistically fairer and more effective; Is directly integrated into the learning process tailored for each S; may increase learning and motivation

Compiled, adapted and expanded from Brown and Hudson (2002, pp. 65, 72, 79–80)

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Does Writing Promote Reflective Practice?

Thomas S.C. Farrell

Abstract Reflective practice is now a major component of most language teacher education and development programs worldwide. One other popular method that has been suggested as to how English language teachers could reflect on their work is by writing regularly in a teaching journal. This chapter asks a very important question about reflecting on practice: does writing promote reflective practice? I use a case study as a backdrop for discussing the use of teaching journals of how three EFL teachers in Korea met for 16 weeks to reflect on their work. This reflection included the use of regular journal writing. This chapter focuses on the contents of the teaching journals, the extent to which journal writing promoted reflection and the reasons why some teachers may not like writing a journal as a tool for reflection. Thus, the chapter offers suggestions, and some cautions, for language teachers, especially for non-native speaker ESL/EFL teachers, when using writing as a form of reflective practice.

1 Introduction

Reflective practice is now a major component of most language teacher education and development programs worldwide (Farrell 2007, 2015). It occurs when teachers consciously take on the role of reflective practitioner and subject their own beliefs about teaching and learning to critical analysis, take full responsibility for their actions in the classroom, and continue to improve their teaching practice (Farrell 2007, 2015). The use of reflective practice in teacher professional development is based on the belief that teachers can improve their own teaching by consciously and systematically reflecting on their teaching experiences. For example, teachers can self-reflect by recording their classes on audio and/or video; they can have a

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colleague or colleagues observe them and provide some feedback; they can discuss their teaching with a critical friend or a group of teachers; or they can use a combination of all of these (Farrell 2015). One other popular method that has been suggested as to how English language teachers could reflect on their work is by writing regularly in a teaching journal writing (Farrell 2007, 2013). This chapter asks a very important question about reflecting on practice: does writing promote reflective practice? I use a case study as a backdrop for discussing the use of teaching journals of how three EFL teachers in Korea—I was the fourth member of the group and acted in the capacity of critical friend to all the group members (explained below)—met for 16 weeks to reflect on their work. This reflection included the use of regular journal writing. This chapter focuses on the contents of the teaching journals, the extent to which journal writing promoted reflection and the reasons why some teachers may not like writing a journal as a tool for reflection. Thus, the chapter offers suggestions, and some cautions, for language teachers, especially for non-native speaker ESL/EFL teachers, when using writing as a form of reflective practice. Thus the main purpose and focus of this chapter is to explore the impact of such a reflective mode (ie. regular reflective journal writing) as a reflective tool for experienced EFL teachers.

2   What Is Reflective Practice?

Some teachers may wonder why they should reflect on practice and ask what reflecting on practice really mean. Teachers may ask such questions because most think that they already reflect on what they do each day. Yes, they do think about what they do but how do they know that these thoughts are a true reflection of what actually occurred in their lessons? In other words, what teachers think they do, and what they actually do is not always the same as perceptions and reality are not always the same. For example, if a teacher *thinks* his or her class has gone well or not so well, how do they really know? Do teachers look at their students' facial expressions and if they are smiling, then they perceive that the class has gone well; if they are frowning, then the class has not gone so well. This type of thinking is not real reflection as the teacher has no real evidence either way that the class has gone well or not. So one way to better investigate this issue would be to ask the students what they think about the class. In addition, teachers can record their lesson on audio and/or video so that they have retrievable data to use again when examining aspects of their lessons because our memory of events can be very selective. Yes, all teachers think about their practice before, during and even after class while on the way home but such thoughts may not be very productive in terms of providing optimum opportunities for our students to learn.

The main point here is that reflective practice involves collecting evidence about our practice so that we can make informed decisions about such practices (Farrell 2015). Teachers have many means of collecting such evidence about their practice

such as surveys, questionnaires, classroom observations with or without peers, discussions with other teachers in teacher groups face-to-face and/or using technology (e.g., blogs, forums and/or chats) so that they can better inform themselves about their and others' practices. Although there are many different modes of reflection to choose from as indicated above, reflective writing (usually in a teaching journal or diary) seems to have become a popular form of reflection (Mann and Walsh 2013) for many in the field of TESOL. Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 68) describe a teaching diary or journal as "an ongoing written account of observations, reflections, and other thoughts about teaching, usually in the form of a notebook, book, or electronic mode, which serves as a source of discussion, reflection, or evaluation." Bailey (1990) suggests that when language teachers write about various facets of their work over a period of time, and then read over their entries looking for patterns, they may discover aspects of their teaching that they had not realized before writing the journal.

3 Teaching Journals

A teaching journal is a place where a teacher writes regularly about his or her teaching experiences. Reflective journal writing can give teachers time to think about their work, for as Holly (1989) suggests, "long enough to reflect on it and to begin to understand and direct" (p. 78). For example, teaching journals can act as a way to explore the origins and implication of a teacher's beliefs about language teaching (and learning) and as a way of documenting a teacher's classroom practices. Teachers can then compare their stated (written) beliefs with their recorded (as written in their teaching journals) classroom practices in order to monitor for any inconsistencies. Bailey (1990) suggests that a teaching journal can be a place for teachers "to experiment, criticize, doubt, express frustration, and raise questions" (p. 218). McDonough (1994) maintains that teachers who write regularly about their teaching can become more aware of "day-to-day behaviors and underlying attitudes, alongside outcomes and the decisions that all teachers need to take" (pp. 64–65). Jarvis (1996) analyzed the content of journals written by teachers in an INSET course that were intended to promote reflection and found that they benefited teachers in the following ways: as a problem-solving device, for seeing new teaching ideas, and as a means of legitimizing their own practice. So if writing a teaching journal, has a positive outcome in the developmental process for beginning language teachers (Hyatt and Beigy 1999) and for teachers in an in-service training course (Jarvis 1996; Shin 2003), I wondered what issues experienced language teachers, especially EFL teachers, would write about and also what type of reflection is promoted when experienced language teachers write a teaching journal for their own professional development.

4   The Study

The study took place in Seoul, South Korea. Three EFL teachers met weekly to reflect on their work in a self-initiated teacher reflection group. The process included meeting weekly for one semester, and writing regular journal entries about their work. All the participants in the study were experienced EFL teachers in Korea. The two female Asian teachers (T1 & T3) had 5 years of teaching experience. In addition, T1 had a Master of Arts degree in Translation Studies, and T3 had a Master of Science degree in Education with a specialization in English teaching. T2 was a male Caucasian teacher and had a certificate in TESOL. Both of the Asian teachers seemed fluent in English. T1 was teaching part-time at a university in Seoul. T2 was teaching an English class at a private company in Seoul. T3 was teaching full-time at a university in Seoul. This author was the fourth member of the group and acted as a critical friend to each member and as an overall group facilitator. By critical friend, I mean a trusted listener who can act as a sounding board (Stenhouse 1975) as I facilitated the teachers' reflections in the group. My gain in the process would be to learn more about how to promote reflective practice with experienced EFL language teachers. Therefore, I report and write about the other three participants' reflections and my own reflections as a researcher.

5   Procedures

Initially, all three teachers agreed that each participant would keep an ongoing journal account of their experiences during the period of their group's existence. They agreed at the beginning that they could write about anything, whenever they wanted, but they also agreed to write at least one entry after an 'event' was experienced; an 'event' was to include a class observation and/or discussion, and a group meeting. The teachers gave me access to all their journal entries. All the journals were coded and the following five general categories or themes emerged. Category one includes theories of teaching; category two includes approaches and methods used in the teachers' classes; category three includes evaluating teaching; category four concerns teachers' self-awareness of their teaching; and category five includes questions about teaching and asking for advice.

6   Findings

Table 1 outlines the categories of topics that the teachers wrote about in their journals.

Generally, the evidence presented in Table 1 suggests that the most frequent topic the teachers (T1, T2, and T3) wrote about in their journals focused on their

Table 1 Topics the teachers wrote about in their journals

Topic	Number			Number	Teachers		
Category	Sub-category		[Total]	[Average]	T1	T2	T3
Theories of teaching	Theory	37	39	12.3	8	27*	2
	Application	2		0.6	0	2*	0
Approaches and methods	Methods	19	56	6.3	6	11*	2
	Content	15		5.0	5	8*	2
	Teacher's Knowledge	11		3.6	5*	3	3
	Learners	6		2.0	2	2	2
	School context	5		1.6	3*	1	1
Evaluating teaching	Evaluating	15	49	5.0	8*	6*	1
	Problems	27		9.0	20*	6	
	Solutions	7		2.3	4*	3*	0
Self-awareness	Perception of self as						
	Teacher	10	15	3.3	6*	3	1
	Personal growth	2		0.6	1*	1*	0
	Personal goals	3		1.0	2*	0	1
Questions on teaching	Asking for reasons	1	5	0.6	0	1*	0
	Asking for advice	4		1.3	1	3*	0

Asterisk (*) indicates number of comments greater than the average

approaches and methods to teaching, followed by *evaluating their teaching* and then their *theories of teaching*. However, an inspection of each teacher's individual journal entries showed a different choice of topic that reflected that teacher's personal interests. I now present details and examples of the topics each teacher wrote about.

6.1 T1's Written Reflections

T1, out of a total of 22 entries, was most concerned with evaluating her teaching rather than any other aspect of her work. She frequently cited problems, both personal and teaching-related, which influenced her teaching. For instance, she wrote about a personal problem in her journal: "I have not been feeling well these days and today I have a weak fever and dizziness. That means I did not fully prepare for the class. That made me a little upset." Later on during the semester this bad feeling would get worse: "October is a cruel month. I have lost appetite for teaching;" and, "Today I hardly could concentrate on the class. These days everything went wrong. I have too many things to handle right now. I experienced blackout in my mind…I felt as if I were a basket case."

T1 also reflected on the events that gave rise to difficulties in her teaching and tried to generate her own solutions. One such difficulty she had concerned the issue of how and when to correct her students' language errors. In an early journal entry,

September tenth, she addressed this issue when she was considering how to correct a pronunciation class:

> One of my weakest points is voiced sounds like [z] in zoo or museum. But I'm not an English native speaker, too. My English is not perfect. I always feel sorry about that to my students. Nevertheless, I try to correct their pronunciation but the result is not good. I know it takes some time and requires a lot of practice. Besides, I'm afraid my too often correction will make them silent and cause negative effect. So I refrain from correction too often. This is my dilemma.

A later entry notes that while she had not solved her dilemma, she had become more comfortable with it. She was teaching a speech class in which one student would lead the class in a discussion of a topic. She wrote about her method of correction:

> In fact, I meant to comment on his grammatical problems but I changed my mind. Because I, as teacher, made many mistakes, too. I felt whenever I opened my mouth I was making a mistake. Nevertheless our communication worked. Isn't that our aim to learn a language? Besides, I don't want to dampen cold water on his enthusiasm to practice English.

T1 also wrote a lot about her teaching procedures, which suggested that her experience is mostly from the classroom and previous experiences as a student. This seems to be consistent with her autobiographical interview results, in which she mentioned that she has no TESOL qualifications and only entered EFL teaching at her professor's strong suggestion.

6.2   T2's Written Reflections

In contrast, T2, the most prolific of the three writers with 28 entries, focused almost exclusively on reflecting on his theories of teaching, both his own and those of some expert opinions he said he read about. For example, he wrote about the topic of how he as a teacher made decisions in class:

> We must extend the wait time before we make a decision as long as we can stand the uncertainty, as we extend it waiting for a student response. The teacher as passive, I wonder? I'm not talking here about action. When we know what to do, we should do it straight away. But when we don't know what to do we should wait and savor the uncertainty. This is what makes teaching a buzz anyway, the uncertainty. This is what Lortie was writing about in his book *The Schoolteacher*, which I'm reading now.

He wondered about the place of training for language teachers too in that he saw little place for special training of teachers in language instruction; he wrote:

> The classroom is not the best place to learn a language because the teachers cop out as a result of the emotional demands and the intellectual demands placed on them. Learning from a partner in a familiar relationship who is prepared to talk about, answer questions about language is better. This partner does not require any special training. Special training cannot really help this person teach better. But in the classroom the intellectual and emotional stress can prevent the teacher acting as a partner would.

T2 reflected in his journal writing that he was not concerned with the application of specific theories to classroom practice. Also, his entries revealed that his knowledge of teaching came mostly from classroom practice and experience, and not specific training as an EFL teacher. In fact, his personal beliefs about teaching seem to override any theoretical reference. For example, he wrote: "I want to make the students more active in class even if I have to embarrass them." On occasion, though he wrote that he asks for advice and suggestions about his teaching from other teachers, and he also wrote about his classroom procedures.

6.3 T3's Written Reflections

T3 was the least active in her journal writing with only six entries during the whole period of reflection. She wrote exclusively about her classroom procedures and her worries about reflecting on her practice. In fact, she was somewhat ambivalent about exploring her teaching from the very beginning of the project, but she did not drop out although she knew she could at any time. For example, in her first journal entry she wrote: "What do I think about my teaching method? Do the students learn something from my teaching? I don't want to answer these questions. Actually I don't know." In her next journal entry 1 month later, she wrote that she may not be happy using journal writing as a means of reflecting on her teaching; she remarked: "I'm happy when we (our group) talk about our classes, even though I am sometimes wondering whether I'm heading for the right direction to find myself as a teacher. I'm also afraid of knowing myself in some ways." It is quite possible that writing in English may have been a burden for her, and as such, maybe it would have been better if she had written in her native language, Korean. Additionally, she could have recorded her entries if English and time were her main problems. Although she never stated that English was problematic for her writing, she did mention in one group meeting that it was time consuming to sit and think about what to write. In fact, because T3's journal entries were so few and short, I began to wonder if her unease with journal writing was related to the writing process or the reflective process or both. I now expand on this issue of writing a journal as reflective practice using T3's experiences with this reflective group as a backdrop.

It seems that all the teachers realized that although writing about their teaching may have been tedious at times it also allowed them to 'step back' for a moment that they would not normally have been able to do in the busy day-to-day teaching. T2 seemed especially interested in continued writing and in an almost 'stream of consciousness' fashion where he was writing to himself. T1, although reluctant at first to write, soon realized that by writing her thoughts she was able to 'see' them and they became real for her to consider and reflect on how complex teaching really is. In fact, she then became so comfortable writing about various dilemmas she encountered that she was able to solve some of them through writing about them. It was only T3 who did not seem to take to writing as a reflective mode of professional development, and this could have been a simple fear of making mistakes in English

or as complex as a real fear to reflect on her practice regardless of the mode of reflection. I will address the real issue of some teachers feeling unease when it comes to writing in any language about their practice.

7   Reflecting and Writing a Teaching Journal: Unease?

In a survey of 32 teachers evaluations of their experiences of writing a teaching journal, Ho and Richards (1993) discovered, that although most of the teachers found the writing process useful as a reflective tool, some did not enjoy the writing process at all. They suggested that the most common reasons for not liking writing or not wanting to write a teaching journal was that it was time consuming, it became tedious after some time, and more importantly, some teachers just did not enjoy writing for any reason but especially as a form of reflection. It is this latter point that I was interested in pursuing with regards to the findings of the case study outlined in this chapter that indicated T3 did not enjoy writing a teaching journal. So, I revisited the transcripts of the group meetings, and any transcribed individual meetings I had with T3 to look for instances where T3 commented on her reflections and writing a teaching journal (Farrell 1998).

   Two striking and related patterns emerged from my revisit to the transcripts: the first was T3's reluctance (and fear) to reflect in general and the second was her fear about using teaching journals as a means of reflection. Regarding her reluctance and unease with reflection, this was present as early as the second group meeting when T3 commented about having to reveal details about her classes to the other participants in the group; T3 stated: "Nobody can get into my class. I know what is going on, so I and we can check ourselves." Also, in a discussion I had with T3 when we were just getting the details of the reflective cycle for the group under way (week 3 of the reflective process), she said that she was very uncomfortable "thinking" about her teaching; she said, "I hate looking at myself while I'm teaching." Later, in a group meeting when the other participants were exchanging information and views about what they were doing in their classes, and sharing their teaching journals (usually orally at the start of each meeting, although sometimes participants exchanged journals), T3 said that she was not comfortable talking about her teaching and in fact, did not bring her teaching journal from that point onwards. She commented:

> I know one way of teaching. I want to talk about teaching in the group but I think that [talking about our teaching] together in a group and talking about specific aspects of teaching are dangerous because the group can be judgmental.

   After this meeting, and at most of the group meetings from then, T3 rarely commented on her teaching techniques or methods, focusing almost exclusively on her teaching context, and problems associated with this context. From my perspective as a critical friend, it seems that T3 had exhibited a pattern of avoidance to reflect on teaching early on in the reflective process, and this was exacerbated by a

requirement (made by the group in the first meeting) that she would have to write a journal about her reflections that would be read by other group participants. Thus, for T3, having to write a journal may have heightened the already increasing levels of unease she was experiencing about her work. For example, she said she stopped writing in her journal after a few weeks because she did not want the other participants to judge her teaching; she reflected:

> I don't want to go inside of that specific matter [writing about her teaching in detail]…I mean everybody got a different point of view, so how can I judge other peoples' opinion. We have a different point of view…about teaching, we disagree with each other, right?

Additionally, at the last group meeting T3 said that for her, writing was painful "because writing gave me stress." She noted that she felt the stress each week while reflecting because the other two teachers always wrote something and she said: "I always felt that I had to write something down even if I didn't have anything to write about." She then noted that she did not like writing as reflection but did not elaborate fully. Of course, having to write in a second language may also have been a contributing factor to increase her stress levels of writing and reflecting, although she did not mention this to me or others in the group.

So while writing a teaching journal may facilitate the reflective process for the majority of language teachers, for some other teachers (granted, a minority) writing a reflective journal may lead to increased levels of anxiety that may be associated with reflecting in general and with the act of writing itself. For example, in the case study reported in this chapter writing a teaching journal required that all three teachers spend a lot of time for this type of self-analysis. One can also speculate that for the two non-English speaking native teachers (T1 and T3) who had to write in a second language, this writing process was even longer. These two teachers not only had to write reflectively about their teaching, they also had to deliberate over what they have written; they had to consider their word choice, grammar and organization. Be that as it may, for many language teachers journal writing enhances their level of awareness about their teaching and about how their students learn (Farrell 2013). The following section gives language teachers ideas about how to get started with their teaching journals and when started, how to continue writing so that they can begin to analyze the assumptions, values, and beliefs that influence their practice over time.

8 Using Teaching Journals Effectively

It is always difficult to start writing a teaching journal because there are so many topics that language teachers can choose to focus on from micro type topics such as: *group work in class*, *giving of instructions*, *the use of questions*, *giving feedback/correction of errors*, to more macro concerns such as: *lesson planning*, *textbook selection*, *curriculum development*, *administration influences*. Both micro and macro lists of issues that concern teachers are endless, and teachers can and

should reflect on both equally (Farrell 2015). With that in mind, I suggest that teachers start reflecting through journal writing by starting on a general topic first rather than jumping into their teaching with too critical a view. I have found over the years that language teachers can be their own worst critics and for the most part only focus on the negative and completely forget what they do well and what goes well in their classrooms. So it may be more beneficial just to begin a teaching journal and make regular entries whenever possible. Teachers can decide if they want to write this (word processing, with a pen on paper), or if they want to record their journal entry with an audio recorder. After some time, teachers can look for any patterns they see emerge in the entries and then focus on that finding for a period of time either by engaging in an action research project that critically explores whatever theme or pattern that has emerged.

Alternatively, some teachers may already have issues that they consider important to them and they explore these issues by writing about them in their journal. However, sometimes these issues may remain at the tacit level of reflection and I have found that attempting to answer the following question useful in raising the tacit reflections to the level of conscious awareness: *reflect on a recent teaching practice or experience in the classroom*, *positive or negative*, *that caused you to stop and think about your teaching*. In attempting to answer such a question, language teachers must reflect (through journal writing) on their assumptions and beliefs about the experience they have recalled, thus becoming more critical reflective practitioners. Additionally, I suggest that teachers continue to write about the focused topic for at least a month while reviewing their entries each week. At the end of the month, it may be a good idea to write a summary of some of the important events that arose and what has been learned as a result of the reflection process.

Additionally, teachers should consider whether they want to share their journals with other teachers or keep it private. Richards and Farrell (2005) suggest that teachers should decide on who their audience will be as this may change the way they write and the amount they are willing to reveal. If teachers have written a journal to share with their peers, they should decide on what text they want their peer(s) to read; teachers can block text by stapling pages together that they do not want to be made public, or they can write a different version (a summary perhaps) for others to read. For example, in the case study outlined in this chapter, T3 could have omitted the entries she did not want the other participants to read, thus continuing her writing, rather than stopping altogether in fear of revealing her reflections.

One further important issue associated with journal writing that teachers should be aware of is that starting a teaching journal may not be enough for critical reflection as there is a real danger that it can fizzle out if there is no real purpose to the writing. In other words, language teachers should engage in systematic reflections when using teaching journals as a means for that reflection. For example, Richards and Farrell (2005) suggest that teachers should first set attainable goals for their writing, the most important one being why they want to write the teaching journal. For example, are they going to focus on a specific problem in their teaching or are they going to write generally and look for patterns in their teaching over time, such as every month. Additionally, teachers should make sure they have enough time

(when to write the journal and the number of entries to write). Richards and Farrell (2005) also suggest that teachers review their journal content regularly in order to learn from it and to see if they have achieved what they had intended when they had started their journal writing.

9   Conclusion

The idea of reflection encompassed in this chapter goes beyond the fleeting thought after class. As mentioned in the introduction to this paper, there are many different modes of reflection that teachers can choose from such as classroom observations, discussions with other teachers (with or without technology), reading and of course writing, which was the main focus of this chapter. Because reflective writing has gained much attention in the recent literature I was interested in exploring if this reflective mode promoted reflection and was useful for language teachers. The results of the case study presented in this chapter seem to support writing as an effective mode of reflection for the majority of language teachers and it was the very process of writing itself that seemed to help the teachers gain more insight into their practice (Farrell 2013). The writing process has a built in reflective mechanism where teachers must (a) stop and think about what they write and then (b) can 'see' what they have written and further reflect on their thoughts and look for patterns that can provide more insight into who they are as teachers and what they reflect on. For many teachers then writing can be seen as a valuable way to reflect and it has an added advantage in that it can be done alone, or it can be shared with other teachers; if teachers share their reflection, they can attain different perspectives about their work.

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Part II
Pedagogical Practices

Extensive Reading and Listening in the L2 Classroom

Willy A. Renandya and George M. Jacobs

Abstract This chapter first looks at extensive reading (ER) and extensive listening (EL) separately, defining the terms and discussing the language learning benefits of the two approaches to language learning. It then discusses ways of implementing the two together in input-poor L2 contexts where the quantity and quality of the target language input tends to be rather limited. In these L2 learning contexts, the main source of input comes from the classroom teachers and the coursebooks, which, while useful, tend to have limited impact on L2 learning. By implementing both approaches, L2 learners could be exposed to far richer and greater quantity of language input, which in turn would have a more pronounced salutary effect on their L2 learning. The chapter ends by addressing problems and concerns (e.g., lack of resources, limited curriculum time and lack of support from school administrators) that L2 teachers often raise regarding the implementation ER and EL in schools.

Keywords Extensive reading • Extensive listening/viewing • Input-based learning • Comprehensible input

1   Introduction

There is now a wide consensus among L2 researchers and practitioners that input is a key factor in language learning. Research to date has provided sufficiently convincing empirical evidence that when L2 learners are frequently exposed to a large amount of language input, their word recognition skills improve, their vocabulary expands, their ability to process oral and written text fluently increases and their overall proficiency also goes up. Harmer (2003), for example, writes, "Students

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need to be exposed to the English language if they want to learn it, and one of the best ways of doing this is through listening (p. 29)."

Many scholars (e.g., Day and Bamford 1998; Maley 2005; Nuttall 1982) have suggested that another excellent way of providing language input is through reading. Summarizing research findings on the benefits of extensive reading (ER), Bamford and Day (2004, p. 1) conclude:

> Good things happen to students who read a great deal in the foreign language. Research studies show they become better and more confident readers, they write better, their listening and speaking abilities improve, and their vocabularies become richer. In addition, they develop positive attitudes toward and increased motivation to study the new language.

While the benefits of ER have now been documented and widely acknowledged (Mori 2015; Waring and McLean 2015), very little is known about the benefits of extensive listening (EL). L2 listening researchers have only recently begun to investigate the effects of EL on language learning. Although the number of empirical studies is relatively small, there are encouraging indications that L2 learners who are engaged in extensive listening can also enjoy numerous language learning benefits, including improved ability to perceive and parse L2 text (Renandya 2012; Wang and Renandya 2012), increased listening fluency (Chang and Millet 2014), and enhanced overall listening comprehension skills (Onoda 2014; Zhang 2005).

This chapter first looks at ER and EL separately, highlighting the language learning benefits of the two approaches to language learning. It then discusses ways of implementing the two together in input-poor L2 contexts where the quantity and quality of the target language input tends to be rather limited. In these situations, the main source of input comes from the classroom teachers and the coursebooks, which, while useful, tend to have limited impact on L2 learning. By implementing both approaches, L2 learners could be exposed to far richer and greater quantity of language input, which in turn would have a more pronounced salutary effect on their L2 learning.

2 Extensive Reading

2.1 What is ER?

ER is defined in many different ways, and it is not always easy to find one definition that captures all of the essential elements of ER. This is particularly true when ER is defined in the context of a particular research study. Researchers often define ER in ways that fit the specific purposes and contexts of their own studies. However, a survey of the literature shows that most ER definitions include at least three elements that most ER scholars consider crucial when discussing the concept, i.e., amount of reading, focus on meaning and general understanding, and faster reading rate.

Carrell and Carson's (1997) definition provides a good starting point where the three elements above are included: "extensive reading … generally involves rapid reading of large quantities of material or longer readings (e.g., whole books) for general understanding, with the focus generally on the meaning of what is being read than on the language" (pp. 49–50). Other researchers have included another key element, which describes the difficulty level of the reading materials, which they all agree will have to be within L2 learners' independent reading level. Thus, according to Grabe and Stoller (2011), ER is defined as an "approach to the teaching and learning of reading in which learners read large amounts of material that are within their linguistic competence" (p. 286).

Since the effect of ER is not immediate, L2 learners are normally expected to invest a rather substantial amount of time on reading. This can take up anywhere from 6 to 12 months and beyond. In fact, in a comprehensive survey of research on extensive reading (Krashen 2004) found that the effect of ER is likely to be stronger and more durable when students do ER for 1 whole year. A recent meta-analysis on ER research by Nakanishi (2015) confirmed Krashen's earlier findings, i.e., that longer term ER studies produce a more substantial effect size. On the issue of length of ER instruction, Grabe (2009) stated that "reading extensively, when done consistently over a long period of time, leads to better reading comprehension as well as improved abilities in several other language areas" (p. 328).

Because the language learning benefits of ER emerge only after students have read for an extended period of time, motivation becomes a key factor here. Less motivated students and those who are initially motivated but are unable to sustain their motivation often drop out of ER programmes and fail to reap the benefits of ER. Some ER scholars (e.g., Mori 2015), therefore, include motivation in their definition, arguing that unless the students read interesting and enjoyable materials that can satisfy their motivational needs, they will soon get bored and stop reading. Mori suggests that since reading in a foreign language is a cognitively and linguistically challenging activity, "motivation is essential to reading extensively" (p. 129).

To summarize, ER involves L2 students reading large amounts of motivating and engaging materials which are linguistically appropriate over a period of time where they read with a reasonable speed for general understanding, with a focus on meaning rather than form.

2.2   What are the Language Learning Benefits of ER?

There are numerous benefits associated with ER (Extensive Reading Foundation 2011; Jacobs and Farrell 2012). When students read extensively over a period of time, their reading fluency improves and their ability to comprehend texts also increases. Discussed below are more specific benefits students can get from ER (Renandya and Jacobs 2002).

First and foremost, ER has been shown to enhance vocabulary development. When students do a lot of reading, they have multiple meaningful encounters over time with words and word patterns. Over that time, their vocabulary size tends to increase and they can also develop a deeper understanding of the words. Words learned in this way can be incorporated into students' speech and writing (Nation 2008, 2015).

Second, research suggests that students who do ER gain a better grasp of the grammar of the target language. In formal classroom settings, students are introduced to grammar rules and conventions, which, while useful, are of limited value. They know the rules but often find that they cannot use them for real communication. In ER, students repeatedly encounter a variety of grammatical patterns in contexts that allow them to develop a better sense of how these grammatical patterns are used to communicate meaningful messages. Not surprisingly, students who read a great deal develop a deeper sense of how grammar works in context, which in turn may enable them to use this grammar for real communication (Ellis 2005).

Third, ER helps L2 learners read at a faster rate (Day and Bamford 1998; Nuttall 1982). Faster reading speed is important for fluent reading. When students read too slowly, they will not have enough cognitive resources to comprehend the overall message of the text. ER can help them develop their word recognition skills, enabling them to move over words in meaningful chunks with sufficient speed, with ease and with greater comprehension.

Fourth, as students read a variety of reading material as part of ER, they become more knowledgeable about many different topics. Research suggests that successful reading requires both language and content knowledge. ER not only helps students develop language skills, but also expands their knowledge base. They know more about different subjects and how these are presented in different text types (e.g., recounts, expositions, and narratives). With increased background knowledge, students are able to read a diverse range of topics more fluently and with greater comprehension.

Fifth, students who do ER can develop higher confidence and motivation. L2 students, especially those with low proficiency, often find learning English a frustrating experience. They often have to deal with reading passages that are several levels beyond their current proficiency level. These students often report that their confidence and motivation level becomes lower and lower as time goes by and they finally lose their interest in learning English. ER can be a confidence and motivation booster for this group of students. When they read materials that are within, or slightly below, their competence, they can read with greater enjoyment and comprehension, thus helping them become more confident and motivated readers.

Sixth, ER helps students develop more positive attitudes towards reading. Students who read in quantity and enjoy what they read often report having more positive attitudes towards reading and becoming more eager to go beyond their comfort zone and explore a wider variety of texts, including more challenging texts. Their positive attitudes often have positive influences on the other skill areas of

language learning, such as listening, speaking, and writing. They become more confident listeners, speakers, and writers.

Finally, there is a good chance that with time students can develop a healthy reading habit. A good reading habit is the ultimate goal of an ER programme. Students who can read with confidence and a great sense of enjoyment are likely to develop a healthy reading habit. Once they have developed this habit, they are more likely to continue to read extensively on their own outside the classroom without the need for the teacher to continually encourage them to do their reading.

3 Extensive Listening

3.1 What is EL?

EL is similar to ER in many ways; in fact, EL has been referred to as "the sister to Extensive Reading" (Extensive Reading Foundation 2011, p. 12). Just like ER where the goal is to build reading fluency, EL also aims to help develop listening fluency. Fluency in listening allows L2 students to process spoken text with greater ease, accuracy and comprehension. In order to build fluency in listening, students will need to do a large quantity of listening so that they can recognize words they hear effortlessly, at the same time understanding the overall meaning of the texts to which they are listening. As with ER, the process of building listening fluency also takes time and effort; in addition, the other language learning benefits also emerge with time. Thus, rephrasing the definition of ER in the previous section and replacing the word 'reading' with 'listening', we arrive at the following definition:

> EL involves students *listening* to large amounts of motivating and engaging materials which are linguistically appropriate over a period of time where they *listen* with a reasonable speed for general understanding, with a focus on meaning rather than form.

A related concept that has recently emerged in the literature is extensive viewing, which refers to students watching television, movies, and videos for L2 learning purposes (See Siyanova-Chanturia and Webb' chapter "Teaching Vocabulary in the EFL Context" this volume; Webb 2014). Extensive viewing of videos, especially short ones, is a great source of L2 input and vocabulary development. Because of the rich visual elements that provide contextual supports, L2 students find it easier to comprehend videos than audio recordings. In this chapter, the term, extensive listening, is used to include the listening of audio recordings as well as the viewing of videos.

3.2 What Are the Language Learning Benefits of EL?

Given that ER and EL are informed by the same principle, i.e., exposure to a large amount of comprehensible input facilitates language learning, one could expect the language learning benefits of these two approaches to be largely similar. In fact, L2 researchers who have investigated the effects of EL typically used ER as a basis for discussing the principles and benefits of EL on L2 learning (e.g., Onoda 2014; Renandya and Farrell 2011). Drawing a parallel between reading and listening, Renandya and Farrell (2011), for example, claim that just like reading, which is "is best learned through reading (Adams 1998, p. 73), … listening is best learned through listening" (p. 56).

Drawing on insights from the literature on ER, Renandya (2011) and Renandya and Farrell (2011) outlined the potential learning benefits of EL, some of which are highlighted below. It should be noted, however, that since research into EL is still in its infancy, the language learning benefits discussed below should be treated as provisional. Firmer conclusions can be obtained when sufficient empirical evidence is available.

First, EL can enhance learners' ability to deal with speech rate. One of the major problems in students' acquisition L2 listening relates to fast speech rate (Renandya and Farrell 2011; Wang and Renandya 2012; Zeng 2007). Students often cannot understand much of what they hear, not because the content is difficult or the language is too hard, but because the speakers speak too fast. One of the reasons is that what is considered 'normal' speech by more proficient listeners is often perceived to be too fast by beginning or lower proficiency students. Repeated listening practice via EL is believed to gradually help L2 listeners become accustomed to listening to speech at native speaker rate (See Chang's chapter "Teaching L2 Listening: In and Outside the Classroom" this volume).

Second, it is thought that EL can improve students' oral word recognition skill. Research has shown that L2 students' listening vocabulary is normally smaller than their reading vocabulary. Students may know words in written text, but they may not be able to recognize these words in speech. Wang and Renandya (2012) reported that this phenomenon is quite common among EFL students in China, even among those at tertiary level. In their study, college students recounted being unable to 'catch' words in speech that they already could recognise in print. The teacher respondents in the Wang and Renandya study suggested that repeated exposure to spoken language via EL could help students develop automaticity in sound-script relationships.

Third, EL can enhance students' bottom-up listening skills. In normal speech, words often take on different forms from when they are said in isolation. A variety of sound blending such as assimilation (e.g., on course – ong course; in class – ing class), contractions (e.g., want to – wanna; going to – gonna), resyllabification (e.g., walked into – walk tin to; went in – wen tin) commonly found in connected speech are known to cause listening problems (Renandya and Farrell 2011). Sensitizing the students to these speech blending phenomena is the first step in helping students

deal with them; the next step would be to engage them in frequent and focused practice until they can mark the boundaries between words more clearly and automatically.

A fourth benefit of EL for L2 learners relates to increased familiarity with common language features of spoken form of the target language. Spoken language is different from written language. Spoken language often contains language features not found in written language such as fillers (e.g., you know, er, well, ok) or fixed phrases (e.g., how is it going? got it? see you later; to tell you the truth and if you don't mind). Spoken language also tends to be less formal or colloquial, and coloured by the presence of slang or non-standard grammar and vocabulary (e.g., what do you got?, I ain't got nobody) more often than is written language. Repeated encounters with these features can help L2 learners comprehend spoken text more efficiently, and once these features have become internalized and incorporated into their developing linguistic system, students can gradually use these features in their own speech .

Another important potential benefit is that EL can provide L2 learners numerous opportunities to experience a higher and deeper level of language comprehension than when they listen to a recording once or twice in a listening lesson. It has been suggested that this type of comprehension is more likely to lead to acquisition (Dupuy 1999; Krashen 1996). Dupuy (1999), for example, reported that for her lower proficiency learners of French as a foreign language, a higher degree of comprehension (95 % and above) is possible only after they listened to the same listening material three or four times.

Finally, extensive exposure to oral language can result in higher overall proficiency in the language. Students who are engaged in extensive listening have reported improvements not only in their listening comprehension, but also in their vocabulary, speaking, reading skills as well as higher confidence in the language (Elley and Mangubhai 1983; Zhang 2005).

Thus, we can see here that, like ER, EL has the potential to build L2 listeners' listening fluency and comprehension. Through EL, L2 listeners can expect to become more fluent in listening, i.e., their ability to recognize spoken words, phrases and sentences increases and, because of this, their ability to comprehend the overall meaning of the text also goes up. Fluent listening can only develop after learners have ample experience with meaning-focused listening practice via EL (Renandya and Farrell 2011).

4   Principles for Implementing ER and EL

Implementing ER/EL programmes requires time, commitment and careful planning (Extensive Reading Foundation 2011). Starting ER/EL programmes is not hard to do, but sustaining them for one whole academic year and beyond can be challenging. Discussed below are seven principles that could be used as a guide for a more successful implementation of ER/EL programmes.

Principle 1: *The objectives of the ER/EL programmes should be made clear to everyone involved*.

The importance of this first principle cannot be overemphasized. Without clear, well-articulated objectives, the programmes are not likely to succeed. A good objective should minimally describe the expected learning outcomes (e.g., a faster reading/listening rate in terms of number of words per minute), the resources needed to achieve the objectives (e.g., funding and personnel needed to oversee the programme, the amount and type of listening and reading materials) that should be made available, the time frame needed to achieve the objectives (e.g., 1 academic year), the way the programme is to be carried out (e.g., as an out of class activity), the instruments to measure the degree of success of the programme. Once the objectives have been formulated, all stakeholders including teachers, library staff, administrators, students and their parents will need to be briefed and more importantly encouraged to support the programme.

Principle 2: *The programmes should ensure that students read and listen in quantity*.

Quantity is perhaps the most crucial factor that contributes to L2 students' language development. Research has shown that students who do the most reading in an ER programme enjoy the most benefits, as reflected in their higher improvements in their reading ability and overall language learning gains (Renandya et al. 1999; Renandya 2007). Given the importance of quantity, 'reading large amounts of text' is considered to be one of the 'core essential attributes of ER' (Waring and McLean 2015, pp. 161–162). By extension, listening to large amounts of spoken text should also be actively promoted and encouraged in the programmes.

But how much reading and listening text is needed to build fluency in processing written and oral text and to acquire the language elements (e.g., grammatical patterns, vocabulary) found in the material? The general consensus seems to be that the more reading and listening students do, the more benefits they will get. A more specific guideline for ER is suggested by Nation and Wang (1999) who recommend that learners need to read at least a book a week. As ER books are typically short graded readers that learners can read fairly fast over a few days, Nation and Wang's suggestion seems sensible. Obviously, there is an urgent need to do research in this area in order to gain more precise and specific information about the absolute minimal amount of reading and listening that students need to do. This is particularly important for EL, because to date no one has looked at the issue of how much (or how little) listening or viewing is required before EL can produce positive, facilitative effects on language learning.

Principle 3: *The programmes should make available reading and listening materials which are within students' linguistic competence*.

Materials for ER and EL should be at the right level. Materials for EL in particular should be pitched at or even below students' current level of competence. As mentioned earlier, L2 students' listening vocabulary is typically lower compared to

their reading vocabulary, so they are likely to appreciate listening to 'easier' texts where the rate is not too fast and the text contains familiar vocabulary and grammatical constructions. The key here is that the students should be able to comprehend the materials on their own, ideally without any external help from the teacher. Ridgway (2000) argues convincingly that our students "need to practice listening comprehension, not listening *in*comprehension" (p. 184) as is often the case in intensive listening, where students often have to listen to text that is too difficult to comprehend. The use of easier materials will facilitate students' enjoyment of large amounts of comprehensible language. Fortunately, ER and EL materials that meet the above requirements are available on the internet, some of which could be accessed for free (e.g., http://www.er-central.com/, http://www.elllo.org/, http://www.manythings.org/voa/v/ja/). If you work in well-resourced schools, you could purchase graded audio books from major ELT publishers such as Cambridge and Oxford graded readers.

Principle 4: *Teachers should provide on-going support to every student*, *especially those who need help most with their reading and listening*.

Teachers play an important role in the success of the ER/EL programmes. Struggling readers and listeners in particular need more attention, as they start from a lower base and may not be able to follow the faster pace of the other students in the programme. The teacher can meet these students regularly, giving them words of encouragement, helping them choose suitable materials, pairing them with their more capable peers for a buddy reading/listening programme and teaching them useful strategies for learning new words they encountered in their reading and listening.

Principle 5: *Students' motivation should be kept high throughout the programmes*.

As reading and listening are challenging activities for L2 students, it is not easy for them to sustain their motivation over the long term. They may initially respond positively to the programme, but as the novelty of the programme wears off and other school-related work begins to keep them occupied, they may soon lose interest and give ER and ER low priority.

There are many things that teachers can do to keep students' motivation high for the duration of the programme. Motivational talks by well-known personalities who benefitted from doing ER and EL could be organized to boost students' motivation (e.g., Lisa Bu's How books can open your mind, which is available in TED's collection: https://www.ted.com/talks/lisa_bu_how_books_can_open_your_mind/transcript?language=en#t-322887).

Book fairs could be organized in which well-known authors share their experience writing their award-winning books. Older students who have gone through the ER and EL programme successfully could also be invited to share their happy and frustrating experiences. More novel ideas for boosting students' motivation could also be tried out, including exempting students from taking a mid-term test if they read and listen to a number of audio books, exempting students who read a specified

number of books or viewed a specified number of English movies from having to do extra homework assignments that the rest of the class have to do.

Principle 6: *Teachers should encourage students to do simultaneous reading and listening*.

This principle has some obvious benefits. Simultaneous reading and listening activities such as reading-while-listening can provide an important support to help lower proficiency L2 learners achieve greater comprehension. As was mentioned earlier, L2 listeners are often unable to recognize words that they already know. Reading while listening can help L2 learners match the spoken with the written words, thus allowing them to process the text more efficiently (Chang 2011). Chang's (2011) study showed that reading while listening to audiobooks had a positive effect on her Taiwanese EFL students' listening fluency and also vocabulary development. In her study, students in the reading-while-listening group outperformed the control group on a listening comprehension test and a vocabulary test.

Reading-while-listening materials are now more widely available and accessible today than they were in the past. Students can now watch online videos that come with transcripts, allowing them to read the text and view the video at the same time. Most TED talks, for example, come with transcripts (https://www.ted.com/). As was mentioned earlier, this type of activity can be very useful for students whose listening skills are still at the lower end of the proficiency scale as it provides the kind of support that these students need. It should be noted, however, that once students have developed a higher proficiency in the language, they should be weaned away from an over-reliance on simultaneous reading and listening and encouraged to do independent reading or listening.

Principle 7: *Teachers should provide interesting and enjoyable post-reading and listening activities*.

Reading interesting books or watching fascinating video movies can be a motivating experience for students. Because of this, some writers have suggested that there is no real need for teachers to further motivate their students, as the joyful experience of reading good books and viewing a great movie is already a pleasantly rewarding experience. But repeated observations have shown that interesting and enjoyable post-reading and listening activities can provide a much needed boost to further enhance students' motivation. Of particular value are activities that provide students with opportunities to share their views, opinions, feelings about what stories they have just read, listened to or viewed on the Internet. Some of the popular activities with L2 students include asking students to come up with alternative endings to the story, to retell the most hilarious parts of the story, to design a poster that captures the gist of the story (Bamford and Day 2004).

5 Problems and Concerns

Although input-based learning stands on sound theoretical underpinnings, and the benefits of extensive exposure to meaningful language have received strong empirical support, ER and EL have not always received the kind of support that they deserve. While many ELT practitioners seem to readily acknowledge the usefulness of ER and ER in L2 learning, many are constrained by practical concerns that prevent them from fully adopting ER and EL in their teaching (Brown 2009; Renandya et al. 2015; Renandya and Jacobs 2002). Some of the key concerns are discussed below.

- Schools often have limited resources to implement ER and EL. Lack of funding is often cited as a key reason for the lack of suitable reading and listening materials. For the more well-resourced schools, the administrators may not be fully informed about the salutary benefits of ER and EL and consequently do not allocate sufficient resources for the programme. Of course, teachers can turn to internet-based reading and listening materials, which are widely and freely available, but for some teachers lack of Internet access and their busy schedules prevent them from allocating time to put together appropriate and useful materials for ER and EL.
- ER and EL are often implemented as an out-of-class or extracurricular activity where students are expected to do their reading and listening in their free time. In the case of ER, for example, the literature has documented reports of successful large scale ER projects (e.g., Davis 1995; Elley and Mangubhai 1983; Robb and Kano 2013); however, smaller-scale, teacher initiated ER programmes are not as successful. In fact, after the initial enthusiasm, teachers may begin to feel overwhelmed by the amount of work related to the running of the programme. As Brown (2009) notes, "The main practical concerns regarding ER are to do with cost, lack of time, monitoring students' reading, managing the library of books, guiding students to choose appropriate books, and getting students engaged in reading" (p. 240).
- The benefits of ER and EL can only be felt after a rather lengthy period of time. It is not uncommon that the tangible benefits begin to appear after 6 months or sometimes longer. Since teachers are pragmatic people, they naturally expect to see the benefits of ER and EL reflected in increased exam scores. When this does not happen after a few weeks or months, their commitment to implementing ER and EL may begin to wane, and they may instead invest their time and effort on the more traditional approaches to teaching such as intensive reading and listening. These approaches are felt by some teachers to yield more immediate and tangible results.
- To get students started on ER and EL, teachers often use curriculum time to provide students with opportunities to do silent reading and/or listening for a period of time. In the case of ER, during a USSR (Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading) session in the classroom, some teachers may feel awkward because they often view teaching as involving talking to and interacting with students,

asking questions, explaining language points, arranging students to get students to do individual or group tasks. Day and Bamford (1998) make an excellent point when they say that when teachers walk into the classroom, they like to verbally engage the students in various teacher-guided activities. Thus, being silent during a reading and listening lesson is something teachers (and students) do not normally associate with good teaching practice.

• A key concern that teachers and administrators share about ER and EL relates to the issue of legitimacy. Students doing independent silent reading and listening in class with the teachers silently observing them (or reading/listening along with them) are often "not perceived as a class learning, let alone being taught, both by the students themselves and the school administration" (Prowse 2002, p. 144). Not surprisingly, ER and EL are often seen as an optional extra that plays a peripheral role.

The issue of legitimacy raised in the last point above is crucially important. For a wider adoption in schools, ER and EL have to be perceived by stakeholders as a legitimate activity. Unless teachers, students and other key school personnel are convinced that ER and EL are credible learning activities that can lead to significant language learning gains, schools may be reluctant to implement ER and EL. One way to deal with the issue of legitimacy would be to integrate ER and EL into coursebooks. Brown (2009) argues that coursebooks can provide legitimacy because they are often seen as "powerful legitimizing tools, for teachers, for learners, and for institutions" (p. 240). Fortunately, some coursebooks have incorporated ER ideas by including longer, more interesting and linguistically suitable reading and listening materials and other activities that encourage out of class reading, listening and viewing (Renandya et al. 2015).

6   Conclusion

This chapter has looked at ER and EL, discussed their key characteristics and language learning benefits, outlined some of the key principles for implementing these two approaches in L2 learning and also discussed some legitimate concerns that teachers might have about ER and EL. While it is important to acknowledge these concerns and to find ways to overcome these problems, the evidence in favour of ER and EL is so compelling that it would be remiss of us not to give ER and EL a respectable place in our teaching. We believe that when ER and EL are implemented together, their synergistic effect is likely to be far greater than the effect on ER or EL alone.

More 30 years ago, Christine Nuttall (1982), a noted L2 reading specialist, made a bold claim when she said "the best way to improve one's knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it" (p. 168). Some 20 years later, Alan Maley (2005), a renowned ELT expert, reiterated Nuttall's claim and went one step further, saying that ER is perhaps "the single most important way to improve language proficiency" (p. 354). In

light of our discussion about the possible synergistic effects of ER and EL, it is perhaps not unreasonable to rephrase the two quotes above into this: The best way to improve language proficiency is to engage L2 students in extensive reading and listening.

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Teaching L2 Listening: In and Outside the Classroom

Anna C.-S. Chang

Abstract This chapter discusses how to teach second or foreign language listening efficiently based on an analysis of the theoretical background and empirical evidence. Firstly some spoken language features are introduced followed by an examination of the previous research on second language listening difficulties. Based on the research findings, a listening lesson designed in a three-phase teaching format is presented, namely pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening. A few activities are suggested for each phase of listening, and finally three outside class listening practice activities are recommended to help ensure the most effective development of second language listening.

Keywords L2 listening • L2 listening instruction • Narrow listening • Repeated listening • Simultaneous reading and listening • L2 listening development

1   Introduction: The Importance of Developing L2 Listening Skills

The position of listening in second or foreign language programs has undergone a substantial change in recent years (Richards 2005). The most fundamental change is in understanding of the role of listening in L2 acquisition. Listening had been considered a passive skill and that its main purpose was only to extract meaning from texts; however, adding to this role, listening is now also considered a skill that can support the growth of other aspects of language knowledge, such as speaking or reading speed (Chang and Millett 2015). Some empirical studies have also shown that linguistic elements can be acquired through listening (Vidal 2011; van Zeeland and Schmitt 2013). This change is important because to acquire a language, a learner normally learns both its written and spoken forms unless the language has only one form, as with some dialects. If a learner knows only one of the language forms, she or he may not learn the language as efficiently as one who knows both

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forms because reading the written form and listening to the spoken form are equally important input channels and they can work complimentarily. More important still, students spend more time on listening than reading, speaking or writing.

When learning one's mother language, listening skill normally precedes reading skill; therefore, for L1 learners, the listening skill is usually used to support the reading skill. However, for L2 learners, due to lack of linguistic input environment, the two skills are often taught at the same time, though some learners may develop one skill faster than the other. Normally, the reading skill is considered easier to develop than the listening skill because a reader can control more variables during the reading process; for example, reading a text at their own pace, consulting unknown words in the dictionary, and rereading the text if not comprehending. These controllable conditions while reading are not available for real-life listening, such as listening to radio broadcasting. Therefore, listeners often face more challenges than readers. In this chapter, some features of the spoken language will first be briefly introduced, followed by a discussion of what the literature has shown about L2 listening difficulties. Based on the theoretical and empirical evidence of L2 listening difficulties, a typical or a well-designed listening lesson will be presented. Finally, some activities that learners can do outside the class to improve their listening skills are suggested.

2   The Features of Spoken Language

It is useful to know some major features of a spoken language if we are learning or teaching it. The following are some common features of spoken language (cf. Chafe 1985):

1. Spoken language is made up of many different sounds. The sound is fleeting and transitory.
2. Spoken language varies from person to person. When human beings speak, their accent, intonation, pitch, stress, volume and pace are varied, and they may choose different words to express the same ideas.
3. When we listen, we do not hear every sound that is shown in reading because some letters may be silent in some words. For example, we do not hear the sound /h/ in hour, or /gh/ in though.
4. Often a foreign language learner may just hear a string of sounds linked together; for example, the phrase *first of all* may become *firsdavall*. Word boundaries become indistinct due to phonological change; some sounds may be dropped or changed, and others may be added.
5. Spoken language is syntactically simpler than written language and may contain incomplete sentences; idea units are shorter, and generally joined by coordinators, such as and, but, or so.
6. Spoken language, particularly spontaneous speech, contains various disfluencies, such as fillers (*you know*, *well*, *OK*…), hesitations, false starts, and

self-corrections, which give the listeners more time to think about what has just been said if listeners understand those are fillers. If listeners cannot identify them, it may cause more difficulties.

7. Compared to written language, spoken language contains more colloquial expressions, slang, and nonstandard grammar, which are considered unacceptable in writing.

The features listed above are just the tendencies of spoken language that listeners should be aware of. However, from a linguistic perspective, spoken and written language does not have clear cut divisions (Biber 1988). Also, language use depends very much on the situation in which it takes place, whether the speaker is educated or not, or whether the speech is prepared in advance. All of these variables pose significant challenges to L2 listeners.

3 Factors Affecting L2 Comprehension

Factors affecting listening difficulties have been widely discussed both in first language (e.g., Wolvin and Coakely 1996) and second language (L2) listening (Anderson and Lynch 1988; Boyle 1984; Goh 1999, 2000; Hasan 2000; Huang 2004; Miller 2009; Rost 2005). Theoretically, comprehension takes place when listeners can infer what is said based on their linguistic background and contextual knowledge (Buck 1995, 2001). However, unlike written language, which tends to be more stable, variations in spoken linguistic features may occur from person to person or region to region (Biber 1988; Chafe 1985). Accordingly, listeners face a number of challenges, e.g., fast speech rates, unfamiliar accents, transient information, or colloquial usages and slang, which seldom appear in formal L2 textbooks.

Samuels (1984) classified L1 listening comprehension difficulties into external, medium, and internal factors. After a thorough examination of the literature on L2 listening difficulties, I found that this taxonomy is also applicable to L2. In this section, therefore, L2 listening difficulties arising from these three factors will be briefly reviewed. External factors refer to the learning environment (Rost 1994, 2005), practice opportunities (Boyle 1984), and speaker factors, such as speech rate, accent and pronunciation, and effectiveness of a speaker's talk (Samuels 1984). Medium factors relate to text type, task type and the context in which listening takes place (Anderson and Lynch 1988). Internal factors are about listeners themselves, for example, their listening proficiency, motivation, background knowledge, physical condition.

3.1 External Factors: The Opportunities of Input and Speaker Factors

The Opportunities of Input Two most important external factors are opportunities of input and speaker factors. Let us look at the opportunities for input first. Understanding our first language requires considerable cognitive development and constant exposure to different contexts over a period of several years; however, learning to listen in a foreign language is even more difficult because there are more challenges to confront. In a foreign language setting, communication is usually dominated by a learners' first language, thus exposure to the target language may be very limited, often confined to the classroom. In a comparison of L1 and L2 listening, Rost (1994) considered *motive*, *transfer from the native language*, *the opportunities for input*, and *the age of learning a second language*, to be the major factors making L2 listening more difficult than L1 listening. Among these four factors, the opportunities for input seem to affect listening most because foreign language learners are deprived of ongoing opportunities to develop their listening ability. Due to the lack of exposure to spoken language, some learners try to develop social strategies like making friends with native speakers of the target language to provide them with the right kind of input. Significant development in an L2 does require a great quantity of listening, certainly in the order of hundreds of hours per year (Rost 2005). Rost's claims are supported in a survey by Boyle (1984) of 30 Chinese teachers and 60 students in Hong Kong, who found that both teachers and students considered practice opportunities to be the most important factors in their own listening comprehension.

The Speaker Factors The two most salient and most heard speaker factor complaints involve speech rates and pronunciation or accent. The normal English speech rate is between 150 and 180 words per minute (Buck 2001). Fast speech rates usually result in a significant reduction in comprehension (Griffiths 1990; Renandya and Farrell 2011); however, conflicting evidence was also reported by Derwing and Munro (2001), and Jensen and Vinther (2003), whose studies did not support the proposal that slower speech enhanced listening comprehension. A possible reason for the inconsistent results could be that different text types have different 'normal' rates (Tauroza and Allison 1990), while another reason could relate to participants' language proficiency. The participants in the study by Derwing and Munro (2001) were more advanced ESL learners, for whom speech rate might not be a key factor. A further reason could be due to participants' different language systems. Participants from Indo-European languages may be more used to English speech rates than non-European language participants. However, Griffiths (1990) found that low intermediate level students performed best when the speech rate was delivered at approximately 127 words per minute. Therefore, in teaching L2 listening, the teacher may have to consider their students' language background and start with a speed that most students are comfortable with.

In terms of intelligibility of pronunciation or accent, a number of studies have shown that familiarity with a speaker's accent is the most important factor in comprehension (Major et al. 2005; Matsuura 2007; Scales et al. 2006). Some studies show that ESL learners comprehended better when the language was spoken with a local accent (Ekong 1982). Other researchers, however, considered that a standard accent in English is more easily understood than English spoken with a heavy local accent when speech rates are the same (Ortmeyer and Boyle 1985). According to Tauroza and Luk (1997), accent or pronunciation can be a "temporary" variable in listening comprehension; meaning that once listeners are used to listening to a different accent or blended sounds, pronunciation is no longer a problem. Therefore, if a learner is exposed often to a variety of spoken English, it may not take long for him/her to become familiar with it. The advancement of modern technology and the popularity of internet can be used to overcome this difficulty, as learners can access the internet to listen to a variety of talks featuring very different accents from all over the world, i.e., TED talks and BBC's learning English.

3.2 Medium Factors: Text, Task, and Context

Anderson and Lynch (1988) note that although there are many medium factors influencing the degree of listening difficulty, they all fall into three categories: text type, task type, and the context in which listening takes place.

Text type – If the text contains only necessary information, it will be easier than one containing redundant facts. Texts involving fewer individuals and objects, and those which are clearly distinct from one another are also easier to understand. Furthermore, texts containing simple spatial relations and with the order of telling matching the order of events are easier to understand as well. Text types can also refer to a conversation type or monologue type, or whether these texts are scripted, semi-scripted, or spontaneous. The study by Shohamy and Inbar (1991) found a lecture and dialogue were significantly easier to understand than a monologue. Contradictory results were found in studies by Read (2002), which showed that participants performed significantly better on the lecture type or monologue type. One possible reason could be that the texts used in these studies were not comparable, or that a single factor is not sufficient to determine the level of difficulty of a text (see below for internal factors).

Task type – Different tasks may present the listener with varying degrees of complexity. For example, Anderson and Lynch (1988) said that summarizing a message may be difficult because it is like an evaluative task; listeners have to weigh what is important, and what should be excluded from the summary. On the other hand, tasks requiring an immediate response, such as matching pictures or multiple-choice, tend to be easier than delayed recall tasks such as summarization. Research focusing on the effect of task characteristics on listening comprehension (Freedle and Kostin 1999; Jensen and Hansen 1995; Shohamy and Inbar

1991) has found that test-takers performed better on local items than on global ones. Multiple-choice (MC) tasks are easier than other question types that require learners to construct correct answers; however, MC tasks can be rather difficult for less advanced students if they lack the reading skills to understand the test questions (Chang and Read 2013).

Listening context – Listening context is embedded in the task type and involves three factors: ways of minimizing the information processing load, the provision of visual support, and group work. The processing load is the amount of information that has to be processed and the amount of time available to finish the task. In this regard, Anderson and Lynch (1988) note that adequate pre-listening activities can facilitate the task by making clear the listening purpose and the specific details. Group work in the classroom can increase interaction and cooperation among students, which is believed to be effective in enhancing listening comprehension. Finally, the provision of visual support can assist the listener to interpret the information, or when the environment contains objects to which the listener can refer, comprehension is facilitated. A number of empirical studies have shown that visual support presented either as still pictures or full-motion videos can make a difference to listening comprehension (Chang and Read 2006, 2007; Herron et al. 1995).

3.3 Internal Factors: Language Proficiency and Background Knowledge

In the previous section, we found that some research results concerning certain factors, e.g., text type on comprehension, were inconsistent, which may imply that one variable does not affect the difficulty of listening comprehension in isolation. Other variables, such as listeners' language proficiency, may come into play. Now, let us turn to some internal factors, which are variables relevant to listeners themselves (for examples see Samuels 1984), such as language competence (being able to automatically decode linguistic elements or having the ability to comprehend concepts) or emotional and physical issues (e.g., anxiety, nervousness, being tired or hungry), and above all, listeners' topical/background knowledge and strategy use. The former relates to a particular area, such as topical knowledge of a discipline or background knowledge of a particular culture. The general findings indicate that topic familiarity has a significant effect on listening comprehension (Chang and Read 2006; Chiang and Dunkel 1992; Jensen and Hansen 1995; Long 1990; Markham and Latham 1987; Schmidt-Rinehart 1994). The latter, strategy use, concerns whether listeners are able to apply listening strategies that suit their language proficiency and listening purposes. For example, the most frequently mentioned metacognitive pedagogical model proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) aims to help L2 listener to become self-regulated listeners.

4 Format of a Well-Designed Listening Lesson

In the above two sections, we have seen some unique features of spoken language, and found varying listening difficulties in the empirical studies. As previously mentioned, good listening skills can accelerate language acquisition. Therefore, how to teach L2 listening efficiently has become an important task for language teachers. Here, a theory-based listening lesson is presented involving three stages: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening. Each phase is described below.

4.1 The Pre-listening Phase

The pre-listening phase is a particularly important stage for beginner listeners. If a teacher can prepare students well before a listening task begins, then the students are more likely to experience feelings of success. The L2 teacher can do one or more of the following pre-listening activities.

1. Establish the purposes for listening activities: Conventionally, the teaching of L2 listening is to extract meaning from texts. Once meaning has been identified, then the task is over. This is also what L2 listeners usually consider listening to be. However, the teacher should tell students that listening is another way of facilitating language learning. Before a task begins, the teacher can tell the students the purpose of a listening activity: to comprehend a text only, to understand a joke, to complete a task, to learn a concept, or to learn a term that is explained by the input text. By telling students the purpose of a listening task, students then can listen selectively rather than completely.

2. Activate necessary background knowledge for comprehending the text that the students are going to listen to: Beginner learners usually have limited working memory because they have to decode the language heard and at the same time comprehend the message. Having familiar topical background knowledge can guide listeners to directly focus on the relevant information rather than listening for everything to guess the topic. Activating background knowledge can be done in several ways.

   (a) Class discussion: In a well-planned listening lesson, the teacher can ask students to search for relevant knowledge before they come to the listening class, then students can share what they know about the topic. If students can access the Internet during the lesson, the teacher can allow students a few minutes to search for background knowledge of the topic they are going to hear.

   (b) Pre-reading a short text written in L2 or L1 (Chang and Read 2007). A short written text presented through PowerPoint is an efficient way to activate students' topical background knowledge.

(c) Present pictures or photos to students and allow a few minutes for discussion (Chang and Read 2007). Sometimes a pleasant, funny picture relating to the text can quickly arouse students' interest and draw their attention to the listening task

(d) Previewing task questions was found to be another way of providing background knowledge (Chang and Read 2006). The teacher can ask students relevant questions or show students task questions or activities. This is the most straightforward and time-saving pre-listening activity

3. Provide linguistic support: Linguistic support involves pre-teaching key words, unknown words, phrases or grammatical structures. Vocabulary knowledge is one of the major concerns for L2 learners across all levels of proficiency because unfamiliar words may lead to listening comprehension breakdown or misunderstanding; therefore, it is always very useful to pre-teach *some* words that students may not know before listening. Linguistic support can be done in many ways.

(a) Ask students to preview a list of words, in particular key words that students will hear in the task. The target words can be presented on the board or through PowerPoint. While previewing the word list, the students have to know not only the meaning but also its spoken form. It is useful to ask students to read the list of words chorally. While doing so, the teacher can easily detect whether students have any difficulties in recognizing the aural form of the target words.

(b) Pointing out the pronunciation of some words that may not be familiar to students, in particular proper nouns, such as *Worcester*, or *Gloucester*, or words containing mute letters, like *wrist*, or *honor.*

(c) Pre-teaching phrases or collocations that do not have transparent meaning, for example, the 'apple of my eye.' Students may know *apple* and *eye*, but when the two words are put together, the meaning changes.

(d) Some grammatical structures may be confusing and need to be pointed out.

4. Set up a listening goal for the comprehension level. For example, tell your students how many times they will listen to texts, so that students can prepare how they are going to listen and what strategies they can use. Thus, if they are allowed to listen three times, then tell them to listen for the gist of the text at first listening, then for more details at the second listening, and by the third listening the students should be able to explain their listening difficulties, if any (also see the section below).

4.2 The While-Listening Phase

1. Do simple easy tasks that require little writing or reading.

While students are listening, they should do tasks related to the information they hear from the text. These tasks can involve sequencing pictures according to

the input text, filling out a form, or labeling, all of which require little reading or writing. Doing such tasks can also reduce the loading of students' working memory and enhance concentration.

2. Do graded tasks. Most listening texts used in the L2 classroom are pre-recorded audio recordings and can be played repeatedly. Each time teachers can ask students to focus on different aspects of the information. For example:

   (a) 1st listening: Ask students to listen for the gist of the input, the tone of the speakers (happy, sad or angry), the place where the conversation or talk takes place, or the relationship between or among the speakers if there are two or more speakers.
   (b) 2nd listening: Ask students to listen for more details, such as the time and the date, and to complete the while listening task (e.g., sequencing pictures).
   (c) 3rd listening: Students normally are not interested in listening more than twice. If students are willing to listen a third time, then ask them to focus on areas that are unclear to them (also see the post-listening phase).
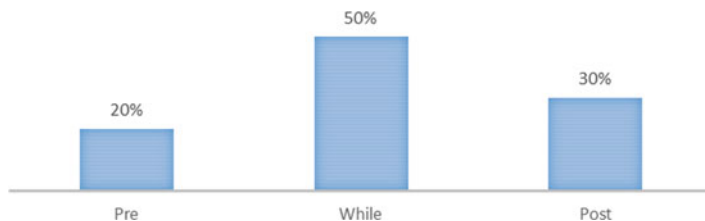
4.3   The Post-Listening Phase

The post-listening phase can serve some useful purposes: to confirm comprehension, clarify uncertain points, and reflect on listening problems. If the purpose of the listening is to acquire some linguistic elements, then post-listening activities can direct students' attention to the language of texts with so-called acquisition-focused activities (Richards and Burns 2012). Post-listening activities can also serve as remedial work on learners' problems (Field 2008). These can include:

1. Reviewing the transcript of the recording by reading while listening or reading alone. Reading the transcript of the recording allows students to confirm their comprehension or to clarify unknown points from the previous stage.
2. Evaluating the process of the while-listening phase. Students can reflect on the difficulties they encountered (if any) during the listening stage by evaluating whether the difficulties come from personal factors, e.g., cannot concentrate, forget what was heard; or from external factors, such as fast speech rate, an unfamiliar accent; or medium factors, for example, the text being too difficult, or the task questions too tedious. Through the reflection, students may discuss ways to deal with these difficulties in the future.

4.4   A Word of Caution

Although a number of suggestions have been made about formats of listening lessons, this does not mean that all the suggestions in each phase have to be included in every lesson. Language teachers must be cautious not to spend too much time on

Fig. 1 Time allotted for each listening phase

the pre-listening stage and so sacrifice opportunities for listening or for remedial work in the post-listening stage. Therefore, language teachers should balance their time in each phase. I would suggest the following proportions of time in each phase for low level students (Fig. 1).

5 Suggested Approaches to Listening Practice After Teaching

A number of listening difficulties have been revealed by researchers and many suggestions have been made to improve listening instruction efficiency; however, simply relying on teachers' instruction in the classroom is not sufficient to improve one's listening competence. Therefore, teachers should give their students guidance on doing listening practice outside class. Three approaches: narrow listening, repeated listening, and reading while listening, are suggested.

5.1 Narrow Listening

Narrow listening originates from narrow reading, and has been found to be helpful for language acquisition (Krashen 1981). Narrow listening means that learners focus on one topic, e.g., weather or sports, or one author, like Conan Doyle or Agatha Christie, and do a great deal of listening in the area they choose. This approach is suitable for learners across all proficiencies and is definitely interesting for the L2 learner because the learners themselves choose the topics. In 1996, Krashen provided some guidelines for doing narrow listening; however, over the years, advancing technology has made this learning approach much easier than previously.

Nowadays, many original classics have been adapted and graded to help L2 learners expose themselves to reading literature in the target language as early as possible. Some websites, for example, https://www.ted.com, provide all sorts of modern topics for learners, like technology, education, entertainment, and so forth. Not only can learners select the kinds of material they they want to view and to

which they want to listen, but they can also determine the duration of these videos that they want to watch.

5.2   Repeated Listening

Repeated listening also derives from an L1 source, repeated reading. Repeated reading is one of the most common methods for developing reading fluency. It was developed by Samuels (1979) as a pedagogical application to use with L1 readers who have reading difficulties. The theory underlying repeated reading is to make word decoding more efficient through repeatedly practicing the same text. It is assumed that if much attention is paid to decoding word meanings, then little time is left for comprehending text meaning. Repeated reading is used as a means to assist unskilled readers to practice a very basic skill (word recognition) and help them move from the non-accurate to the accurate stage and eventually to the automatic stage (Samuels 1979). By the same token, if a listener listens to a text many times, then she or he may require very little time for word recognition, so more time can be allotted to comprehending the message.

However, in a difference with L1 repeated reading, repeated listening in L2 learning has been commonly used as a strategy to clarify what is heard (Chang and Read 2006, 2007). It has not been used to develop listening fluency, and although up to the present there has not been any empirical study on repeated listening, it has been suggested by Nation and Newton (2009) as one activity for developing fluency.

The following are some tips on how to adopt repeated listening in L2 learning. Shorter texts are more suitable than longer ones for practicing repeated listening. In the language classroom, learners can choose passages from their course books and listen to them repeatedly. The original speech rates of the passages are normally slower. I would suggest the learners download the software "AUDACITY." The software is free and can help listeners adjust the speech rate. For example, at the 1st listening, the speech rate can be set at 100 words per minute (wpm). At the second time, the rate can be increased to 110 wpm. At the third listening, the learner can increase the speed to 120 wpm.[1] When a learner becomes used to faster speech rates, she or he can select higher level texts, which are also spoken at faster rates.

Despite repeated listening being efficient in improving reading fluency, it has to be used cautiously as this activity can be rather boring for some students unless they have a strong belief that this approach is good for them and so are willing to persist in doing it.

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[1]While changing the rate, it is the tempo, not the speed, that should be changed, otherwise the sound becomes strange.

5.3   Simultaneous Reading and Listening

Simultaneous reading and listening is also termed "reading while listening" if the focus is on listening. Reading and listening at the same time can help beginner learners to develop awareness of form-meaning relationships and word recognition skills. However, it has to be noted that the post-listening phase in a listening lesson also involves reading while listening, but their purposes are different. Reading while listening at the post-listening stage is to confirm or clarify what one hears during the listening stage. Reading while listening after class is to enjoy reading and listening to all sorts of materials. Some empirical studies have also found that reading while listening improves students' comprehension (Chang 2009; Chang and Millett 2014). Students also reported that the sound effects made them concentrate better and that it often brought a smile to their face.

   Most graded readers are now accompanied with audio recordings. The recording quality is very sophisticated, and some narrators use dramatic voices to read the stories, while some recordings also include sound effects and background music, which truly make the audio recordings very interesting and motivates students to listen. Apart from graded readers, many online materials also involve both written and spoken texts, for example BBC's learning English website and TED talks. The learner can listen first and then read afterwards, or read and listen at the same time.

   However, some caution is necessary while doing reading and listening activities. Some learners may over rely on the printed texts and ignore the aural input. If so, the effect of reading and listening may not produce the best results for improving listening competence. Although the best way, if the purpose is to enhance listening competence, is to end the listening practice cycle with listening only, as it is an after class learning activity, I would just suggest students sit and relax while reading and listening to anything they like, not worrying whether it is listening or reading skills they wish to improve.

6   Conclusion

This chapter has presented a format of a listening lesson based on previous research findings and suggestions. A few teaching ideas for each stage are also provided. Language teachers may choose one or two activities that suit their students' learning style or their language proficiency. All activities are meant to improve students' listening comprehension, make them feel a success after listening, and prepare students to reach a higher level of comprehension. It is also important to let your students know that listening class is simply providing students with guidance as to how to listen. The instruction time in the class is not sufficient to improve their listening competence; therefore, they must do listening practice outside the class as well. Three outside class listening activities are suggested. Although the three suggested activities were derived from L1 reading, the effects have been examined in several

empirical L2 listening studies and have been found rather effective for L2 learners. Overall, listening has to be learned from listening. Once listening skills are acquired, a learner should find that his or her language learning becomes more efficient than previously.

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Teaching Reading and Viewing to L2 Learners

Lawrence Jun Zhang

Abstract Reading is a commonly offered course in many second and foreign language curricula for different age groups, yet it is not a skill easily acquired by students. Given the centrality of reading and viewing in real life and their importance in the curriculum for assisting the development of other language skills in students (e.g., speaking, listening, vocabulary, and writing), teachers' instruction is crucial to student success. More importantly, in traditional reading lessons, teachers seldom consider blending reading into viewing and viewing into reading to make the lesson dynamic and interactive. Drawing on recent research, this chapter presents a framework for teachers to develop not only students' language skills but also strategies for further skill development through reading and viewing. Such a framework takes an inclusive approach to instructional design, which brings to the fore theoretical perspectives on such instruction as well as practical strategies for teaching reading and viewing. Strategies such as activating schemata, previewing, predicting, skimming, scanning, reading and linking, viewing (e.g., viewing digital materials on the computer screen), and connecting, using packaged instructional procedures such as D-R-T-A, K-W-L, among others, which are the bases of classroom instruction, are elaborated with reference to reading and viewing activities as an organic combination of extensive and intensive reading and viewing.

Keywords Theory of reading • Teaching reading and viewing • Classroom-based pedagogy • Language-teacher education • Teaching strategies

1   Introduction

Reading is a commonly offered course in many second and foreign language curricula for different age groups, yet it is not a skill easily acquired by students (Nuttall 1996). Given the centrality of reading and viewing in real life and their importance in the curriculum for assisting the development of other language skills in students

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(e.g., speaking, listening, vocabulary, and writing), teachers' instruction is crucial to student success. More importantly, in traditional reading lessons, teachers seldom consider blending reading into viewing and viewing into reading to make the lesson dynamic and interactive. Drawing on recent research, this chapter presents a framework for teachers to develop not only students' language skills but also strategies for further skill development through reading and viewing. Such a framework takes an inclusive approach to instructional design, which brings to the fore theoretical perspectives on such instruction as well as practical strategies for teaching reading and viewing. Strategies such as activating schemata, previewing, predicting, skimming, scanning, reading and linking, viewing (e.g., viewing digital materials on the computer screen), and connecting, using packaged instructional procedures such as D-R-T-A, K-W-L, among others, which are the bases of classroom instruction, are elaborated with reference to reading and viewing activities as an organic combination of extensive and intensive reading and viewing.

Reading and viewing as language skills per se are multifaceted processes and involve multiple aspects relating to the ultimate goal of comprehension. Reading is usually understood as a process of deriving meaning from the printed words, sentences, paragraphs, or a whole text. Similar to reading in terms of the goals students have, viewing, as a processing skill, can be defined as the viewer's effort for meaning-making, but the media through which the act of meaning is actualized are not print-based. As a comprehension process and an act of understanding what is being seen, viewing usually involves the use of the computer or its equivalent such as a smart phone or other digital tools for acquiring and processing information presented to the viewer in multi-modalities (e.g., concurrent appearance of video, audio, and images mingled with words, sentences or paragraphs) requiring multi-literacy skills. In many ways, at least, readers and viewers have to be equipped with the essential vocabulary. In the case of viewing, viewers need to have developed a listening ability to have a successful viewing experience despite the images and sound effects offering further stimuli that might facilitate or disrupt comprehension. Additionally, both readers and viewers need to be strategic in order to receive and understand the information as the reading and viewing processes proceed (Stoller and Komiyama 2013). What is equally significant is that readers' and viewers' processing strategies are guided by their rich metacognitive knowledge (Zhang 2010), utilized for processing information in print and/or on the screen of a computer, a smart phone, other digital devices, or through various available electronic resources such as the Internet.

If the purposes of reading and viewing are primarily for readers and viewers to derive meanings out of the process, then they are better defined in terms of how much comprehension is achieved. Accordingly, meaning-making becomes an immediately pertinent pursuit. Understandably, the reading or viewing act itself for meaning-making is determined and affected by at least three important variables: (1) text (including multimodal texts, images, visuals and sounds) characteristics; (2) reader/viewer characteristics; and (3) social context, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

The complexity increases when contemporary approaches to reading and viewing examine the phenomena from sociological and cultural perspectives, where

critical reading and viewing become an essential part. In addition, advances in modern technologies in this era of exponential growth of information make reading and viewing even more complex. Given the popularity of multimodal texts, our knowledge of and experience with other texts expressed in different modes are brought to bear and color what we take from any new text, although we may not be consciously aware of what we automatically do in approaching and comprehending these texts. Readers and viewers in today's world need to know how to access and understand the multiplicity of reading and viewing that take place either in print or in multimedia environments. Arising from these perspectives are important issues about how reading and viewing can and should be taught (Grabe 2009). In order to explicate these points, I present four important views on reading (and by inferencing, viewing), which are popularly known as 'models of reading,' before relating them to the teaching of reading and viewing through organized activities in the classroom.

2   Views on Reading and Viewing

Reading as a field of academic and educational inquiry in cognitive psychology and educational psychology has different research foci. It has to be noted that during the era of heavy dominance of behaviorism, especially in the USA and Canada, reading was once banned as a research agenda for psychologists. One of the main reasons is that the reading process was too mentalistic to be accurately measured by any psychometric system. Emanating from this behaviorist doctrine anything mentalistic in nature had to be clearly outlawed by the academia. Therefore, theoretical models thrived after the ban disappeared with the gradual unpopularity of behaviorism in mainstream psychology. I outline three main groups of models, *Top-Down*, *Bottom-Up*, and *Interactive*. But because of the close association of the latter with *Bottom-Up* models, I present the *Interactive* models last. I stress that much of our understanding of viewing is greatly influenced by our understanding of reading.

2.1   *Top-Down and Bottom-Up Models*

Contemporary cognitive psychologists examine how reading takes place in the human brain, the problem-solving nature of reading, and the process of memory and recall of text. Research along this line can be on minute processes such as lexical access, storage and retrieval, namely, how individual words are learned, remembered and later accessed for usage in either receptive (listening, viewing, and reading) or productive (speaking and writing) language-use activities.

Depending on the positions that scholars take, reading can be regarded as a process where the centrality of meaning is almost axiomatic (Goodman 1996), or as a process where the primacy of decoding is emphasized (Samuels 2004; Stanovich 2000). Viewing can also be theorized in a similar fashion. The former is known as

taking a 'top-down' approach, where the meaning-driven or reader-driven nature is explicit. As Goodman (1996) states, reading is 'a psycholinguistic guessing game,' where much of the meaning resides in the reader, who needs to interpret the text to derive it. He argues that readers' top-down processing is essential to successful reading, and that in many instances, reading involves readers' existing schematic knowledge. Such a view is also widely shared among L2 researchers on bilingual readers because there are non-decoding factors that contribute to reading success (Yorio 1971; Zhang, Gu, and Hu 2008).

'Bottom-up' models view reading as a process in which the reader has to go through the text in a more linear fashion, starting from the smallest unit in print. Frequently, such a process is mainly text-bound, without any opportunity of the reader actively interpreting the text meaning. In this view, meaning is self-evident as soon as you are able to decode all the words. Bottom-up and top-down models of reading are two polarities of the reading models mentioned above (Ehrich et al. 2013).

2.2 Interactive Models

In his 'interactive-compensatory model' Stanovich (2000) argues that, although top-down processing is necessary, bottom-up processes play a significant role in reading, especially for beginning readers. In fact, both processes are very important in learning how to read. He posits that the reason why poor readers do not guess as accurately as skilled readers is that skilled readers possess so accurate and automatic perceptual abilities in word recognition that they do not usually need to guess; whereas poor readers have no way but guess, and their guessing is frequently short-circuited by their limited linguistic proficiency. Following this line of explication, one can see clearly that learning to read becomes a matter of developing highly accurate decoding skills. This means, too, that there is a 'short-circuit' effect for L2 learners whose linguistic proficiency is too low to make efficient reading possible (Yorio 1971). Interactive models of reading in their broad sense have also been advocated for L2 reading instruction (Carrell 1988) despite controversies over their practicality (see Grabe and Stoller 2011) and their technical nature that often distances them from practical applications.

Related to the reading models briefly discussed above, the central issue of whether reading in a foreign or second language is a reading problem or a language problem has been extensively debated and researched (Alderson 1984; Carrell 1991). Due to the fact that viewing as an area of academic and pedagogical inquiry is a relatively recent research agenda in the field of language and literacy education, there is little discussion based on empirical evidence insofar as L2 learning is concerned. So I assume that the question of whether reading in a second/foreign language is a reading problem or a language problem can be raised about L2 viewing. After many years of debate and evidence-based research, it is now clear that reading in a second/foreign language is not only a language/linguistic problem but also a

reading problem, i.e., how to read is also essential for efficient L2 reading comprehension (Grabe and Stoller 2011). Viewing can also be comfortably understood in a similar vein.

2.3 Use of Reading/Viewing Strategies

Strategic reading comprehension is more often associated with top-down and interactive reading models, where readers are expected to make use of their knowledge base. Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) define reading strategies as readers' deliberate and effortful mental or physical problem-solving moves in approaching a text for comprehension (see also Stoller and Komiyama 2013). In connection with the above positions, researchers have investigated readers' use of strategies in both L1 (see e.g., Paris, Lipson, and Wixson 1994) and L2 reading (see Grabe 2009). As part of the larger field of language learning strategy research (see Cohen and Macaro 2007), reading strategies have been given attention by L2 learning strategy researchers right from the outset, but extensive investigations into reading strategies among L2 scholars started approximately three decades ago (see e.g., Block 1986; Zhang 2001).

2.4 Sociocultural Perspectives on Reading and Viewing

Sociocultural perspectives on reading have become prominent in recent times. Neither cognitive nor educational psychologists have given sufficient attention to them until recently. It is a perennial concern for many researchers and educators working in this framework to go beyond understanding reading and viewing purely as cognitive mechanisms. They stress the importance of sociocultural contexts in which reading and viewing take place and learners' lived experiences might possibly shape their interpretation or comprehension of texts (written texts or multimodal texts). The processes of reading and related factors such as reader variability need to be contextually understood as well. So, learning as 'situated' acts characterizes both the reading/viewing process and the reading/viewing product in this light. Thus, reading, and by inference, viewing, too, as multi-literacy practices and as 'literacy events' (Heath 1996) carry social meanings that can engender human development and social change.

Closely related to this thinking is critical reading and viewing pedagogy, which has a similar concern. The reason why sociocultural perspectives have direct implications for, and probably practical applications to, critical pedagogy is their closely knit relationships with real issues that learners face in life despite reading and viewing most often taking place in classrooms. Critical pedagogy invites learners to approach the learning materials with an attitude to question the text and its author. Teachers of critical pedagogy usually ask learners to consider the text (print or digital) in light of: who the author is, what the purpose is, who the intended audiences

are, what the context is, what cultural practice is promoted, and who is silenced, among others. Critical reading and viewing take place when students are engaged intensively with the text, including the visuals, sounds, images, among others. They read between the lines and view for implied meanings, analyze underlying meanings of visual images, offer interpretive judgments, and question and evaluate what is read or viewed, including the writers' or producers' intentions and soundness of the argument. To what extent are students exposed to such skills in an L2 English classroom? How can L2 English teachers ensure that students are equipped with the necessary skills to be critical readers and viewers? These are key questions in the reading and viewing classroom. Following this pedagogy, teachers are advised to raise students' awareness of the social issues presented in the text and read the text with a critical eye. As Luke and Freebody (1997) argue, no text is in reality neutral. Different ideologies and political motifs are moving forces that drive the writer in the composing process, so readers and viewers are not exempted from being subjected to a particular condition and many times they are 'othered' by the writer or the text producer (Gee 2004). Though not a fundamental consideration as a teaching strategy on which the teacher can bank in classroom practice, teachers need to embed an element of critical pedagogy to examine what ideologies are extolled subconsciously or deliberately by the author and why this happens. Dialogic interactions with students are recommended as classroom procedures so that students can become critical readers and viewers who do not readily concede to all the ideas and accept them as they are. This pedagogical orientation may also lead to a dynamic classroom by virtue of its interactivity (Zhang and Zhang 2013).

3   Factors Affecting Reading and Viewing Success

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, three important variables affect reading or viewing success: (1) text characteristics; (2) reader/viewer characteristics; and (3) social context. This is true in both L1 and L2 contexts. Text characteristics vary according to the different text types with which the reader is familiar. If the text is a narrative, its specific characteristics include the organizational structure (e.g., orientation – events description – complication(s) – resolution(s) – conclusion/ending) and linguistic features (e.g., dominant past tense use, descriptive adjectives, action verbs, sentence structures that are different from those used in argumentative texts, use of indirect and direct speech), among others. In the case of an expository text, the structure can be starkly dissimilar to the narrative text. It can be compare-contrast, problem-solution, listing, cause-effect, and so on in its major exposition moves.

Different readers and viewers approach the same text in different ways, as they are individuals whose levels of metacognition, repertoires of reading/viewing strategies, lived experiences, social and world knowledge, linguistic proficiency, reading competencies, gender, attitudes toward reading/viewing, and socioeconomic backgrounds, inter alia, are diverse. Because of the different reader/viewer

characteristics, teachers' instruction in reading/viewing needs to take into account such diversity when designing lesson plans.

Understandably, reading takes place in context, so different sociocultural contexts in which students learn to read and view and read or view to learn require different reading/viewing strategies. More importantly, meaning is not resident in the text, videos, sounds, or images. Readers and viewers derive the meanings on the basis of their cultural models and knowledge. The sociocultural schemata they bring into the reading and viewing event can be strengths if properly utilized, but they can also be barriers to successful comprehension if the comprehension process is skewed by their schemata.

4 Effective Instruction in Reading and Viewing

Teachers' instructional practices have a bearing on their students' reading and viewing processes and strategy use. Therefore, pedagogically speaking, teachers' explicit delivery with sufficient scaffolding makes a difference in helping students succeed in learning to read/view and in reading to learn/view both in an L1 and an L2. Educational psychologists engage themselves in devising approaches and trying them in classrooms by setting up control and experimental groups to examine the effects of various pedagogical interventions (Zhang 2008). They do so in order to help learners make faster progress in learning, and in the case of reading and viewing, improve comprehension skills and reading/viewing performance and make score gains. Much progress has been made in L1 reading instruction research (Pressley 2007) and in an L2 (e.g., Bernhardt 2005; Debarera et al. 2014). But relatively little is known about instruction in viewing.

Given my earlier statement in the introduction section that three important variables affect readers' comprehension of text, in teaching reading and viewing either in an L2, these factors have to be considered if the teacher aims at effective pedagogical objectives. Specifically, such instruction has to cater to the needs of L2 learners through a simple needs analysis prior to instruction.

5 Research-Informed Pedagogical Recommendations

Bases on a thorough research synthesis, Grabe (2009) recommends that teachers maximize students' reading development by following ten principles. I believe that they are equally applicable to the teaching of viewing. I reinterpret them below for the ease of application (see Table 1).

As is clear, strategy-based instruction (SBI) in reading/viewing is embodied in almost all the ten pedagogical principles that Grabe has recommended. Conceptually-oriented reading/viewing activities, such as using a K-W-L sheet, is a case in point. As a further extension of the existing work in the area of SBI, which refers to

Table 1 Ten pedagogical principles for teaching reading and viewing (based on Grabe 2009)

Pedagogical attention	Rationale for practice
Ensure word recognition fluency	This is an important consideration in teaching L2 reading/viewing because this means that learners have to be taught how to pronounce a word once they encounter it in print or on screen and they are also able to give its semantic meaning
Emphasize vocabulary learning	Vocabulary learning can take place both implicitly and explicitly and this can be done through the provision of a vocabulary-rich environment and conducive learning context because of a positive correlation between readers' vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (see also Debarera et al. 2014; Zhang and Annul 2008)
Activate background knowledge	Organize brainstorming/sharing activities for activating students' schemata/background knowledge. If the teacher realizes that students do not have sufficient background information on the topic, providing it through student-centered brainstorming activities will be beneficial. Schema theory still stands valid in pedagogy
Ensure language knowledge and comprehension skills	Instructing students on successful acquisition of the essential language knowledge, including, phonological, lexical, morphological, grammatical-syntactical and other knowledge bases, contributes to the development of successful reading skills necessary for understanding traditional and digital texts
Teach text structures and discourse organization	Different types of texts have different organizations, such as the case of a narrative text (story), as explained above, so teaching students text structure and discourse information facilitates reading/viewing comprehension
Promote strategic readers	Strategic readers/viewers are not blocked by new words. Strategies such as *summarizing*, *clarifying*, *predicting*, *imaging*, *forming questions*, *making inferences using contextual clues, using prior knowledge*, *monitoring*, and *evaluating* help readers solve problems in the reading/viewing process
Build reading fluency and reading rate	Word recognition accuracy and automaticity, speed of processing across extended texts, and the use of prosodic and syntactic structures are all important factors classroom teachers need to consider
Promote extensive reading	Extensive reading/viewing is simply invaluable. Teachers need to design extensive reading/viewing activities and encourage students to be engaged in such experiences for leisure and fun to develop high degrees of reading/viewing competence (see Day and Bamford 2002; Renandya 2007)
Develop intrinsic motivation for reading	Intrinsic motivation for reading/viewing is the "disposition to read for its own sake and for the enjoyment of reading" (Guthrie 2003, p. 45). Teacher effort is necessary for directing students in this area of exploration (e.g., through conceptually-oriented reading using K-W-L, as illustrated in the next section)
Plan a coherent curriculum for student learning	Good reading/viewing texts or well-selected reading/viewing materials are the key to the success of any foreign language reading curriculum. Efforts have to be exerted in making sure that the content matches the instructional strategies intended to be incorporated. The coherence of the content needs to be seriously considered for maintaining teachers' easy implementation

classroom procedures where the teacher incorporates learning strategies in language teaching (Cohen 2011; Stoller and Komiyama 2013), SBI in reading/viewing can take a similar approach. Scholars have conducted extensive research on learning strategies used by L2 learners (e.g., Oxford 2011).

Despite tensions existing among those who are interested in strategies-based instruction in L2 teaching as to how explicit the teaching of language learning strategies should be, strategies-based reading instruction has been the major trend in the educational psychology literature. The field of L2 reading has also followed a similar trajectory since Carrell et al.'s (1998) proposal for explicitly teaching reading strategies to L2 readers. Social constructivism has been incorporated into this pedagogical innovation in L2 SBI in reading (see e.g., Zhang 2008). This is because social constructivists argue that in the learning process meaning is constructed through dialogue and learning takes place at a level just beyond the current competence of the learner, i.e., within her/his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) through the co-construction of knowledge (Vygotsky 1986). Dialogic learning, in this view, is crucial to success in reading, as is the case of instruction in viewing.

6 Developing Metacognitively-Strong Readers and Viewers

As part of the orchestration of learners' knowledge, experiences, and strategies, metacognitively-oriented instruction, as typically implemented through self-regulated learning (SRL), has become an accepted pedagogical approach to SBI in reading/viewing. It has been widely advocated in North America and other parts of the world in L2 reading after two decades of deliberations and heated debates on its definition and specific educational goals, classroom procedures, and assessment (Greene and Azevedo 2007). As an umbrella term referring to both the metacognitive and cognitive aspects of problem-solving in reading comprehension, SRL regards as important two main domains of human cognition. The first one is about learners' personal beliefs, which include learners' self-efficacy, task value, and motivation, which are the prerequisites for them to develop self-regulation. The second one is a cluster of variables that includes learners' goal-setting, strategy selection, strategy use and monitoring, self-evaluation of the progress in reaching the target goals, and the success of strategy choice, use and monitoring. Reading researchers and educators are both interested in investigating learners' successes or failures through the lens of SRL. It is anticipated that scholarly work will also be devoted to investigating successes or failures in students' viewing. This appears to be a promising direction that language learning strategy researchers such as Cohen (2011) and Macaro and Erler (2008) have recommended for researchers and practitioners in the field of applied linguistics in general and in second language reading (and viewing) in particular (Zhang and Zhang 2013).

7 A Proposed Pedagogical Cycle for Teaching Reading and Viewing

Modern technologies and reading have been connected ever more closely in recent times and the reciprocity of the two for understanding reading and viewing processes as well as for improving reading and viewing instruction is prominent. As a result, developing highly competent skills and strategies is highlighted as paramount for dealing with texts whose dimensions have now included any materials that the reader or viewer encounters in daily experiences. For example, knowing how to view a media text on the CD-ROM, VCD, DVD, MP3/MP4, iPhone, iPad, Podcast, and other applications is just an illustration of such a literacy competence. The concept of reading and literacy is no longer confined to the conventional notion of reading printed texts and writing with a pen or pencil on paper. Knowledge is essential of the Internet and the highly frequent nature of intertexuality represented in digital texts, where a word or a sentence is linked to another meaning that is hosted on a separate website of the Internet with rich meaningful transactions. The practice of intertextuality of multidimensionality and multimodalilty is a generic feature, (re)presented with sound, pictorial images, video clips, animations, and the related multi-layered links, with captions or dubbing in words and sentences. This practice of relative modernity and novelty in text presentation/representation and its ever-changing nature are seldom found in conventional printed materials.

In educational contexts, the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in meaning conveyances poses further challenges to educators and teachers, who will have to learn new skills and technologies to keep up with the times of change. This happens not only in developed countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Singapore, USA, UK, among others, but also in bourgeoning emerging new economies including China, India, Mexico, South Africa, and many other Asian, American, and African countries. Teachers need to understand how the reader approaches texts of various forms due to the multimodality features of texts that the reader/viewer is to encounter (Zhang 2016). This means that the reader/viewer needs to develop strategies for understanding multimodal texts and using such multiliterate skills that society requires for his/her own benefit.

Approaches to teaching reading and viewing are, to a great extent, dependent upon students, materials, and contexts. For a concise overview, a diagrammatic representation of instructional design in teaching reading and viewing is illustrated in Fig. 1. To a certain extent, Fig. 1 provides broad pedagogical recommendations, which can be modified by teachers according to the type of students they have and the context that they regard as suitable for using them.

A reading and/or viewing lesson is assumed to be comprised of two levels, each serving its purposes, which sometimes are shared at the two levels. But briefly, the focus of teaching can be meaning-driven for comprehension or acquisition-driven for language acquisition, despite the inherent links between acquisition and comprehension in a typical language curriculum. In a typical meaning-focused reading and viewing lesson, the teacher may want to design the lesson in such a way that
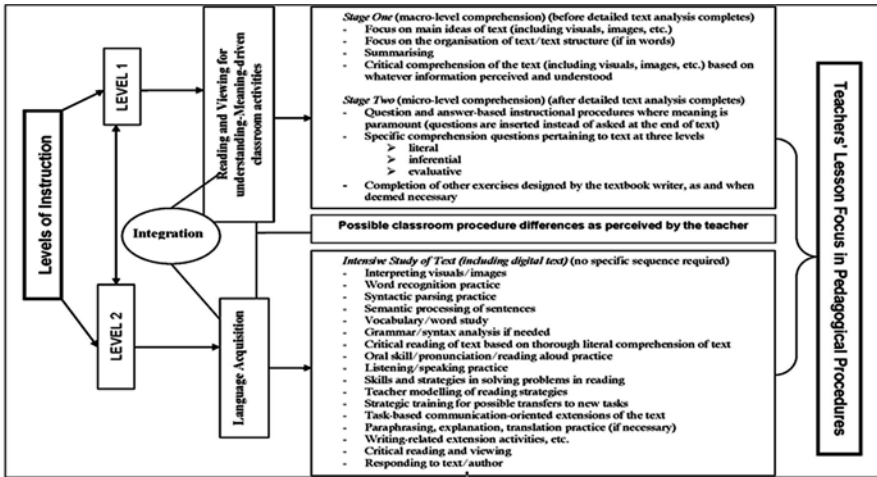
Fig. 1 A conceptual diagrammatic representation of instructional design in teaching L2 reading and viewing

there is a progression from micro-level comprehension to macro-level comprehension; or an opposite approach can be taken. Either way allows the teacher to focus on meaning and comprehension, without the teacher having to deviate from textbooks if they are institutionally prescribed.

In a typical language acquisition-focused reading or viewing lesson, the teacher might want to place an emphasis on an intensive study of a text (usually known as intensive reading in the foreign language curriculum) (see Nuttall 1996). Teaching activities can range from word recognition practice, syntactic parsing practice (e.g., grammatical analysis of words and sentences), vocabulary/word study, paraphrasing, and translation practice, with an overall aim of further improving linguistic proficiency to get ready for more competent reading comprehension. Such 'lower-level' processes are necessary conditions for successful reading and viewing comprehension. These two blocks of classroom activities are in fact what have been deliberately presented here, as in real practice teachers might be striding over the two, without having to be so clearly divisive. Therefore, it should be understood that these classroom procedural differences are what teachers might find already being practiced in their pedagogies.

8   Teaching Reading and Viewing in the Classroom

Many useful strategies have been informed by research and successfully used in the reading classroom (see e.g., Grabe 2009). They are synthesized in Table 2 and recommended for use in teaching viewing as well. As is evident, teachers' pedagogical decision-making in using these strategies, guided by the pedagogical principles as

Table 2 Strategies for comprehension-based reading and viewing instruction

Strategies	Lesson flow		
	Pre-reading and viewing	During-reading and viewing	Post-reading and viewing
Schema activation or provision			
Predicting and anticipating			
Previewing			
Scanning			
Skimming			
Reading and linking			
Viewing and connecting			
Monitoring comprehension			
Inferencing			
Text-mapping			
Summarizing			
Retelling			
Acting and performing the text			
Note-taking			
Paraphrasing			
Perspective-taking			

Table 3 Using the K-W-L chart to teach reading and viewing

K	W	L
What I know	What I want to know	What I learned

stated in Table 1 above and illustrated in the diagram (see Fig. 1), can be centered around the lesson organizational flow, as recommended in Table 2. Some of the strategies are more often useful in the pre-reading/viewing stage; some are more relevant to the during-reading and viewing stage; and others are more suitable for post-reading/viewing stage. Teachers are encouraged to organize their teaching by engaging students to approach texts with reference to this non-exhaustive list of strategies of teaching reading and viewing.

As an illustration of the utility of these teaching strategies, I present how the use of a package of strategies called the K-W-L chart (Ogle 1986) below (see Table 3) can embody the actualization of the ideas presented so far. As a set of useful teaching strategies, the K-W-L chart has been widely used in teaching expository texts. As a typical procedure, teachers usually distribute the chart to each student, clearly

indicating the three columns with the three letters, K, W, and L. Students are well informed of the purpose of this chart. Once students get the text to be read, the teacher's teaching activity can proceed from K (what I already know), which typically serves as a pre-reading activity, leading to generating many useful ideas, vocabulary items, and key issues that students might have already known. Then the teacher moves on to the next stage, W (what I want to know). Students can be encouraged to use a variety of reading and viewing strategies showcased in Table 2 (e.g., note-taking, summarizing, reading and viewing and connecting, monitoring comprehension). Such activity can take different forms, either individually, in pairs, or in groups. Students are given opportunities for anticipating and predicting what is to appear in the text based on the topic of the text they already know. When expressing anticipations, students are expected to justify the ideas or vocabulary items that they think they are going to learn from the text. Such preparation for tackling the text is equivalent to activating students' schema knowledge to get them ready for the reading task lying ahead. Students then are allowed enough time to finish reading the text. The next immediate step is naturally L (what is learned). More often, individual reading is more productive due to the preparation provided in the K and W stages. Any other activity to finish off the lesson works perfectly well for consolidating the strategies used and the comprehension activity just completed. What needs to be pointed out is that the K-W-L chart is not only useful when teaching student expository texts, it is also useful for teaching narrative texts as well as content-area knowledge.

9 Conclusion

L2 reading and viewing can be challenging for many L2 English learners. Based on a good understanding of what reading and viewing entail, language teachers can design classroom activities by actively engaging students through explicit instruction in reading and viewing comprehension. Such instructional strategies often provide platforms for students and teachers to be dynamically connected. When teachers take the lead at the start of the reading and viewing lessons, students are provided with the scaffold when the lessons proceed. A gradual removal of teacher scaffold is possible only after students are taught how to read and view materials in the classroom and beyond. Ultimately, students are expected to develop into independent and confident readers and viewers themselves (Zhang 2016). As an ancient proverb goes, 'Practice makes perfect.' Therefore, frequent use of these pedagogical strategies in teaching reading and viewing comprehension will instill in students a positive attitude toward conscientious learning. This is the case for learning to read and view, as is the case in developing advanced reading and viewing comprehension skills for life-long learning.

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Teaching Speaking

Christine C.M. Goh

Abstract To teach speaking requires planning of activities which not only allow learners to practise oral language but also focus their attention on important linguistic elements that can improve their accuracy. Drawing on a substantial research base, this chapter discusses key dimensions in teaching speaking that can develop language learners' fluency, accuracy and complexity, as well as guiding them on how to manage their cognitive and affective learning processes in a holistic manner.

Keywords L2 speaking • Accuracy • Fluency • Communication strategies • Metacognition • Task repetition

1 Introduction

In today's English classrooms, we often see language learners sitting in pairs and groups talking or working together on a task. Such kinds of activities are aimed at helping learners gain confidence and fluency in speech and are particularly necessary in countries where English is not widely used. This practice is based on the assumption that through frequent practice with their peers, learners will transfer speaking skills from the classroom to real-life communication. This approach was identified in a review of speaking instruction by Burns (1998) as the indirect/transfer approach. Another approach she identified is the direct/controlled approach in which learners focus on getting the forms of the language right through direct instruction of grammar and pronunciation through drills, structure manipulation and consciousness-raising activities. This direct approach was common before Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methods became influential in many parts of the world resulting in the currency of the indirect/transfer orientation in speaking activities.

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On the whole, there have been no perceptible paradigm shifts in methods and practices for teaching speaking (Goh and Burns 2012; McCarthy and O'Keeffe 2004). Nevertheless, new understandings of the relevance of discourse analysis and features of spoken English have resulted in an expansion of the scope of the direct/controlled approach. This expanded approach, informed in part by genre theory, introduces learners to a variety of spoken texts and their respective discourse structures through direct teaching of language and discourse knowledge needed for successful oral communication (Burns 1998). Additionally, corpus research work such as the CANCODE spoken corpus (McCarthy and Carter 1995) has provided evidence of significant differences between spoken and written English and their pedagogical implications (Carter 1998). There are compelling reasons why a methodology for teaching speaking today would need to move away from a model based entirely on written language to ensure that the language that second language (L2) learners develop is natural and reflects the way English is spoken in real-life (McCarthy and Carter 2001), a view that is also shared by some practitioners (Goh 2009; Timmis 2005).

Taking into consideration the pedagogical landscape for speaking instruction, this chapter proposes a comprehensive and holistic approach, which integrates the combined strengths of direct and indirect instruction with the power of learners' metacognition (cognition about thinking and learning processes). This approach is further informed by some recent research findings on pedagogical processes that can scaffold the development of L2 speaking. Within this discussion, I will explain the construct of speaking and highlight pedagogical procedures that can contribute positively to speaking performance. I will present the implications of such understandings and suggest pedagogical principles that can enhance current practices for facilitating second language speaking development in and beyond the language classroom.

2   Second Language Speaking

Understanding what speaking entails is essential if we are to teach it well. We often say someone is a good speaker because that person speaks confidently, fluently and grammatically. In some learning contexts, a person may be considered a good speaker if he or she sounds like a speaker from one of the traditional native-speaker countries such as the UK or the USA. Some people may say that a good speaker is someone who is able to influence others with his or her words. While 'good' speaking may seem such a self-evident phenomenon, the construct of speaking is anything but simple. In this section, we will examine what L2 speaking is by discussing the concept of speaking competence and the processes involved in speech production. This is followed by selected research highlights that offer pedagogical procedures that can potentially enhance L2 learners' speaking performance.

2.1   Speaking Competence

Speaking involves dynamic interactions of mental, articulatory and social processes. To express a message, speakers need to decide what to say and use their linguistic knowledge to construct utterances and encode this message in sounds and sound patterns that can be recognised and understood by their listeners. They also need to consider the context of interaction and engage their listeners in socially appropriate ways through various linguistic choices and forms. For example, speakers may choose to use certain vocabulary or register when speaking with people with whom they have shared knowledge and experience. Speaking is also influenced by varied cognitive and affective factors, such as the ability to process speech quickly and feelings of anxiety respectively. To begin our discussion, it is instructive to examine a description of L2 oral communication by Johnson (1981, p.11) that is still very much relevant today:

> Consider for example what is involved in producing a conversation utterance. Apart from being grammatical, the utterance must also be appropriate on very many levels at the same time; it must conform to the speaker's aim; the role relationships between the interactants; to the setting, topic, linguistic context, etc. The speaker must also produce his utterance within severe constraints; he does not know in advance what will be said to him (and hence what his utterance will be a response to); yet, if the conversation is not to flag, he must respond quickly. The rapid formulation of utterances which are simultaneously "right" on several levels is central to the (spoken) communicative skill.

Johnson identifies critical aspects of L2 speaking that are elaborated in the sections that follow.

2.1.1   Enabling Skills

An important characteristic of competence is the ability to produce utterances that are grammatically accurate, a notion we will return to later. Accuracy alone, however, is insufficient. Competent speakers need to use language for myriads functions so as to achieve a range of communication goals. They do this through various sub-skills that enable them to navigate the social elements at work in any interaction so that what is said is not only clear but also appropriate to the context and acceptable to their listeners. To do this, they need to determine what type of information and how much of it is needed, as well as effective ways to express their meaning, organise their speech and articulate the sounds that accompany their speech intelligibly. The centrality of skills in the conceptualisation of speaking competence is demonstrated in various discussions of the construct of speaking in which a number of production and interaction skills have been identified. Goh and Burns (2012) have grouped speaking skills into four sets or clusters of skills, each with many sub-skills respectively that are appropriate for the learning and communication needs of learners:

Pronunciation Skills

These skills that are articulatory and phonological in nature enable speakers to produce sounds at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. At the segmental level, learners need to articulate discrete sounds such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs, and clusters of these sounds through movement with and inside of their mouths to produce intelligible sounds through the articulatory tract. The suprasegmental level concerns overall sound patterns of utterances or parts of an utterance and are realised mainly but not exclusively through prominence (stress of selected syllables in key words) and tones (pitch movements in selected key words). Suprasegmental features are not mere reproduction of sentence stress patterns to show attitude or emotions, as suggested by some instructional materials for pronunciation. Instead, they have important communicative value and are produced in response to the real-time unfolding of meanings in discourse during any interaction (Brazil 1985/1997). Consider the following example:

> A: Where's my bag?
> B: //UNder the TAble//
> A: (Looking at the top of table) Where?
> B: //NOT ON the table// UNder it//

B's first reply shows what would normally be considered as "correct" stress pattern because the key content word 'table' is given the more prominent stress. In B's second reply, however, the stress is not on the word 'table' because this information is no longer new but is given or shared. Instead, the stress is found in grammar words in the form of the prepositions 'on' and 'under' where greater prominence has been assigned to show the contrast in the location of the bag.

Speech Function Skills

We use speech to perform speech acts, that is to say we produce spoken language to get things done. To achieve this, speakers need to produce utterances that can convey desired communicative functions through a combination of appropriate language use, vocabulary choice and grammar. Inventories of language functions for speech can be found in many skill-based language syllabuses or documents such as the Common European Framework Reference that specify the competencies that language learners are expected to achieve at various levels of proficiency. There are many basic language functions that learners need to show, for example, inform, accept, decline, request, explain and describe. Individual learners' functional repertoire will depend largely on their contexts of interaction and the purposes for which speech can fulfil. Compared to young learners, adult learners in academic or professional situations would need to convey more complex functions such as negotiate, advise and argue.

Interaction Management Skills

Some speech functions are directly related to the ability to manage an interaction or regulate the flow of conversations. Just as children learning their first language need to learn how to initiate and sustain face-to-face interactions, language learners need to develop skills to do so in another language. These include but are not limited to initiating an interaction or conversation, taking turns, giving turns, asking for clarification, changing topics and closing an interaction. Adult learners' prior experience would allow them to understand the moves needed in face-to-face interactions, but they still need to learn to use the language to convey these moves. Formulaic expressions for indicating the specific functions are an important part of learners' repertoire of interaction management skills. Moreover, because of cultural differences, language learners will also need to recognise their interlocutors' moves as well as creating moves and utterances in socioculturally appropriate ways themselves.

Discourse Organisation Skills

Most spoken interactions occur in contexts where participants have equal or similar opportunities to talk. Very often, however, language learners may have longer turns and are required to produce extended pieces of discourse, for example, when giving a presentation, explaining or describing procedures and narrating an event or a story. They will therefore need skills to construct these spoken texts in ways that are consistent with the sociocultural conventions for the respective genres in the language being learnt. In addition to knowing about discourse routines (the stages and moves that are typically found in specific contexts), learners need relevant language to frame the moves. For example, in giving a presentation, learners must make use of discourse markers to signpost transitions. These markers can be simple such as using the word 'Next' or complex such as including a summary of what has been said and progressing to the next 'We have just examined X, let's now consider Y.' Young learners learning to tell a story in the target language will need to know the structure of a narrative (orientation-problem-resolution-coda) and use markers to indicate these transitions.

2.1.2   Communication Strategies

Communication strategies are special techniques that learners need to employ during oral communication. They can have a social function for enhancing interaction or a psycholinguistic function that compensates inadequate vocabulary and other language-related problems (Nakatani and Goh 2007). Given the constraints of time and inadequate language mastery, learners also often need to employ communication strategies to keep the conversation going or to prevent flagging (Dörnyei 1995). For example, learners may use interactional strategies such as asking for clarification or repetition and comprehension checks before responding to their interlocutors

to ensure that they can give a correct response and gain time while formulating a response. Less proficient learners who do not understand what they hear and are unable to express their meanings immediately may ask for assistance directly. They may also adjust their message according to their competence by reducing what they say to the minimum or steering the conversation away to a new topic which they are more familiar with.

Learners may also use formulaic expressions or discourse markers, such as 'Well', 'Yes, that's a good point' as hesitation devices to gain more thinking time, and use generic terms or vague words such as 'thing' to substitute a more precise term which they do not know in the target language. This last strategy is also called approximation and is an example of cognitive strategies used for solving problems when L2 speakers encounter gaps in lexical knowledge and related linguistic problems. Other cognitive strategies include paraphrase, circumlocution, word coinage and borrowings from L1. Learners can also use metacognitive strategies to plan what they want to say, self-monitor during speaking and evaluate their language and message after speaking (Bygate 1998). Given the position of English as an international language, learners must also develop strategies that enable them to communicate across cultures (see Newton, this volume).

2.1.3 Language and Discourse Knowledge

The notion of grammaticality in Johnson's (1981) observation was concerned mainly with syntactic (word order) and morphological features such as verb inflections, and noun plurality. In recent decades, however, our understanding of grammar has expanded to include knowledge and use of grammar in relation to spoken genres as well as structuring different kinds of spoken genres, i.e., types of texts produced in different communicative events, such as conversations, lectures and interviews, according to the sociocultural context (Burns 1998). Speakers need to use grammar that supports the production and organisation of the respective genres. For example, in producing oral narratives or stories, various forms of the past tense are most common whereas giving instructions or directions (e.g., procedural texts) will require the use of the imperative forms of verbs. Another extended notion of grammaticality is the speakers' knowledge of and ability to use spoken grammar, as it would no longer be possible to ignore the compelling evidence from spoken language data in any discussions of speaking pedagogy (McCarthy and O'Keeffe 2004).

3 Processes in Speech Production

Our understanding of L2 speaking has been informed by useful models of speech production in cognitive psychology. One model that has been adopted in several L2 speaking discussions is Levelt's (1989) framework of conceptualisation, formulation and articulation based on first language speakers (see Bygate 1998).

Conceptualisation is a speaker's mental planning process to determine what he or she intends to say. Information is selected and intentions of speech acts are activated at this stage. Such a mental concept or plan may exist as a general idea, but the message still has to be expressed in relevant words that are strung together grammatically. This requires the accessing and retrieval of vocabulary that is stored in long term memory existing as individual words, phrases or even complete chunks of utterances as well as the application of grammar knowledge of the language. During the process of formulation, speakers will actively draw on their knowledge of the language to express their meaning as clearly and precisely as possible. The actual expression of the ideas for the listeners occurs when the words are said aloud through phonological encoding at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. This physical process which is called articulation is brought about by the activation and control of components of the articulatory system.

3.1 Directions of Speech Processing

According to Levelt (1989), while the processes of conceptualisation, formulation and articulation often occur interactively, they can also take place in a linear manner. This is to say that one process may occur while another is still taking place, but it is also possible that speakers may engage with the processes separately before speech acts are performed through a demonstration of the individual or collective functions of the utterances. Interactive speech processing occurs more commonly in spontaneous speech production where speakers have to decide what to say, how to say it and say it aloud. In L2 speaking this also presents the greatest challenge for learners and they may have to resort to communication strategies to buy time as we have discussed previously. They may also have to process their speech in a linear manner such that one process (for example, articulation) occurs only after another (for example, formulation) has completed.

3.2 Metacognitive Processes

In addition to these cognitive and articulatory processes, speech production also frequently involves metacognitive processes. These are mental processes operating at a level beyond the direct manipulation of language and ideas. Metacognitive processes manage and regulate speech as it is processed cognitively and articulated physically. A primary metacognitive process is monitoring (Bygate 1998). This occurs when speakers check the accuracy and appropriateness of what is being said and how it is being said all the time when they are saying it. Another metacognitive process is evaluation which takes place following speech production. Speakers may review what they have just said and decide whether they have been effective in conveying their thoughts, ideas or information and the achievement of their

communication goal. This may occur immediately after an utterance is articulated or at the end of a speech event. Another key metacognitive process is planning and this may overlap with the conceptualisation phase in situations when speakers have plenty of time to think about what they want to say, for example in preparing for a presentation.

3.3 L2 Speaking Performance

Although language learners also engage in similar processes of speech production, they encounter various challenges that can affect their speech fluency. To explain L2 speaking performance, a multidisciplinary, cognitive science framework was proposed by Segalowitz (2010) that is informed by neurocognitive science and social psychology of bilingualism. It explains L2 speech performance in terms of the dynamic relationships among a number of variables or sources, which can variously exert demands on L2 learners' speech. These are cognitive perceptual systems that underlie speech production, utterance fluency features (e.g., speech rate, hesitation and pausing), motivation (e.g., willingness to communicate, beliefs, language and identity, and the concept of L2 self), the social or interactive communicative context, and fluency-relevant perceptual and cognitive experiences (e.g., exposure, opportunities for repetition practice). L2 fluency is therefore affected by many demands, such as a limited cognitive processing capacity because conceptualisation, formulation and articulation need to take place within constraints of limited content, language and discourse knowledge. Some learners may also be hampered by inadequate cultural knowledge that can otherwise enhance their oral communication and enhance their confidence when talking with English speakers from other countries.

In a face-to-face communication situation where there are time pressures to 'perform,' learners will focus more on conveying the meaning of what they want to say rather than worry too much about the accuracy of their language (Skehan 1998). In other words, many learners may not have the luxury of time and processing capacity to monitor what they say constantly. This said, language learners do try to check on what they say whenever possible in order to enhance their performance, and their self-monitoring processes are evident in the presence of self-repairs. Learners do notice their mistakes or lack of clarity and correct themselves. At the same time, language learners also employ communication strategies to seek assistance, gain extra time or improve what they say. The ability of language learners to maintain interaction no matter how challenging this proves to be as well as compensating for a lack of lexical knowledge shows they also engage in the metacognitive processes of planning, self-monitoring and evaluation.

4   Speaking Tasks

Teachers plan a range of speaking tasks with various levels of demands and outcomes to give learners opportunities to practise their spoken English. Some of these tasks may require learners to talk together in groups to arrive at a solution to a given problem while others may simply require them to exchange specific information. There are broadly three types of speaking tasks that encourage genuine communication among learners: communication-gap tasks, discussion tasks, and monologic tasks (see Goh and Burns 2012 for details). In communication-gap and discussion tasks, learners interact with a partner or others in small groups to convey information and viewpoints to achieve a communicative outcome. There are many forms of 'gaps' in communication-gap tasks and these include missing information or details which one learner will have to describe, narrate or explain to their partner.

In comparison, discussion tasks create an even more authentic context for speaking and interaction because learners share their personal views with one another. When they have to discuss an open or controversial topic, for example, learners can draw on their own background knowledge, experience and beliefs. When a consensus or solution is required, they will have to negotiate with one another for an outcome that everyone can agree on. Sometimes, group discussions can also occur through simulations, which are classroom activities that reproduce or create a situation that is close to real life concerns. In simulations, learners are given scenarios in which they take on a role, such as a doctor, a Member of Parliament, a school counsellor, and a parent to discuss an issue with others taking on other roles.

In contrast to the two kinds of tasks just mentioned, monologic tasks require learners to present ideas, information and views individually to a single listener or a group of listeners. For example, they may give a talk, tell a story or present a report. They may also speak extensively on a topic or a theme without interruptions. They may be asked to give spontaneous and unedited talks or planned and rehearsed ones. These 'performances' can be done in front of the whole class, but doing them in small groups is preferable because it reduces anxiety for the speakers and enables peers to ask questions and give feedback in a less threatening environment. Teachers can plan different kinds of monologic tasks and vary the duration of the monologue according to learning objectives.

5   Enhancing Second Language Speaking Performance

Speaking in a second language clearly presents many challenges to language learners. These challenges, however, do not always get addressed in the classroom. Although students have opportunities to develop their confidence and fluency through oral activities, they do not in general receive much of the scaffolding they need for learning and improvement to take place during the instructional process. Spurred by their motivation to succeed, many learners may put in extra time and

effort to practise their spoken English by using self-study techniques or seeking opportunities to speak with more competent speakers of English. Some learners may find their progress slow while others may feel that they do not learn enough by just practising in class with peers who are not any better than themselves. These are genuine concerns, and there are ways for teachers to support learners and help them succeed. Recent research has provided new understandings about cognitive and general learning processes for L2 learners, and these understandings can provide further directions in the way we enhance speaking pedagogy. I discuss below three strategies that can enhance L2 learners' speaking performance.

5.1 Pre-task Planning

Some researchers have investigated whether it was useful to give learners time to plan and prepare for a speaking task and how pre-task planning might have an impact on their fluency, accuracy and language complexity (see for example, Skehan and Foster 1997, 2005). Varying degrees of positive effects have been reported for all three dimensions of speech but the effect on accuracy is still inconclusive. Another type of pre-task planning focuses on the strategies that learners could use during the task to facilitate communication and intelligibility. Strategy training conducted at the pre-task stage enabled some learners to apply strategies during speaking and produce speech that was significantly more fluent than that of learners who did not receive any training. In addition, pre-task planning time has allowed some test-takers to prepare themselves for a speaking test by using language-related strategies as well as strategies for content and discourse organisation (Wigglesworth and Elder 2010). Some researchers speculated that while pre-task planning was helpful for learners, individual differences such as the ability for self-monitoring and repairs could confound the effects of pre-task planning, so other ways of helping learners improve their speech production such as task repetition should be explored.

5.2 Task Repetition

Task repetition is the repeated use of the same or similar communication task or discourse sequences by learners with the same or different people (Bygate 2001). Research has shown that when learners repeated a speaking task they produced more accurate and natural speech and demonstrated better framing of their narratives (Bygate and Samuda 2005). When repeating presentations to different audiences, learners integrated lexical knowledge generated from the first task, showed a wider range of lexical items and increased their accuracy in grammar and pronunciation (Lynch and Maclean 2000, 2001). Allowing learners to repeat a task can free up valuable cognitive space for learners which would otherwise be severely taxed by the need to attend to different aspects of their performance. For example, when

task repetition was combined with a form-focused activity, learners were able to direct their attention more effectively at form in the repeat performance (Hawkes 2012).

5.3   Metacognition Enhancement

Metacognition is an individual's ability to think about his or her own thinking and learning. It encompasses knowledge of one's own learning (person knowledge), the nature and demands of learning tasks (task knowledge) and how to approach these tasks (strategy knowledge), and the actual use of strategies for problem-solving as well as monitoring, regulating and orchestrating thinking and learning processes (Flavell 1976). The role of metacognition in learning has been discussed extensively in educational psychology. In L2 speaking, it has been examined specifically in two areas. The first is the use of communication strategies as previously explained and the other is the development of learners' metacognition about speaking through awareness-raising and strategy-instruction activities (Goh and Burns 2012). A recent study reported that a group of learners' metacognitive knowledge about speaking improved substantially when they were given the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) level descriptors for speaking to support their learning (Glover 2011). The learners were also able to use the descriptors effectively for self-evaluation of their speaking development. In another study involving learners of Chinese as a second language, the learners' speaking improvement was attributed partly to the use of metacognitive reflections in an intervention programme (Tan and Tan 2010). One of the things that the learners did in this programme was evaluating, monitoring and planning their speaking performances. Improvements in the pronunciation of a group of EFL learners were also attributed to their engagement in metacognitive processes such as weekly journaling (He 2011).

6   A Comprehensive and Holistic Approach

There are many good teaching practices for speaking today. Although valuable and useful, they do not adequately offer scaffolding processes that allow language learners to benefit more extensively from time spent in and out of class. This limitation therefore calls for an enhanced approach that is guided by a coherent understanding of the construct of L2 speaking, how relevant research findings can inform pedagogy and the potential of metacognition for language learning tasks in and outside the classroom for speaking development. Such an approach addresses these ideas comprehensively and responds to learner needs holistically. Based on earlier discussions about L2 speaking, a number of implications and pedagogical principles can be drawn for such an approach. These are presented in Table 1 below. These

Table 1 Implications and principles for teaching speaking

Implications	Principles
Speaking is a complex and demanding language communication skill	Recognise that learners can experience problems with different processes relating to conceptualising their ideas, formulating the language to support those ideas and articulating the words through clear pronunciation and intonation
	Create learning situations that are supportive and that can reduce learner anxiety
	Plan speaking activities that require learners to focus on only selected aspects of speaking so as not to overly tax learners' attention and processing capacities
Speaking lessons need to address the three aspects of speaking competence: skills, knowledge and strategies	Ensure a balanced coverage of enabling skills that are appropriate for your students' learning needs
	Plan your lesson objectives by selecting only one or two categories of core speaking skills and specifying enabling skills to be developed
	Create opportunities for learning of language and discourse knowledge in a lesson sequence or a series of related lessons
	Help learners focus on the language that is needed for using the skills before and after they have completed a speaking task
	Include activities that promote the learning and use of both types of communication strategies
	Teach phrases and expressions that can support the use of interactional strategies
Oral practice activities alone are not sufficient for helping language learners speak effectively	Conceptualize speaking lessons as structured learning experiences where learners can develop their competence through a combination of direct and indirect techniques
	Plan activities to teach selected aspects of speaking competence explicitly
	Enable learners to focus on grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation at appropriate stages of a lesson sequence
	Include activities that can raise learners' metacognitive awareness about speaking processes and how they can manage their own speaking development
	Activities that focus learners' attention on language, skills, and strategies are an important part of teaching speaking

Table 1 (continued)

Implications	Principles
Learners' speaking performance can be enhanced by reducing their cognitive load during speech processing	Teaching speaking is not the same as testing speaking, so teachers should provide scaffold and guidance to help learners succeed in each task
	Before learners do a speaking task, they should prepare for it by focusing on one or two of these areas: content or topic, language and strategies
	Time for pre-task planning can vary according to the demands of the ensuing speaking task and the support that learners get during the task
	Allow opportunities for students to repeat a task immediately, following some explicit instruction or after an interval
	Motivate learners by getting them to repeat a task in its original form with new speaking partners or in a slightly modified form with the same ones
Learners need a variety of learning tasks to develop their speaking abilities comprehensively	Plan a range of speaking tasks to allow learners to communicate in different communicative events
	Select the type of speaking task (communication-gap, discussion and monologic) that can best support the practice and development of the skills you have identified in your lesson objectives
	Identify the language and discourse knowledge that can support each task
	Help learners plan various out-of-class learning tasks to strengthen the opportunities for practice and reflection
Speaking lessons must address not only cognitive and linguistic needs but also affective and metacognitive ones	Structure each speaking lesson by combining activities that allow practice, noticing language as well as individual and peer reflection
	Provide prompts and guides that can increase your learners' metacognitive knowledge about areas of speaking that they should focus on
	When identifying topics for group discussions, include ones on learning to communicate so as to enhance learners' knowledge of and engagement with their own speaking development
	Encourage learners to self-assess their speaking performance and the impact of pre-task-planning and task-repetition on it
	Provide feedback to learners on their speaking performance through teacher or peer observations
	Use technology to help learners record and reflect on their own speech production

considerations are relevant for the traditional face-to-face speaking classes as well as for speaking practice activities that are technology-enabled.

Controlling the accuracy of language that learners produce by pre-teaching them the forms and structure of language and discourse is not always effective. Neither is

it adequate to just plan practice activities in the hope that our students will eventually transfer skills and knowledge from classroom activities to fluent communication beyond the classroom. The points presented in Table 1 illustrate ways in which teaching speaking needs to take a comprehensive and holistic approach. This approach combines the strengths of direct/controlled and indirect/transfer ways of teaching speaking, and integrates them with supportive metacognitive processes to provide learners with maximum benefits for speaking development. By doing this, we make the processes of speaking and learning to speak more visible to our learners. The objective of speaking instruction is to help learners develop the fluency and accuracy of expert speakers who can convey their message clearly and effectively in socioculturally appropriate ways. Just as discourse analysis and conversation analysis have prompted a renewal of the direct approach (Burns 1998), understandings about how cognitive and learning processes in L2 speaking can be supported can influence the way speaking instruction is carried out for the future.

An issue with speaking instruction is the transience of spoken language. Teachers seldom have a record of what their students say, especially when they are talking in groups and the teachers have to walk around the class to monitor what is said and help students with vocabulary and other things. More importantly, students themselves do not have a record of what they have said. This lack of permanence in learners' speech production hampers opportunities for noticing and analysis, two important processes in learning. It is important therefore to find ways of giving transient spoken language some permanence through the affordances of technology. For example, students can record their speech on their smart phones for review at a later time. The audio recordings can also be uploaded to a common platform used in the school or institution. Equally important is for teachers to make the speaking process visible to learners by giving the learners opportunities to focus on the knowledge and language that support the skills needed to accomplish a task as well as the strategies that may be needed to overcome limitations in their abilities. As video recordings are widely available nowadays on the internet, teachers can look for suitable recordings of expert speakers doing a similar task, such as giving a talk, or participating in an interview or a discussion. These can be used to show learners the way specific language and discourse items can be used to enhance effectiveness. Teachers should also embed within speaking lessons procedures such as pre-task-planning and task repetition which research shows can be beneficial to learners. These pedagogical processes, however, are still rare in many speaking classrooms.

Most teachers would agree that learners can benefit from getting extra time to prepare what they have to say. Preparation is believed to help them be more fluent in their speech, use more appropriate vocabulary and generally become more grammatical in their production. If nothing else, the content of the speech or utterances will be expected to be richer because the students will have time to gather their ideas about what they want to say. This would enable learners to monitor their speech and do self-repairs when necessary to enhance the clarity of their message and the accuracy of their language. Including task repetition as a pedagogical procedure gives learners a second chance to improve their performance after the 'rehearsal' when the task was first carried out. When learners do a speaking task just once, they

typically do not give a complete and polished performance; mistakes are common. By repeating a task, they get a chance to integrate knowledge constructed in the first attempt into the repeat performance. They also get the benefit of evaluating their own performance and becoming more aware of the nature and demands of the task based on their prior experience. In most classrooms, learners do a speaking task before they move on to other language learning tasks for reading and writing. In some situations, speaking is seen as a pre-reading or pre-writing task instead of a learning task in its own right. By asking learners to repeat a task, teachers are highlighting to students that they are not just doing a speaking task but learning how to speak.

The approach presented in this article can be seen in the Teaching Speaking Cycle (TSC) by Goh and Burns (2012). In the TSC, learners develop their speaking through a number of activities and tasks as the teacher guides them systematically through each stage of the cycle. It engages learners, individually and with peers, through planned reflective processes, oral practice with selected types of speaking tasks, activities for noticing and analysing language and discourse, repetition of the speaking task as well as input and feedback from teachers and peers. The seven stages in the TSC consist specifically of the following: focusing learners' attention on speaking, providing input and/or guide planning, conducting speaking tasks, focusing on language/discourse/skills/strategies, repeating speaking tasks, directing learners' reflection on learning and facilitating feedback on learning.

7   Conclusion

To teach speaking is to facilitate our students' understanding of speaking processes and scaffold their development of speaking competence in a systematic and theoretically-principled manner. Speaking instruction should be more than putting learners in pairs and groups and giving them opportunities to communicate with one another in the target language. Giving students opportunities for practice does not automatically translate into learning the skills and language necessary for speaking effectively. Setting up an activity for oral practice is only one aspect of teaching learners how to speak. While the transfer or indirect approach has communicative authenticity, it needs to be enhanced so that our students can benefit directly from scaffolding processes for maximum learning to occur in each lesson. At the same time, we need to exploit the strengths of the direct approach to enable learners to understand the language and discourse as well as skills and strategies that they need in order to gradually become effective L2 speakers. Last but not least, we need to recognise that learning to speak in another language can create a great deal of anxiety for our students. They may also feel discouraged when they do not see improvements or are confused as to how they can manage their own learning processes.

By acknowledging that students need to engage with their learning beyond the cognitive and affective dimensions of speaking, teachers can provide them with the kinds of support that are lacking in many speaking classrooms. An enhanced

conception of speaking pedagogy involves planning of activities which are under-pinned by metacognitive processes and which not only allow learners to practise using oral language but also focus their attention on important linguistic elements and oral communication processes that can further improve their performance. Such an approach can offer rich opportunities for practice while making the development of speaking competence a visible process that learners can increasingly regulate and control. It offers a speaking pedagogy that engages our students' thinking, action and emotions.

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Teaching English for Intercultural Spoken Communication

Jonathan Newton

Abstract Communicative approaches to teaching English can too easily marginalise or ignore culture and intercultural perspectives, assuming (implicitly or explicitly) that learners aspire to a goal of something approaching idealized English native speaker competence. More than ever, this is a problematic assumption; the linguistic landscape for English is rapidly evolving as English becomes a global lingua franca for interaction between people from different first language backgrounds. This shift raises questions as to what communicative norms, if any, should form the basis for teaching and curricula planning, and how learners can be best prepared to communicate via English with other non-native speakers. In response to such issues, in this chapter I propose a set of principles to guide the teaching of English for intercultural spoken communication. I begin by providing a brief outline of the field of intercultural languages education and the origins of the principles. I then outline the theoretical basis and rationale for each principle and suggest ways in which teachers can draw on the principles to cultivate the practice of intercultural communicative language teaching.

Keywords Teaching for intercultural competence • Communicative language teaching • Teaching spoken English

1 Introduction

In this chapter, I propose a set of principles to guide English language teachers who wish to take culture more seriously in their teaching of spoken communication. This is an exciting and non-trivial aspiration. It offers a deliberate agenda for achieving societal aspirations of individual empowerment and harmonious living in

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multicultural communities through education (Portera 2008) and languages education in particular (Byram 2006).

Why principles? Afterall, principles, by their nature, are reductive and abstract. The principles proposed in this chapter, for instance, distil a large and rapidly growing body of research and scholarship on intercultural languages education into less than 150 words of text (see Fig. 1). Teachers, on the other hand, face complexity and diversity. But this seeming dichotomy highlights the value of principles since it is their generality that allows them to be translated into diverse context-sensitive practices by teachers cognisant of the needs and demands of their communities and classrooms. They are, in a word, adaptable.

Let me make a further introductory point; although my focus is spoken communication, the principles apply to other skills areas, not least because skills naturally inter-relate in classroom practice; speaking rarely occurs without listening, for example. Even in classrooms where the skills are timetabled separately, complex embedding of skills is usually inevitable, as when a speaking activity requires reading of prompts and/or writing of speaking notes. So while the focus of the chapter is on achieving intercultural learning goals through teaching spoken communication, the principles are equally relevant to an integrated view of skills teaching.

2   What is Intercultural Language Learning?

Since early work in the 1990s by scholars such as Byram (1992, 1997) and Kramsch (1993), intercultural language learning has grown into a major field of international scholarship within education and applied linguistics (e.g., Díaz 2013; Liddicoat and Scarino 2013; Witte 2014). But what actually is it? The word, 'intercultural,' implies contact between people from different cultural backgrounds, but it carries richer connotations. As Lahdenperä (2000), p. 202 notes:

> [I]t is the quality of cultural encounters that determines whether an interaction is intercultural, i.e. encounters where different actors are conscious that their own cultures place limitations on communication, and thus influence the possibilities for an open and equal relationship.

By implication then, intercultural language learning differs from approaches to teaching language that focus on language without reference to culture, as well as approaches in which teaching about language and culture are separate from each other, and which primarily transmit information about a culture. As Liddicoat et al. (2003) explain:

> Intercultural language learning involves the fusing of language, culture and learning into a single educative approach. It begins with the idea that language, culture and learning are fundamentally interrelated and places this interrelationship at the centre of the learning process…
>
> Intercultural language learning involves developing with learners an understanding of their own language(s) and culture(s) in relation to an additional language and culture. It is a dialogue that allows for reaching a common ground for negotiation to take place, and

where variable points of view are recognized, mediated and accepted (Liddicoat et al. 2003, p. 43).

3 Why Focus on the 'Intercultural?'

In traditional forms of communicative language teaching (CLT), culture is often either invisible or explicitly represented by the cultural norms of, say North America or the United Kingdom. Such assumptions reflect the origins of CLT in theoretical models of communicative competence, which neglect the cultural content of language in use (e.g., Hymes 1974). They also reflect a world in which the English native speaker is the standard to which one aspired. But neither of these assumptions can be sustained in the face of profound changes in the linguistic landscape for English triggered by global mobility and rapid technological change. English is now the international medium for electronic intercultural communication among non-native users of English and is much more widely used as a lingua franca in interaction between people from different first language backgrounds than it is for interaction between native speakers.

This raises important questions as to what communicative norms, if any, should form the basis for teaching and curricula design, and how learners can be best prepared to communicate in English as a lingua franca. These questions suggest the need for a dramatic about-turn in assumptions about how culture is addressed in language teaching. In teaching English for spoken communication for instance, politeness, formality, and appropriateness can no longer be automatically benchmarked against some notional native speaker standards. Instead, language instruction needs to be informed by an intercultural agenda, which seeks not to impose a foreign, hegemonic set of socio-pragmatic norms but to develop in learners sensitivity to different ways of being in and seeing the world, awareness of self and other in communication, and an understanding of how culture is constructed *in*, *around*, and *through* language (Harumi 2002). As I discuss later in the chapter, this intercultural agenda has much in common with, and finds support in, lingua franca approaches to English language teaching (ELT) (Kirkpatrick and Sussex 2012).

4 A Set of Principles to Guide the Teaching of Intercultural Spoken Communication

4.1 Background

The starting point for the content of this chapter is a curriculum renewal process in New Zealand in the 2000s. As part of a major overhaul of the school curriculum for the compulsory education sector[1] in New Zealand, I co-led a team at Victoria

University of Wellington commissioned to carry out research on the value of a more deliberately intercultural approach to language teaching and learning in New Zealand schools. This far reaching curriculum renewal program culminated in the release of *The New Zealand Curriculum* in 2007 (Ministry of Education 2007) and subsequent rollout of the curriculum in schools. The curriculum is interesting from an intercultural perspective for the way it unambiguously presents an explicit intercultural agenda for education. Here, for example, are some of the key competencies identified in the curriculum:

- Participating in local, national and global communities;
- Students knowing who they are, where they come from and where they fit in;
- Relating to others – interacting effectively with a diverse range of people in a variety of contexts; Seeing the world from new perspectives;
- Valuing diversity and respecting others;
- Learning about their own values and those of other peoples and cultures;
- Exploring with empathy, the values of others (Ministry of Education 2007, pp. 12–13).

While these statements present intended outcomes for the *whole* education system and not just learning languages, language teachers will be able to quickly identify the potential of language learning for realizing these kinds of goals. In fact, our research was commissioned to help teachers do just this through developing a framework to guide interculturally informed language teaching. The project involved reviewing the international literature in the field, interviewing teachers and students, and observing a range of language classes in action. The outcome was a report – Newton et al. (2010) – which proposed a framework of six principles to guide languages education in New Zealand schools (See Appendix). We coined the term *intercultural communicative language teaching* or 'iCLT' for this framework of principles.

In the years since this 2010 framework of principles was published, I have reflected on it in relation to my own teaching, related it to new research and scholarship in the field, and discussed it with intercultural scholars, teachers and teacher educators. While the framework has been largely affirmed through this input, the principles warranted reworking to address three issues. First, they needed more direct, less abstract wording to make them easily translatable into practice by teachers. Second, they needed re-sequencing under headings that distinguished the three different areas of pedagogy they cover. Third, an additional principle was needed to capture the importance of putting intercultural competence to work outside the classroom (see principle 3d below). With these goals in mind, I have reworked the iCLT principles into a form that I hope improves their currency and provides a useful guide for English language teachers interested in taking a stronger intercultural stance in their teaching of spoken communication. The re-visioned principles, which are presented in Fig. 1 are expanded on through the remainder of this chapter.

I now discuss each principle in turn, establishing the theoretical providence for the principles and offering practical classroom applications.

Principle 1. Mine the social context of learning
      a. Use culturally responsive pedagogies to make the most of diversity in the classroom, school and community by recognizing and connecting to learners' home knowledge, languages and practices.
      b. Expose learners to the diversity of world Englishes and raise awareness of English as an international language.

Principle 2. Focus on intercultural learning objectives
    Foster and affirm intercultural learning achievements in tandem with linguistic and communicative achievements.

Principle 3. Adopt Intercultural classroom practices
  Provide opportunities for learners to:
      a. engage with culture in and around language from the beginning;
      b. interact and communicate in the language;
      c. explore, reflect on, compare and connect experiences, knowledge and understandings;
      d. put learning into practice beyond the classroom, making choices and acting in interculturally informed ways.

Fig. 1 The iCLT Principles 're-visioned' for teaching intercultural spoken communication

4.2 Principle 1. Mine the Social Context of Learning

(a) *Use Culturally Responsive Pedagogies to Make the Most of Diversity in the Classroom, School and Community by Recognizing and Connecting to Learners' Home Knowledge, Languages and Practices*

Teaching a language interculturally entails first and foremost recognizing and embracing diversity in the classroom, especially as it relates to learners' cultural and linguistic backgrounds (e.g., Alton-Lee 2003; Bishop and Berryman 2006); 'Charity begins at home' as it were. Research on teaching for diverse learners highlights the effectiveness of instructional practices that match the culturally shaped ways of knowing that learners bring to the classroom. A characteristic of quality teaching for diverse students identified in a best evidence synthesis (Alton-Lee 2003, p.3) is that it creates effective links between school and other cultural contexts in which students are socialized. Elaborating on this point, Alton-Lee highlights two further aspects of effective diversity education:

- Student diversity is utilized effectively as a pedagogical resource.
- Quality teaching respects and affirms cultural identity (including gender identity) and optimises educational opportunities. (ibid.)

These points align nicely with intercultural language teaching. English language teachers are responsible for managing not only how culture is represented in inner circle English speaking countries (Kachru 1982), but also to show appreciation for the cultural worlds students bring with them into the classroom. To this end, diversity, where it exists in the EFL classroom, provides a rich resource to be explored and learnt about as part of language learning. Engaging with this diversity provides a way of developing a cognitive capacity fundamental to intercultural competence,

namely 'knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction' (Byram 2006, p. 24). This is exemplified in Classroom Application 1.

Classroom Application 1: Classroom Surveys
One of the simplest and most effective ways to apply this principle to teaching spoken communication, especially in heterogeneous classes, is to involve learners in carrying out classroom surveys or interviews with each other. These can focus on daily life themes through which learners can explore the diversity of ways of being and doing in and beyond their local communities. For example, topics such as family size, household structure and mealtime rituals all provide opportunities for younger learners in particular to use English to talk about themselves and learn about others. Where necessary or appropriate, learners can also be encouraged to draw on their primary language(s) in, for example, the process of constructing survey content or mind mapping their own experience of the chosen topic. The shared autobiographical narration generated in surveys and interviews offers a way for learners to render conscious their tacit knowledge and assumptions about self and others.

In more homogenous classrooms typical of EFL settings, similar techniques can be used to explore the diversity often found within even an apparently homogenous classroom and its associated community.

A likely benefit of such an approach is improved motivation to learn. As Dörnyei (2001a) argues, instruction that targets sociocultural values relevant to the setting of instruction (e.g., cultural beliefs about learning) *mediates* achievement, cognition and behaviour (p. 32). Dörnyei (2001b) proposed three instructional strategies relevant to this claim:

- Develop a collaborative relationship with the student's parents
- Promote the development of group cohesiveness
- Promote 'integrative' values by encouraging a positive and open-minded disposition towards the L2 [second language] and its speakers, and towards foreignness in general.

The third of these points provides a natural link to part (b) of Principle 1, which we shall now turn to.

(b) *Expose Learners to the Diversity of World Englishes and Raise Awareness of English as an International Language/Lingua Franca*

Scholarship on lingua franca English and the overlapping (and sometimes interchangeable) construct of English as an international language (EIL) highlights the

fact that for the majority of English language learners their use of English beyond the classroom with be with other non-native users of English. In a discussion of lingua franca English in Asia, Kirkpatrick (2012) so effectively sums up the implications of EIL for English language education in this context that they are worth quoting in full here:

  (I) The goal of the approach is not for learners to acquire native speaker proficiency and to sound like native speakers, but to enable them to use English successfully in lingua franca contexts; they will naturally sound like multilinguals;

 (II) The content of the curriculum needs to include topics of regional and local cultures that are relevant for lingua franca users in these contexts; […]

(III) The curriculum must be therefore be designed to allow students to be able to engage critically in discussions about their own cultures and cultural values and interests in English;

(IV) The curriculum needs to include listening materials that familiarize students with the speech styles and pronunciation of their fellow Asian multilingual users of English as a lingua franca (Kirkpatrick 2012, p. 40).

Kirkpatrick also argues that the most appropriate English teachers for a lingua franca approach are suitably trained and proficient local multilinguals since such teachers are not only ideal *role* models for their students but also appropriate *linguistic* models (ibid). Kirkpatrick's additional recommendation that such teachers need to be knowledgeable about regional cultures and literatures is pivotal also for teachers who wish to adopt an intercultural stance. Such knowledge provides the basis for offering comparative cultural information and input and for modelling intercultural competence.

Classroom Application 2: Telecollaboration

Electronically-mediated communication offers learners ever-expanding opportunities to interact in the virtual classroom with what Witte (2014) refers to as 'authentic cultural others.' and so to be exposed to a range of world Englishes. The term 'authentic cultural others' neatly challenges the assumption that ideal interaction is always with native speakers of English. Tandem learning partnerships[2] are typically set up between two classes of learners who each speak as a native language the language the other wants to learn. But telecollaboration partnerships can also offer motivating opportunities for learners in culturally homogenous classrooms to interact in English with learners in a similarly homogenous learning context elsewhere in the world. The potential for telecollaboration to be used in this way is currently underutilized.

4.3   Principle 2. Focus on Intercultural Learning Objectives

4.3.1   Foster and Affirm Intercultural Learning Achievements in Tandem with Linguistic and Communicative Achievements

Principle 2 challenges the often implicit benchmarking of learner proficiency or progress against notional native-speaker competence. It proposes instead that intercultural competence provides a more realistic goal of English language instruction. One of the more obvious and intractable problems with the native speaker model is that it is an impossible target for language learners (Kramsch 1997, 2006; Marx 2002; Norton 2000). Furthermore, the goal of native speaker competence assumes an undesirable assimilationist goal, encouraging the learner to separate from his/her own culture and to adopt a new sociocultural identity (Byram 1997; Marx 2002).

The assumption that native speakers are models for cultural competence is also misguided, according to Byram (2003), because no native speaker is an authority on their culture, in the same way that no individual is a perfect linguistic model (because of variations in class, region, register, and so on). The implication of these points is that language learners should be encouraged to critically analyse whatever they observe in native-speaker interactions and to make informed choices about what behaviour is an appropriate model to adopt or adapt.

Another reason for not taking native-speaker norms (linguistic or cultural) as preferred models is that there is always more to learn, because cultures and languages are always changing. This reinforces the notion that schools need to prepare learners for change and life-long learning (Council of Europe 2001, p. 5). A shift in emphasis from native-speaker competence to intercultural competence broadens the goals of instruction to include the knowledge, skills, awareness, and attitudes, which enable learners to "meet the challenges of communication across language and cultural boundaries" (ibid, p. xii). Thus, intercultural learning focuses not only on knowledge *about* a second language culture, but also on other less tangible, more subjective competencies such as those captured in Byram's (1997) model of intercultural communicative competence. In broad terms, these competencies are multidimensional, including skills (such as respectful engagement with people from different cultures and using the target language appropriately in a range of contexts), understands (of one's own cultural roots and the values and beliefs of others and their ways of living), awareness (of self in interaction and one's prejudices and stereotypes), and attitudes (such as attitudes towards cultural difference and ambiguity in communication).

To commit to these kinds of intercultural outcomes has far-reaching consequences for pedagogy. It requires, for instance, that teachers develop their own skills in navigating intercultural challenges and that they provide expertise and guidance in drawing learners' attention towards intercultural dimensions of communication. They must manage the sometimes fraught process of making cultural contrasts and comparisons such as those suggested in Classroom Application 2 below. A shift to intercultural learning also has profound implications for assessing

spoken communication which lie beyond the scope of this chapter. Readers interested in this area are encouraged to refer to the work of scholars such as Byram (2000), Dervin (2010), and Witte (2014)).

Classroom Application 3

Consider what kind of intercultural achievements might be affirmed in the survey task outlined in Classroom Application 1 or the telecollaboration in Classroom Application 2. These achievements might include learning about the cultural practices and world views of others, but also discovering how one's own taken-for-granted views and practices are perceived as perhaps surprising or unusual to others, and why. Intercultural learning achievements might also include noticing the different ways one's interlocutor in telecollaboration manages the interpersonal dimensions of interacting in English (including aspects of non-verbal communication) and then reflecting on how one responded and felt about the interaction. It is more than a truism to note that the teacher plays an important role in guiding learners through the reflective processes that lead to these intercultural achievements.

4.4 Principle 3. Adopt Intercultural Classroom Practices

4.4.1 Provide Opportunities for Learners to Engage with Culture in and Around Language From the Beginning

Teaching intercultural spoken communication brings the connectedness of culture and language into focus. The language–culture nexus is seen in the intricate ways that language and culture co-construct each other (Kramsch 2004). A simple example of co-construction can be seen in the terms 'mate' or 'bro' widely used in colloquial New Zealand English in interactions between male interlocutors who are only passing acquaintances and not related. On the one hand, these terms *reflect* cultural values of camaraderie and egalitarianism located in New Zealand's sociocultural history. On the other hand, to the extent that the terms remain in common parlance, they *reconstruct* and *maintain* the cultural values with which they are associated. As Kramsch (1993) expresses it, 'Every time we speak we perform a cultural act.' The implications of this point for language learning are well summed up by Liddicoat (2004), p. 17:

> Every message a human being communicates through language is communicated in a cultural context. Cultures shape the ways language is structured and the ways in which language is used. A language learner who has learnt only the grammar and vocabulary of a language is, therefore, not well equipped to communicate in that language.

Given the permeation of culture through our everyday lives and interactions one might wonder if there really is any other way to teach spoken communication but interculturally! An intercultural approach rejects the teaching of culture as a sepa-

rate strand, as if culture can be set apart from communicative proficiency. Indeed, I would argue that adopting an intercultural approach to teaching communication promotes a fuller and truer realization of the nature of communication by raising learners' awareness of the implicit messages conveyed in their choice of linguistic forms and communication strategies.

Principle 3(a) concludes with the words 'from the beginning,' implying that teachers should be guiding learners' conceptualizations of culture from the beginning of the language learning process. Why? The first and most obvious reason is that the simplest forms of interactions such as greeting others and introducing ourselves are replete with culturally coded messages. Intercultural learning is therefore a necessary part of beginning to learn to communicate in a second language. Other topics appropriate for the beginning stages of learning and ripe for intercultural exploration include the coding of family relationships, the naming of rooms in a house, and expressions of politeness and respect. A second reason is that, as Liddicoat et al. (2003) have pointed out, delaying attention to interculturality simply opens up space for uninformed cultural learning. In Dellit's (2005) words, "ignoring culture does not leave a vacant cultural space which can be filled in later. Rather, it leads to a cultural space which is filled in by uninformed and unanalysed assumptions" (p. 7). In other words, failing to address culture in the early stages of language learning increases the risk of stereotyping and prejudice.

Classroom Application 4: The Concept of 'You'

Learning how to address people appropriately in a second language can be challenging because of the complex dimensions of culture located in terms of address. In English the word 'You' is not strongly marked for status or politeness and so can be used quite freely with a range of people in conversation. However, in many of the home languages of English learners this is not the case, and in fact often very subtle but culturally important information is conveyed in the form of 'you' one chooses to use.

For this reason, communication tasks focusing on the different ways that forms of address and personal reference are expressed in English and in other languages that learners bring to the classroom provide a rich opportunity for intercultural learning. Such tasks require learners to think about social relationships and how these are formally and informally expressed in different languages and cultures. This often also leads to discussion of body language and gestures associated with addressing people with whom you have different kinds of relationships.

For beginning classes terms of address are an ideal topic for intercultural language learning. More advanced classes can also revisit this topic since typically in these classes learners have developed greater sensitivity to the cultural and linguistic realizations of politeness in the target language.

4.4.2 Principles 3(b): Provide Opportunities for Learners to Interact and Communicate in the Language

From an intercultural perspective, learners can experience culture first through *the way* communication proceeds, and secondly through *the content* of what is discussed or written about. Interaction, therefore, is not simply a tool for developing fluency; it provides opportunities for learners to confront their culturally constructed worlds and cultural assumptions, and so to learn more about themselves, and through this learning to be more receptive to the lives of others. The teacher can approach interaction in two ways.

First, focusing on *the way* communication proceeds, the teacher can use any interaction involving the target language and/or culture as an opportunity to explore linguistic and cultural boundaries, and to engender awareness of the learner's own as well as the other's ways of communicating and maintaining relationships, and of dealing with cross-cultural misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. Focusing secondly on t*he content* of communication, the teacher can use classroom interaction to explore the cultural worlds, beliefs, values, and attitudes of others through topics which provide opportunities for explicit discussion of cultural comparisons. The survey activities in Classroom Applications (1) and (4) do just this.

Classroom Application 5: How We Spend Our Time
In this activity learners communicate about plans for the immediate future and their obligations and responsibilities.

Step 1. Students fill in a table containing a week's schedule with their usual weekly activities, routines, duties and commitments, using English as much as possible.

Step 2. '**You**' Students compare schedules with other students. Results are reported to the class, again using English as much as possible

Step 3. '**They**' Students communicate with peers in another country via Tandem Learning partnerships or some other form of telecollaboration and share details of weekly schedules. Results are collated on a new schedule.

Step 4. Comparison Students compare the two cultural sets, identifying shared interests as well as unique activities in each cultural set.

A language focus could include:

- Superlative forms of adjectives (Who has the busiest timetable?)
- Formulaic expressions of refusing, accepting, agreeing
- Vocabulary like household tasks, routine duties
- Question forms

4.4.3   Principle 3(c): Provide Opportunities for Learners to Explore, Reflect on, Compare and Connect Experiences, Knowledge and Understandings

Culture encompasses much more than the traditional arts, conventional practices, institutions and objectively describable, visible manifestations of people's lives. Using the metaphor of an iceberg (Weaver 1993), these dimensions of culture make up the small, visible segment of the iceberg above the surface. Beneath the surface lies a much larger, less visible part of culture made up of values, beliefs, and thought patterns. Kramsch (1993) gives the tangible example of the practice of keeping an office door closed in Germany, but open in America. As she explains, underlying this visible display of culture lie less visible values of friendliness (open door) and order and respect (closed door). But without an intercultural perspective in play, to an American visitor, the closed door to a German office might well be interpreted as a sign of unfriendliness, while a German visitor to America could interpret the open door as a sign of disorder and lack of respect (p. 209). In these cases, what is needed is intercultural understanding of how our cultural identity provides a lens through which we view and interpret other cultural ways of being and doing.

Similarly, in spoken communication, culture is manifest in language in obvious ways, such as in overt politeness forms (e.g., Japanese forms of address). But it is also deeply embedded in language in less obvious ways such as the patterns and tolerability of various forms of conversational feedback and back channelling, the degree of tolerance for overlapping speech and interruptions, the degree of indirectness in speech acts such as requests and refusals, and a vast number of other communicative subtleties displayed in the everyday use of language. For this reason, teaching that focuses largely on describing overt expressions of culture in spoken communication misses a large portion of cultural experience. As Ingram and O'Neill (2001) point out, "knowledge alone leaves learners ensconced in their own culture looking out at the other culture and observing its differences (often judgmentally) – rather like walking through a museum" (p. 14). So to teach spoken communication interculturally requires a shift from *transmission* of objective cultural knowledge to providing learners with opportunities to *explore* their first-hand communicative experience of both visible and invisible culture. Teachers play a pivotal role of guiding learners as they construct knowledge through reflection on experience (Renandya 2012). Factual information about communicative norms has its place so long as this information is interrogated by learners so as to reveal insights and understanding about the lived experience of culture. In sum, active construction of meaning and critical enquiry are essential to teaching communication interculturally.

As learners are guided through these experiential learning processes, they are led to understand that culture learning is not simply a matter of accruing information and facts. Instead, it involves observing and analysing social processes and their outcomes so as to develop more critical understanding of their own and other societies, and awareness of what constitutes culture and how it affects everybody's behaviour and use of language. These processes challenge cultural stereotyping, which exoticises and essentializes members of another culture. In its place, are opportunities

to cultivate empathetic and self-aware perceptions and attitudes (Kramsch 2006, p. 107). The classroom application below (5) offers one way to begin this process of cultivating cultural self-awareness.

> **Classroom Application 6: We are not the Same**
> The German website '*The Art of Being a German*'[1] offers the following prompt questions to encourage learners to reflect on their identity and intercultural values. I have adapted them to suit any national or cultural context.
>
> - What virtues are associated with my home culture?
> - What do I have in common with other members of my home culture/ nation?
> - What do I not have in common with other members of my home culture/ nation
> - What does the word 'home' mean to me?
> - What do other nations think of my home culture/nation?
> - What is it to be typically [name of my nationality]?
> - When is one a [name of my nationality]?
> - What is typical Korean, Japanese, German etc.?

Comparing and reflecting are such important processes in intercultural learning that I shall return to them again in the conclusions to this chapter.

4.4.4   Principle 3(d): Provide Opportunities for Learners to put Learning Into Practice Beyond the Classroom, Making Choices and Acting in Interculturally Informed Ways

We now come to the final principle, which involves practising intercultural competencies. Opportunities to interact and communicate in English beyond the classroom are not only intrinsic to the process of becoming proficient in spoken communicative English, they are the very purpose for which learners seek to develop this proficiency. This is equally true for the process of acquiring intercultural communicative competence; interaction provides the raw material for deepening intercultural understanding and for putting intercultural competencies into practice. This practice, taken into the world beyond the classroom contributes to a key aim of education for intercultural citizenship, described by Byram (2006) as "taking action through involvement with people of other societies and liberating oneself and others from assumptions and ways of being and doing which are oppressive or constraining" (p. 18). Here, we see a powerful statement of the positive contribution English language teaching committed to intercultural values can make to our world. This

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[1] http://diekunstdeutscherzusein.wortbildner.de/page23/page23.html

same vision finds expression in many national curricula, and in the kinds of educational outcomes of schooling discussed earlier in the chapter such as 'participating in local, national and global communities' (Ministry of Education 2007).

5   Conclusions

Comparing languages and cultures is a fundamental process in intercultural language learning as seen in the classroom applications discussed in this chapter. In multicultural classrooms or through telecollaboration with other classrooms, comparisons and connections can be multi-faceted as learners explore and share each other's cultures while cooperatively exploring new cultures beyond the classroom associated with English. Exploration of this kind promotes an 'inner sense of the equality of cultures, an increased understanding of [one's] own and other people's cultures, and a positive interest in how cultures both connect and differ' (Tomlinson 2001). In a practical guide to integrating culture in language instruction, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) suggest that teachers begin and end each activity 'in the minds of the learners,' through such activities as encouraging them to think about an experience in their own culture, before providing them with a similar one in another culture, or 'getting [learners] to "translate" a new experience in another culture into an equivalent experience in their own culture' (p. 4). Maintaining this kind of awareness of culture is a primary goal of intercultural language learning and is ideally suited to teaching spoken communication.

It is important to emphasise that comparison of a target culture with one's own culture is *not* an end in itself. Instead, it is a process which is designed to facilitate movement by the learner into what is referred to in the intercultural literature as 'a third place' (Kramsch 1993). This third place is an intercultural position between cultures, a position from which the learner can negotiate differences and interact comfortably across cultures by drawing on "a reflective capacity to deal with cultural differences and to modify behaviour when needed" (Dellit 2005, p. 17).

Comparing cultures is a practical focus for language teaching. It aims to allow learners to develop more sophisticated concepts of culture and helps to undermine notions of the immutability of cultural values and cross-cultural prejudices. Instruction focused on raising cultural awareness and making connections has the ultimate goal of producing what Byram (2006), p. 4 calls "intercultural speakers" – that is, people who have "the ability to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries" (Byram 1997, p. 7).

What is the teacher's role in these intercultural learning processes? Evidence from the literature makes it clear that learners' interpretations of their intercultural experience need to be addressed explicitly and openly by the teacher rather than being left to take care of themselves through exposure and experience alone. Indeed, some research evidence suggests that, without appropriate guidance, encounters with other cultures through language learning can have an inconclusive, or worse, a

negative effect on cross-cultural attitudes (Ingram and O'Neill 2001, 2002; see also O'Dowd, 2003; Ware 2005 on cultural misunderstandings in computer-mediated cross-cultural encounters between language students).

Let me conclude with two final points about teaching interculturally. First, for the communicatively oriented language teacher, teaching interculturally does not require a new method or approach. What it does require is for teachers to build an explicit focus on interculturality into the communicative experiences available to learners. Even factual cultural knowledge can be approached interculturally, although obviously it is when learners have opportunities to interact in the language that intercultural learning flourishes. It follows then that an intercultural stance on teaching spoken communication can take many forms. It influences how you teach (e.g., encouraging learners to explore their intercultural experiences), what you teach (e.g., a focus on lived experience and critical reflection on stereotypes), and what learning outcomes are valued (e.g., showing intercultural awareness as well as communicative fluency).

My second and concluding point returns us to the teacher; intercultural teaching relies on an intercultural teacher who models and indeed embodies intercultural values such as curiosity and openness and a willingness to learn alongside the learner.

Notes

1. Years 1–13 of schooling
2. www.tandemexchange.com/en/

Appendix: The Six Principles for Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching (iCLT) (Newton et al. 2010)

Intercultural communicative language teaching and learning (iCLT):

1. Integrates language and culture from the beginning;
2. Engages learners in genuine social interaction;
3. Encourages and develops an exploratory and reflective approach to culture and culture-in-language;
4. Fosters explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures;
5. Acknowledges and responds appropriately to diverse learners and learning contexts;
6. Emphasizes intercultural communicative competence rather than native-speaker competence.

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Teaching Writing

Yin Ling Cheung

Abstract Writing is a complex activity. Understanding this complexity is the key to effective teaching of writing. In this chapter, I will present a brief historical overview of various approaches to teaching writing, including the controlled approach, process approach, and genre approach. Essential to implementing these approaches is understanding the recursive nature of the writing process and knowing what constitutes competent writing. Indeed, writing competence encompasses not only word choices, sentence variations, punctuation choices, and other linguistic tools for cohesion and coherence, but also ways to structure and develop arguments at the micro and macro levels. It is important to adopt a writing pedagogy that explicitly trains students in the kinds of thinking processes that are conducive to good writing. To this end, this chapter presents the socio-cognitive approach to teaching writing. I will discuss guiding principles and pedagogical implications of the approach. I will also highlight strategies for enhancing the quality of second language writing, drawing upon insights from the literature of writing research.

Keywords Second language writing • Recursive nature • Cohesion and coherence • Thinking processes • Macro-rhetorical goal • Socio-cognitive approach

1   Introduction

When I teach the Second Language Academic Writing course to English majors at my university, I often learn from my pre-service student teachers that they are unaware of the various approaches to teaching English-as-a-second-language writing. This is not surprising perhaps, as many pre-service teachers are trained as English Language teachers, rather than writing teachers (Cheung 2011; Lee 2008). Many of us learn how to teach writing through imitating our favourite writing teachers, or through mentorship by senior colleagues in our workplace. Nevertheless, it

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may be beneficial for teachers to have a systematic understanding of different approaches to teaching academic writing.

There have been paradigm shifts in approaches to teaching academic writing over the last few decades (Paltridge et al. 2009). From the mid-1940s to mid-1960s, controlled composition was practiced widely in writing classes. Such a teaching approach aims to improve the accuracy of students' written works, based on a behaviorist view that repetition and imitation will lead to habit formation (e.g., writing grammatically correct sentences). An example of controlled composition is for teachers to give sample sentences of a chosen structure, and then students are tasked to write a few sentences following that pattern. Later in the mid-1960s, English Language teachers realized that students needed to focus not only on grammatical accuracy of the sentences they produced but also the functions of writing. Thus, teachers adopted a rhetorical function approach where they shifted the teaching focus from sentence level accuracy to a discourse level that emphasized the purposes of writing such as description, comparison, and contrast. Since the 1970s, the process approach to writing has gained popularity. Instead of focusing primarily on the form/correctness of the writing, teachers now encourage students to pay attention to macro-level communicative purposes. The aim of the process approach is to let the students' ideas decide the form of a piece of writing (Silva 1990).

Given that writing is socially-situated in nature, yet another approach to writing instruction was introduced to help students acquire the genres that they needed to master in order to succeed in writing about specific topics. Under this genre approach, through reading model texts from a subject area and guided practice, students master the language, text structure, and discourse practices for specific kinds of communication. We should take note that understanding the genre approach depends on genre traditions, such as English for Specific Purposes (UK), New Rhetoric (USA), and Systemic Functional Linguistics (Australia). These three genre traditions differ in both form and function (Hyon 1996).

Despite the variety of writing approaches that teachers have developed and adopted in their classrooms, a common underlying objective is to make sure that students recognize that they write in order to accomplish certain deliberate functions. Against this background, this chapter will present a practical approach to teaching writing. This approach manifests a socio-cognitive pedagogy that explicitly trains students in key thinking processes that are conducive to developing and expressing ideas while considering their audience. Drawing upon insights from the literature of second language writing research, I will discuss guiding principles and pedagogical implications of the approach. I will also highlight basic but effective strategies for enhancing the quality of second language writing.

2 Second Language Writing

What makes a successful essay? In a study on various ways writers can write good essays, Crossley et al. (2014) suggest that "Successful writing cannot be defined simply through a single set of predefined features. Rather, successful writing has

multiple profiles" (p. 184). Specifically, some successful writers compose longer essays (Crossley et al. 2011) with more infrequent vocabulary (McNamara et al. 2013), and fewer grammatical, spelling, and punctuation errors (Ferrari et al. 1998). Other successful writers produce essays with more syntactically complex sentences (Crossley et al. 2011) and with a better control of text cohesion (Crossley et al. 2014). Hence, besides a basic goal to write texts accurately, free of grammatical errors, student authors should consider stylistic factors such as choice of words, sentence complexity, text cohesion, and length of their essays.

In fact, achieving good composition is a complex and difficult task for both native speakers and non-native speakers of English. Even if one writes in one's own language, discipline is requisite for precision and form; hence going through multiple revisions of drafts is the norm rather than exception. This difficulty to achieve the mastery of words, even if one is familiar with these words, was pointed out by Widdowson (1983), p. 34:

> For the moment let us note that getting the better of words in writing is commonly a very hard struggle. And I am thinking now of words which are in one's own language. The struggle is all the greater when they are not.

In order to teach writing effectively, teachers must therefore be explicitly cognizant of the skills and processes that are involved. This view treats writing as a profession, a qualification to be attained with discipline and hard work, rather than an innate ability or subconscious habit. Indeed, "even in one's native language, learning to write is something like learning a second language … No one is a 'native speaker' of writing. For the most part, everyone learns to write at school" (Leki 1992, p. 10). In other words, we need to let students know that few authors possess an in-born 'native' command of writing English as a lingua franca (Canagarajah 2006). If students want to write well, they need to learn the skills explicitly and adopt deliberate strategies to enhance their writing competence.

In what follows, I will outline some of the skills that are basic to competence in writing. I will also discuss the non-linear process of academic writing that teachers can introduce to students in writing classrooms to raise their awareness of how writing develops. Then, I will suggest some practical methods for enhancing students' writing performance in second language classes.

3   Writing Competence

Writing competence is about composing an effective piece of written work to fulfill a specific purpose. For example, when writing an entertaining and engaging story, students adopt a narrative style and rhetorical moves in order to fulfill the requirements of a specialized context (e.g., classroom practice, take-home assignment, or in-class examination). Once students are aware of the importance of the purpose, audience, and context of the writing, they can employ the following basic academic discourse skills to achieve effective implementation.

3.1 Paraphrase and Direct Quotation

Paraphrase is to present an original writer's ideas with different word choices and rearrangements of word/sentence order from an original text. Direct quotation is used when students want to retain the original wordings and form of the quoted texts. Students should be explicitly taught that the paraphrased portions must be adequate when they paraphrase. In other words, the meaning conveyed by the original author must be captured in essence and not distorted. Whenever students paraphrase or directly cite an original text, they need to acknowledge the original source both in the body of the essay and the reference list. Students should not only include the last name of the author and the year of the publication, but also the page number(s) if available. They should put direct quotation marks around the original texts. Students need to be explicitly taught that they cite or paraphrase for good reasons, such as to put their paper in a particular context, to define key terms to establish common ground between the reader and writer, to back up their own position, or to substantiate that opinions on a particular topic are divided so as to set the stage for further arguments.

3.2 Lexical Variety

Lexical variety is an important part of successful writing because it can make an essay appear sophisticated and interesting. Lexical variety refers to "interesting word choice or effective use of vocabulary in writing" (Ferris 2014, p. 89). Texts with greater lexical variety tend to score higher and leave a better impression with the readers. Students can consult a built-in thesaurus and dictionary in word processing software, consider the sentence context, and maintain a consistent level of formality if they want to improve lexical variety in their writing (Ferris 2014, pp. 100–103). However, lexical variety alone is insufficient for creating a good essay. Other aspects such as content, development of ideas, quality of argumentation, correct use of grammar, and mechanics are equally important.

3.3 Passive Voice

Teachers typically advise students against the passive voice in writing and advocate a rather purist use of the active voice. In academic writing, however, the passive voice can be preferred at least for two reasons. First, appropriate use of the passive voice can enable writers to focus on a specific object for its importance, away from the actors who play a secondary role only. Ferris (2014) gave a good example to illustrate this point. "Conducted simultaneously in labs on four different continents,

the experiment yielded results with international significance" (p. 175). In this example, the writer draws the reader's attention to the experiment as a cornerstone of noteworthy results, independent of the actors who carried it out. A second reason for the use of the passive voice is to let writers deliberately distance themselves from their statements. By downplaying their identities through the passive voice, they could increase the statements' objectivity, which is again often appropriate in scientific writing.

3.4 Thinking Processes: Information Focused Approach vs. Knowledge Transformation Approach

The information-focused approach vs. the knowledge transformation approach to writing explains differences in the thinking processes used by novice vs. experienced writers (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987) during different stages of their compositions. The information-focused approach is often used by novice writers, who have a tendency to note down all the facts and information they have about a topic, without establishing a focused macro rhetorical goal before they start to write. The macro rhetorical goal is something that a writer wants to achieve in his/her essay overall (Chandrasegaran and Schaetzel 2004, p. 46). It is a writer's intention to perform a series of speech acts to influence the reader into thinking favourably of the writer's thesis. It persuades the reader into agreeing that the thesis has been supported by the arguments and explanations put forth in the essay. We should let students know that the macro rhetorical goal is not the same as the thesis itself. The thesis refers to the main topic of the essay only.

The information-focused approach vs. the knowledge transformation approach differentiates the novice and experienced writers throughout different stages of the composition, from planning, to organizing, to writing/revising their essays. In the planning stage, novice writers tend to ask themselves: What they know about the topic, whether they have sufficient points for inclusion into the essay, where they can find more information, or how to make a piece of information relevant to the essay topic. On the contrary, experienced writers are more concerned about the rhetorical situation (i.e., purpose, audience, and context) in writing their particular piece. They think carefully about what information and rhetorical moves will best fit the rhetorical situation. This is to say, they consider and rank different pieces of information or moves in how they may help to achieve the macro rhetorical goal, and use this strategic thinking to guide the inclusion or rejection of materials.

In the organization stage, novice writers tend to present information in a chronological order. In contrast, experienced writers tend to consider how different organization of the information helps them fulfill their rhetorical goal. They make sure that the organization structure satisfies the rhetorical situation. They anticipate what the reader would like to know in their essays, or their possible agreement/disagreement

with certain parts of the writing. In other words, in the writing process, they take into account proactively the reader's expectations and reactions.

In the writing/revising stage, novice writers often have difficulty in deciding what to say next (in the next sentence). They tend to re-read the previous sentence/ clause before they decide how to proceed. They are usually too concerned about mistakes in grammar and spelling. Hence, they tend to use simple vocabulary and sentence structures. In general, they are likely to be preoccupied with the micro-level issues of writing. On the contrary, experienced writers, when deciding what to say next, refer to the macro rhetorical goal, which is at a strategic level that anticipates the reader's expectations and possible agreement/disagreement. They ensure that the organization and content will help them achieve the goal, and they choose words that are suitable for the overall rhetorical situation. They tend to re-organize or re-write texts in larger units (e.g., paragraphs) guided again by the macro rhetorical goal.

It should be noted that writers exhibit different thinking processes in the information-focused approach and the knowledge transformation approach to writing. In practice, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to observe how "novice writers make the cognitive transition to a knowledge transforming model, nor do they spell out whether the process is the same for all learners" (Hyland 2011, p. 19). Depending on the genres, writers, even experienced ones, make use of the information-focused approach simply because it is more suitable, e.g., when they write information reports or entries in an encyclopedia. In this kind of writing, the author's job is to explicate and pass on the information they know about their topics.

3.5   Structuring and Developing Argument at the Macro and Micro Levels

From the previous section, we learn that an awareness to include information that suits the macro-rhetorical goal can help us structure and develop arguments at the broad discourse level of an essay. Apart from developing argument at the macro level, the Toulmin Model of Argumentation sheds light on how to structure arguments at the micro level. The elements in this model of argumentation include (i) claim – a statement that the arguer wants to show is true; (ii) data – the evidence offered in support of the claim; (iii) warrant – an assumption that underlies the claim; (iv) backing – evidence for the warrant; (v) qualifier – something which is added that in some way limits the applicability of scope of the claim; and (vi) reservation – a statement or a situation which, if true, renders the claim invalid (Toulmin 1958). Teachers need to explicitly teach students how to structure and develop arguments at both the macro and micro levels of their essays.

4   Writing Process

Traditionally, many writing teachers explicate the writing process as a linear process (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). For example, Paltridge et al. (2009) identifies four distinct sub-processes in writing. First, in the conceptualizing stage, writers generate and select ideas that they can use in their writing, and organize the ideas in a neat way (e.g., an essay must have an introduction, body, and a conclusion). The second sub-process is called formulating, which means putting ideas into sentences. The third sub-process is revising, where writers rewrite and improve the essays. The revisions can be related to the content, grammar, and mechanics. The fourth sub-process is reading. Writers read the essay's instruction. They read to gather information for the essay topic. They re-read their writing to make sure that they are answering the essay's prompts. The linear process model may "underconceptualize and oversimplify" the writing process (Emig 1971, p. 98). This oversimplification may be problematic because it can be inflexible and limits the freedom to explore, whereas writing in practice could be an unstructured process of self-discovery.

More recently, some writing scholars suggest that writing is a recursive, non-linear activity. Clark and Ivanič's (1991) work highlights that both novice and experienced writers go through various stages of the writing process several times and may not follow a fixed and particular order. Clark and Ivanič (1991) identify 16 (equally important and inter-related) stages of the writing process, involving the following: accumulating knowledge and opinions (e.g., doing the necessary reading to gather information about a particular topic, or gathering primary data through surveys and interviews to find out the participants' opinions on a particular topic); deciding how to take responsibility: whether to mask or declare the writer's own position (e.g., using first person pronouns vs. passive constructions in presenting the writer's view); analyzing the assignment (e.g., the question prompt and the instruction words, and the purpose of writing the assignment); planning (e.g., information to be included in the assignment so as to achieve the macro-rhetorical goal of the paper); establishing goals and purposes (e.g., setting the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay, and the goal of each paragraph); establishing the writer identity (e.g., showing the writer's commitment to a particular position/argument); drafting (e.g., putting together the ideas to construct an argument); considering constraints of time and space (e.g., deadline of submission of work and the word limit); formulating the writer's own ideas (e.g., the writer's own opinion on that particular topic); experiencing panic, pain, and anguish (e.g., going through the complicated and difficult process of writing); experiencing pleasure and satisfaction (e.g., finishing the assignment, and learning something new from the writing experience); revising (e.g., making sure that the arguments are persuasive, and the macro-rhetorical goal is achieved); considering the reader (e.g., making the writing reader-friendly and anticipating possible counter-arguments from the reader); clarifying writer commitment to his/her idea (e.g., confirming the writer's stance about a particular issue); putting knowledge of the language to use (e.g., choosing language that can help the writer achieve the macro-rhetorical goal of the paper); and making the copy neat (e.g., checking the overall presentation of the paper).

5 The Use of Technologies to Enhance the Teaching of Writing

The Australian 'teaching and learning cycle' for genre instruction outlines the teaching of writing in three distinct stages: modelling, joint construction of text, and independent construction of text (Cope and Kalantzis 1993). At the modeling stage, teachers introduce the text type, purpose, audience, context of the text, as well as the vocabulary, grammar, and organizational structure, which are used in realizing that particular text type. For example, when teaching the genre of a complaint letter, teachers can make use of a short authentic letter from a local newspaper. Teachers can jumble the paragraphs, and then ask the students to rearrange the paragraphs and write down the proper order of a jumbled text following the situation-problem-solution-evaluation structure. Students can undertake this task individually if the class size is small, or in small groups when the class size is big. At this stage, teachers may also introduce the Michigan corpus of upper-level student papers http:// micusp.elicorpora.info, an online database of successful writing that can be used by students to improve their writing. Students can directly interact with the database to learn about features of academic writing in an innovative way.

After the modelling phase, teachers move on to another stage called the joint negotiation of text. This stage includes negotiation of ideas between teachers and students. Teachers can include activities such as class discussions and role plays, so as to help students brainstorm and gather possible ideas for writing. Using Weebly http://education.weebly.com or Wikipedia http://www.wikipedia.org, for example, teachers and students co-construct an essay in the same genre that they learned earlier in the modelling stage. Teachers may also use Google Docs http://www.google. com/docs to give students quick written feedback.

The stage of independent construction of text comes after the joint negotiation of text. Teachers should explicitly tell students the purpose of writing the particular essay, which may be neglected by some novice teachers. After brainstorming some ideas on the essay topic, students will independently compose their own essays. When the first draft is completed, students may make use of an automated essay system (e.g., Criterion® https://www.ets.org/criterion) to receive feedback on mechanics and grammar.

After that, teachers may conduct in-class trained peer review sessions. Teachers must provide training to students before they conduct the peer reviews, as trained peer review feedback can positively affect the quality of post-revision drafts and the student-writers' revision types (Min 2006). Teachers may consider using peer assessment software (e.g., Peerceptiv® http://www.peerceptiv.com) to implement the peer review activity. Such a computer-mediated feedback system may facilitate students' submission or viewing of multiple peer reviews on a series of writing drafts, because they can do so conveniently whenever there is Internet access. More importantly, computer-mediated feedback solves the need to "save face," which can be an issue for peer reviews carried out face-to-face. Through a peer assessment software, students' names can be anonymized readily. And if their names are not

revealed, the students are more likely to give honest feedback. Computer-mediated peer feedback may also supply social motivation for students to revise their work, because it is feasible to solicit feedback from a wide readership, including not only teachers but also a sizable peer group. Students, indeed authors in general, tend to pay more attention to their writing when they perceive a broad readership of their work.

6 Enhancing Second Language Writing Performance

Students who are determined to improve the quality of their academic writing should be "prepared to change their habitual approach to writing" (Chandrasegaran 2001, p. vi). In other words, some students would need to move away from the information focused approach to writing (i.e., merely giving information about what they know about the topic without considering the readers). Instead, they need to adopt an alternative approach to writing that emphasizes an awareness of the purpose and audience of the writing. Students would need to learn to become aware of the thinking processes that take place in the writing. Recent research has indicated that the socio-cognitive approach to writing can be effective in enhancing student performance in writing English as a second language. In the following, I will discuss practical strategies that teachers can introduce to students in the writing classroom with an objective to improving the students' performance in writing.

6.1   Using a Socio-Cognitive Approach to Writing

Cognitive and genre theories are common approaches to teaching academic writing to students at upper primary and secondary schools, and in university-level ESL writing courses. However, the cognitive approach to teaching writing focuses on idea generation and planning strategies. This approach neglects socio-cultural factors, such as the target readers' possible reaction to texts (Hyland 2002). The genre approach to teaching writing focuses on rhetorical moves and organization structure (Sawyer and Watson 1989), rather than the thinking processes that are involved in the enactment of the discourse moves (Chandrasegaran 2013). The prescriptive nature of a genre approach to writing may inhibit students' creativity (Hyland 2002).

Motivated by the limitations of cognitive and genre approaches to writing pedagogy, Chandrasegaran (2013) suggests a socio-cognitive approach to writing, which takes into account the socio-cultural contexts, thinking processes in enacting each genre practice, and reader expectations, to overcome the shortcomings of the cognitive and genre approaches. Studies have suggested that the use of a socio-cognitive approach to teaching writing has positive results in improving the students' writing. For example, Graham et al. (2005) pointed out that third-grade struggling students

in the United States, who were explicitly taught the thinking processes and the structure of genres, wrote "longer, more complete, and qualitatively better" narratives and persuasive writing (p. 234). With explicit teaching of genre and a socio-cultural approach to writing, Chandrasegaran and Yeo (2006) found that Secondary three (i.e., ninth-grade) students in Singapore showed an improvement in writing narratives in terms of setting the rhetorical goal. In recent studies, Chandrasegaran (2013) and Chandrasegaran et al. (2007) found that secondary three (i.e., ninth-grade) students in a Singapore school improved in expository writing. Specifically, through teachers' guided class discussions and explicit teaching of thinking processes in the enactment of genre practices, the students raised their awareness of the social context of the texts, as well as reader and writer roles, and they showed improvements in discourse moves such as stating and elaborating claims as well as countering opposing views.

Thinking processes, embedded in knowledge transformation, are important in implementing the socio-cognitive approach to writing. These thinking processes refer to how students plan, organize, write, and revise their essays. They help determine what information should be included in the essay in order to fit the macro rhetorical goal. Once the different pieces of information are determined, presenting them in a coherent form is a challenge to many students during the writing process. Understanding the features of a coherent text is the subject of the next section.

6.2 Understanding Features That Make a Text Coherent

Knowledge of coherence is an important factor in the students' ability to produce coherent texts (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1987). Research studies have shown that teachers need to help students understand the meaning of coherence from a narrow sense (i.e., connectedness between sentences) to a broader sense (i.e., linking the ideas in a text at a discourse level to create meanings for the readers) (Johns 1986; Lee 2002). Coherence may seem like an abstract concept that is difficult to teach and learn. However, it is possible to describe coherence in a structural framework. It has five common features: Macro-structure, information structure, proposition development, cohesive devices, and metadiscourse markers (Lee 2002). Macro-structure is about the outline of a text. For example, the outline of a complaint letter is situation-problem-solution-evaluation. The outline of a story is onset-complication-resolution. Information structure is about presenting old (given) information before introducing new information. For example, teachers can show two sentences to students: (a) Peter has two children. (b) They are John and Mary. In this example, the writer should present the sentence with "two children" (given information) before introducing "John and Mary" (new information) to refer to the "two children." Proposition development can be challenging to many ESL students, as they tend to state the proposition without elaboration of ideas. For example, "Free public transport is good to the residents." This statement is a proposition without elaboration of ideas. Student writers are advised to add support to the statement

such as "With money saved on transport, residents can now spend more money on other goods and services." Cohesive devices help establish relationships between different sentences. Examples of cohesive devices include pronouns, conjunctions, repetition, superordinates/hyponymy (e.g., animals/cats), and synonyms/antonyms. Another feature that can used to develop coherence in writing is metadiscourse markers, which some students commonly confuse with cohesive devices. Metadiscourse markers are used to help readers organize, interpret, and evaluate information. Examples of metadiscourse markers include logical connectives (e.g., therefore, but), sequencers (e.g., firstly, secondly, finally), certainty markers (e.g., certainly, no doubt), and hedges (e.g., can, may, it could be the case that…).

6.3   Adopting Good Editing Strategies

Careful editing is important because a well-crafted essay gives a positive impression to the reader that the writer is competent. Second language writing researchers (see for example, Ferris 2014) suggest useful strategies for good editing that can enhance the effectiveness of the written work. First, students should try to finish their writing earlier rather than wait until the last minute before starting. It is because good writers rely on effective editing and will allow sufficient time for it. Second, it is advisable to read the composition aloud. When writers read aloud their texts, they are more likely to detect problematic sentences, e.g., those containing missing words or unneeded repetitions of ideas. Through reading aloud, student writers can more easily identify the bad sentences. Third, students may consider using a word processor's editing tools to check for grammatical, spelling, and typographical errors. These word processors can identify some of the surface level errors effortlessly. Students may consider the software's suggested corrections. If they are not sure about certain corrections, they can check the dictionary or other tools. Lastly, for long term writing development, students are advised to keep track of their error patterns. They can keep a log book and record their recurring errors. They may aim to address a few errors at a time and review appropriate grammar rules if necessary. Students may be overwhelmed if they have to address a large number of errors in their compositions every time.

7   Pedagogical Principles of the Socio-Cognitive Approach to Academic Writing

The process-oriented approach and the genre approach to teaching writing have been widely adopted in writing classrooms for the past two decades. These approaches have not included the setting of the macro-rhetorical goal in writing and have not emphasized the thinking processes involved in the enactment of the genre

practice. For every essay, we should include only one macro-rhetorical goal. It is crucial to establish the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay because it specifies the angle that the essay is going to take and directs the path of the whole essay. It is important that we explicitly teach students the thinking processes in planning, organizing, writing, and revising their essays. In the following, implications and associated pedagogical principles of the socio-cognitive approach to academic writing are suggested.

(a) Teachers need to explain the purpose of writing to the students

- Make sure students understand that establishing the macro rhetorical goal and purposes of writing is an essential part of the writing process.
- Ensure that students recognize the functions of academic writing. After that, they may begin to appreciate its importance in writing.
- Plan activities that require students to identify the purpose of writing at the modelling, joint construction, and independent writing stages.

(b) Writing lessons would address the knowledge-transformation approach to writing

- Teach the knowledge-transformation approach to writing with a focus of establishing the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay.
- Explicitly teach students the thinking processes in planning, organizing, writing, and revising the essay using the knowledge-transformation approach to writing.
- Create class activities that raise students' awareness of the differences between the information-focused approach and the knowledge-transformation approach to writing.

(c) Second language writers' writing performance can be enhanced by understanding coherence in a broader sense

- Teach the features of a coherent text at a discourse level and highlight the differences in meaning between metadiscourse markers and cohesive devices in writing.
- Encourage students to self-edit their texts by reading aloud and self-evaluating their writing using a coherence checklist.
- Plan peer review activities, focusing on the development of coherence in writing. Peer reviewers can also comment on the macro-rhetorical goal of their peer's essays.

(d) Writing is a complex activity

- Teach students that writing is a non-linear process involving many stages, not limited to conceptualizing, formulating, reading and revising.
- Recognize that students will encounter difficulties during the writing processes such as 'setting the macro rhetorical goal,' 'establishing writer identity,' and 'considering the reader.'

- Plan group activities that heighten students' awareness of the nature of writing. Help students develop an understanding that pre-writing, drafting, and revising cannot be separated from each other into neat independent stages.

Traditional approaches to teaching L2 writing – the controlled composition approach, the rhetorical function approach, the process-approach, and the genre approach – have strengths but may not be sufficiently effective as writing pedagogy. Teaching students the rhetorical moves and organization structure as well as helping students in idea generation and planning is necessary but not sufficient in writing classrooms. The reason is that these devices alone do not consider reader expectations, socio-cultural factors, and key thinking processes involved in the writing. The more recent socio-cognitive approach is a comparatively strategic approach to teaching writing, which highlights the importance of explaining the purpose of writing to the students in terms of social impact. This is to say, students write not only because they are told to write, but they write in order to fulfill a social function through the writing. For example, the function for writing a story is to entertain the readers or make the readers admire the characters of the story.

Knowledge-transformation is an important implementation device in the socio-cognitive approach to writing. Teachers need to explicitly teach students how to establish the macro-rhetorical goal of an essay. When students plan, organize, write/revise, they need to ensure that the relevant information helps them achieve the macro-rhetorical goal. By adopting the socio-cognitive approach to writing, students consciously define their goal as impact on the intended readers. In organizing and presenting their ideas, they need to learn how to make a text coherent, which includes but goes beyond using cohesive devices. In this regard, they need to have a good understanding of the macrostructure of the genre, information structure, proposition development, and the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers.

Writing teachers should emphasize to students that a good piece of writing cannot be produced in one draft; it has to go through multiple times of revision. It is also very important for students to adopt self-editing strategies in all their written work. They can read aloud their writing so that they can detect the problematic parts of their writing. They have to start to plan their writing early and finish their writing early so that they have sufficient time to revise their work. During the self-editing process, they would need to revise both the surface level errors such as grammar and mechanics, as well as issues at the discourse level, such as how they present themselves in their writing, the tone they use, the development of ideas, the contextualization of ideas, and the use of language, data, and evidence that their readers find persuasive. Self-editing would result in student ownership of and responsibility for learning (Swaffield 2011).

Some writing researchers have found that students benefit from trained peer feedback reviews (Min 2006). The positive results of the related studies indicate that peer feedback leads to better texts and improves the quantity and quality of peer talk. The peer feedback helps students to clarify any possible confusion the readers may have, and help refine the language used in the writing. Peer feedback activity is useful because students can readily relate to their peers' opinions on the same topic.

When students review their peers' essays, they learn from their peers about how to make the writing reader friendly. Giving peer feedback is also good in training their critical thinking. In most situations the peer review activity enhances students' ability to revise and improve their writing.

8 Conclusion

"No one is a 'native speaker' of writing" (Leki 1992, p. 10). Teachers need to let students know that there are no 'native-like' standards when it comes to academic writing. In teaching writing, we need to explicitly teach the writing processes and the specific strategies to enhance students' writing competence. Teachers need to understand that helping students in idea generation and in planning as well as teaching the rhetorical moves of the particular genres alone are inadequate in helping students improve their writing. Teachers also need to teach students the socio-cognitive approach to writing, which takes into consideration readers' expectations, socio-cultural contexts, and thinking processes involved in planning, organizing, and writing/revising the essays. Teachers need to make clear to the students that a good piece of writing has to go through multiple times of revision. This applies not only to novice writers, but to experienced writers as well. Understanding this can help clarify a misconception that many students may have – that only non-proficient writers will need significant revisions to their work.

The socio-cognitive approach to writing ensures that students will establish the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay, and all the information in the essay contributes to achieving this purpose. For the readers, they will be able to grasp one key message that they can take away from the essay.

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Teaching Academic Writing in Context

Zhichang Xu

Abstract English has been widespread around the world from Europe to America, Asia-Pacific and Africa by means of earlier migration and colonization, giving rise to L1 and L2 varieties of English. Since the twentieth century, globalization has further enhanced the spread of English, which has led to emerging paradigms, e.g., World Englishes (WE) and English as an International Language (EIL). These paradigms have not only reframed perceptions of what English is in different societies, but also reconfigured the relationship and the way in which members of academic communities interact with each other through writing in English. This has significant implications for teaching academic writing in varying linguistic and sociocultural contexts. It is, therefore, essential to bring state-of-the-art theories into the English writing classroom so that both teachers and students are informed of current issues and practices in academic writing. This chapter takes World Englishes, EIL, academic writing as community of practice, and intercultural rhetoric as major components of a theoretical framework and explores pedagogical implications for teaching academic writing in different contexts including Beijing, Hong Kong and Melbourne.

Keywords Teaching academic writing • World Englishes • English as an international language • Community of practice • Intercultural rhetoric

1   Introduction

English has become one of the major international languages, and it has been widely used all over the world. The spread of English can be traced back to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries when large-scale exploration and migration from England to America and Australia took place, i.e., the first "dispersal" of English, forming mother-tongue varieties of English. The second "dispersal" took place through colonization of Asia and Africa during the eighteenth and nineteenth century, resulting in L2 varieties of English, or "New Englishes" (Jenkins 2009, pp. 5–9). Since the

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Table 1 A summary of courses taught

"EAP: Academic Writing" (Beijing)	"EIL: Research Thesis Project" (Hong Kong)	"EIL: Writing Across Cultures" (Melbourne)
English as EAP or ESP; Academic writing as "skills;" Teaching writing as skills training; Dominant forms and functions are taught; Writing conventions and discourses are not open to negotiation; Shift from learners to users of English in limited domains within a largely imagined community	English as EIL; Academic writing as a "process;" Teaching writing as a process of apprenticeship. Academic writing conventions are followed with certain degrees of negotiation; Students engage in local and global interactions while struggling for their own voices in discipline-specific discourse communities	English as a medium of ideological and identity construction; Teaching writing as reshaping ideology and rhetoric; Writing conventions are negotiated and appropriated; Students are empowered by their individuality and cultural rhetoric and discourses. There are no explicit boundaries in EIL writing communities

twentieth century, English has been spread primarily through globalization, in terms of mobility and advanced technology. The traditional boundaries regarding English as a native language (ENL), English as a second language (ESL), and English as a foreign language (EFL) have become blurred. Instead, English has been increasingly used as an international language. Since 1970s, research on different varieties has been gaining momentum, giving rise to both the innovative term "Englishes" and the study of "World Englishes" as a discipline (c.f., Seargeant 2012). In addition, English as an International Language (EIL) has emerged as a paradigm for thinking, research and practice (Sharifian 2009), and it has also enhanced the paradigm shift from teaching ESL and EFL to teaching EIL (Alsagoff et al. 2012; McKay 2002; Sharifian 2009). Such a paradigm shift has set new demands for English Language Teaching professionals, including teachers, researchers, material writers, curriculum developers and policy makers. In the context of teaching English academic writing, it is important for teachers and students in different linguistic and socio-cultural contexts to be informed of the state-of-the-art development of English in and outside their classrooms (Table 1).

English has increasingly been used internationally, and it is no longer owned exclusively by L1 speakers of English. The ownership of English has largely become an issue of "access," particularly in terms of written English, as people rarely conceptualize native "writers" to the same extent as they do with native "speakers." In the context of tertiary education and academic communities, what "academic English" is has been re-conceptualized. Rubin (1997, p. 4)argues that "written language reflects or conveys a writer's social identity, but it also constructs or instantiates it." Stylistic markers of social identity in writing were traditionally regarded as interference. The "unmarked" standard academic writing tended to be "voiceless, genderless, identity-less." However, according to Rubin (1997, pp. 6–9), "writing style is never devoid of social marking, never really unmarked," and that even when people write in the so-called Standard English, they are not eliminating social markers, but rather adopting a stylistic stance that identifies them with "values and

beliefs of an educated, mainstream culture discourse community." In addition, Malcolm (1999, pp. 122–123) points out that writing is "a means of identification, expression and negotiation of cultural distinctiveness in the context of a culturally diverse world," and that "written language is significantly used by many groups as a means of asserting or maintaining cultural differentiation." English academic writing has been increasingly contextualized and perceived as an integral part of academic literacy. Hyland (2000, p. 146) views academic writing in literacy terms, arguing that "literacy" draws attention to the relative nature of academic writing, "encompassing as it does the wide range of experiences, practices and ways of knowing that individuals carry to a writing task," and that literacy implies "variations in the contexts and communities in which they are written, and the roles of reader and writer that they invoke."

In this chapter, I take World Englishes, EIL, academic writing as community of practice, and intercultural rhetoric as major components of a theoretical framework, and introduce three academic writing courses that I have coordinated in Beijing, Hong Kong, and Melbourne. I also explore pedagogical principles for teaching academic writing in context towards the end of the chapter.

2   Literature Review

The literature that underpins the current understanding of teaching English academic writing involves World Englishes, English as an International Language, academic writing as community of practice, and intercultural rhetoric.

In terms of World Englishes, Kachru (1982) has proposed three concentric circles of English, namely, the Inner-Circle countries where English is the first language of the majority of the speakers, the Outer-Circle countries where English is an institutionalized second language or it has become one of the official languages alongside their national and local languages, and the Expanding-Circle countries where English is taught in school as a subject and it is regarded as a foreign language. Although Kachru's three circles model has been critically reviewed and modified over the years by a number of researchers (c.f., Jenkins 2009), this chapter takes the three circles model in its broadest sense to contextualize the three cities, namely Beijing, Hong Kong and Melbourne, where the three academic writing courses have been offered and selected for the current research.

Bilingual and multilingual writers of World Englishes have access to other languages of their national or local communities. These national or local languages contribute to the richness and expressiveness of World Englishes for intra- and international communication. Drawing on Mufwene's theory of the feature pool, and Kachru's dual notions of Englishization and nativization, McLellan (2010, p. 427) points towards a conceptualization of World Englishes as code-mixed varieties, which develop in contexts where speakers and writers have other code choices as well as English available to them. What distinguishes World Englishes writers from one another is likely that their word choices, sentence structures, discourse patterns,

and pragmatic norms in writing may be culture-specific in one way or another, or may vary on an individual or cultural group basis. Kirkpatrick and Xu (2012) argue that there should be a radical reassessment of what English is in today's world given the exponential increase in the international learning and use of English. They also point out that the essentially monolingual and Anglo-centric view of writing that multilingual students bring with them culturally nuanced rhetorical baggage as a source of negative interference for their academic writing in English should be reexamined. In the current era of globalization and multilingualism, it is essential that people develop sensitivity to different cultural and rhetorical traditions, and also accommodate and respect multilingual writers who shuttle across the three Kachruvian "Circles."

The second area of literature involves English as an International Language. In the late 1970s, Strevens (1980) explored issues of EIL in relation to the emergence of local forms and teaching English for scientific and other specific purposes. He pointed out that language teachers should be informed of the nature of language in general and English in particular, including an awareness of those variables affecting language education in any given sociolinguistic context. He also raised the issue of whether or not local forms of English can or should become pedagogical models in their respective speech communities. McKay (2002, pp. 5–12) has redefined EIL as a "language of wider communication both among individuals from different countries and between individuals from one country," suggesting that EIL is "embedded in the culture of the country in which it is used," and that one of its primary functions is to enable speakers and writers to share with others their ideas and cultures. Sharifian (2009, p. 2) refers to EIL further as "a paradigm for thinking, research and practice," and he points out that this emerging EIL paradigm marks a "shift in TESOL, SLA and the Applied Linguistics in English, partly in response to the complexities that are associated with the tremendously rapid spread of English around the globe in recent decades." According to Sharifian (2009, p. 2), "as a paradigm, EIL calls for a critical revisiting of the notions, analytical tools, approaches and methodologies within the established disciplines such as the sociolinguistics of English and TESOL, which explored various aspects of the English language," including academic writing in English. More recently, Alsagoff (2012, pp. 4–5) views EIL as "new ways of thinking, doing, and being," and she points out that teachers, students, and multilingual speakers and writers of English in the "hybridized liminal spaces" appropriate and shape English to develop their own "voices."

Another area of literature involves academic writing as community of practice. Such a conceptualization helps teachers and students understand the context and purpose of academic writing, particularly in tertiary education. According to Xu et al. (2011), p. 11) "if we take a university as a community, faculties as comprising interrelated disciplines, and departments as providers of courses/modules/units, we will then be able to view academic writing tasks in the framework of a community." Within universities as a community of practice, students are assessed largely by what they write, and they need to learn both general academic writing conventions as well as disciplinary writing requirements. In universities, "writing is used as a

means to help students acquire content knowledge and to meet the pedagogical needs of content area professors and programmes" (Zhu 2004, p. 43).

Canagarajah (2002, p. 29) points out that "teachers of academic writing have become sensitive to a community-based orientation to literacy," and that "communities may be hybrid, characterized by a heterogeneous set of values and locations." Canagarajah (2002, pp. 32–41) has categorized a number of models to elaborate the evolving relationship between multilingual writers and disciplinary communities, including English for academic purposes (EAP), contrastive rhetoric (CR), social process (SP), transculturation model (TM), and contact zones perspective (CZP). The EAP model views academic communities as homogeneous communities, and differences and variations as a problem. Teaching academic writing is reduced to practicing skills and following established conventions. The CR model implies cultural and linguistic determinism, viewing differences as an interference. Disciplinary communities are protected from change and modification, and multilingual students with their own interests and traditions are disempowered. The SP model is more flexible in that it allows common values to move across discourse boundaries, and it acknowledges that people can move from their primary community (e.g., home and ethnicity) to secondary community (e.g., nation, school, and institution). However, the SP model holds that one can only enjoy one community membership at a time. The TM model recognizes considerable fusion of discourses, and it allows a crossing of boundaries so that multilingual students can enjoy their presence in multiple communities. However, multilingual students may struggle to make a space for their interests when they engage with the dominant communities. The CZP model showcases a meeting point of disparate discourses, and it accommodates new voices and enables change, reform, and progress in the discourses of that community. The CZP model enables multilingual students to adopt creative strategies to reshape academic conventions to represent their interests and values.

The last but not least area of literature involves intercultural rhetoric, a notion that has evolved from contrastive analysis (Kaplan 1966), with the assumptions that each language or culture has unique rhetorical conventions and that the rhetorical conventions of students' L1 interfere with their English writing. Over the years, many scholars, such as Leki (1997), Kubota and Lehner (2004), Matsuda and Atkinson (2008), and Connor (2008, 2011), have identified issues with contrastive rhetoric. For example, Leki (1997, p. 24) points out that traditional contrastive rhetoric has been too eager to find patterns and differences across cultures and to impose cross-cultural explanations. Kubota and Lehner (2004, p. 10) call for more attention to "plurality, complexity, and hybridity of rhetorical patterns within one language as well as similarities among languages or cultures." Matsuda and Atkinson (2008, pp. 283–284) have discussed renaming and re-conceptualizing contrastive rhetoric, and they point out that "contexts and individual differences, the socio-historic moment, economic conditions, and many other things – such as conventions of the publishers and scholarly societies – play roles in shaping any given written text." Connor (2008, p. 304) suggests that the studies of contrastive rhetoric need to move far beyond such binary distinctions as linear versus nonlinear discourse, inductive versus deductive logic, and collectivist versus individualist norms. She therefore

proposes an umbrella term "intercultural rhetoric" to include "cross-cultural studies and also the interactive situations in which writers with a variety of linguistic and cultural/social backgrounds negotiate L2 writing in a great variety of situations for varied purposes" (Connor 2008, p. 312). As far as implications of intercultural rhetoric for teachers and students are concerned, Kubota (2010, p. 282) proposes that "it is important to both recognize and affirm L2 students' L1 background and understand that their writing does not directly reflect their exotic *culture* but is significantly shaped by educational practices, local politics and ideologies, as well as transnational discourses in the age of globalization."

In the following section, I introduce and analyze three academic writing courses that I have coordinated over the past decade in three universities in Beijing, Hong Kong and Melbourne. I focus on the pedagogical principles for teaching academic writing in context.

3 Teaching Academic Writing in Context

The three academic writing courses under discussion in this section include "EAP: Academic Writing," "EIL: Research Thesis Project," and "EIL: Writing Across Cultures." These courses have been offered to different students in universities in the three Kachruvian "Circles", namely the Expanding Circle Beijing, the Outer Circle Hong Kong, and the Inner Circle Melbourne. What these courses have in common is that they all have an explicit focus on "academic writing" in English.

3.1 Teaching "EAP: Academic Writing" (in Beijing)

This EAP (English for Academic Purposes) course is offered to science and engineering students in a university in Beijing. It focuses on discipline-specific English academic writing skills based on a number of topics and tasks. It is task-based in that the students are involved in completing a series of academic writing tasks in relation to their specific disciplines, e.g., writing a short research paper based on the students' own discipline-specific research. The course focuses on writing skills training, e.g., choosing academic words for writing, following conventional *do*'s and *don't*s in academic writing such as "do not use contractions and interjections," "do not address the reader directly," "do not place adverbs in sentence initial or final positions" and "use certain Latin abbreviations and expressions (e.g., cf., et al., i.e., per se) where appropriate." In addition, the course also informs the students of common academic writing errors, e.g., faulty subject-verb and noun-pronoun agreement, sentence fragments, faulty parallelism, vague pronouns, dangling modifiers, wordiness, and misuse of punctuation marks.

Lecturers usually use students' own academic writing examples for common error analysis. For example, for illustrating the lack of noun-pronoun agreement, the

following example is used. *Present methods for solving the Viener problem are subject to a number of limitations which seriously curtail its practical usefulness*. In this example, the subject "Present methods" does not agree with the possessive pronoun "its" within the sentence. Another common error in academic writing, e.g., sentence fragments, exists in the following examples. (1) *In this paper*, *a novel method for natural frequency extraction*. (2) *Using synthetic data. We show these characteristics by comparing them to Prony's method and the E-pulse technique*. In addition, lecturers use explicit examples from the students' own academic writing to instruct them to avoid dangling modifiers and wordiness in academic writing. For example, in the following sentence, the first clause is a dangling modifier. *Comparing operating systems for UDP and TCP communication*, *Linux outperforms both Windows systems*. Instead, the students are provided with a correct version of the sentence, i.e., *The comparison of operating systems for UDP and TCP communication shows that Linux outperforms both Windows systems*.

The students attending this course are all Chinese university students from varying academic disciplines. They take their majority of coursework and conduct their research with Chinese as a medium, but they also have access to discipline-specific English academic reading materials. English primarily means English for Academic Purposes in its literal sense to the students in Beijing. English is learned and used in highly limited domains, including English language classrooms, international events and conferences, and other highly professional contexts.

It is a typical course on writing in the Expanding Circle context in which English writing is regarded as either an ability or a skill that students need to acquire and improve through learning, training and practice. The teaching is prescriptive in nature. Dominant forms and functions of English for Academic Purposes are taught and reinforced. Error analysis is adopted as an approach to teaching grammatical rules and writing conventions. The models of EAP and Contrastive Rhetoric (CR), as being categorized by Canagarajah (2002), are prevalent. Academic writing in English is regarded as being confined to homogeneous communities in which writing conventions and discourses for academic writing are not open to negotiation. Features of the students' own writing styles appear as examples of different types of errors, and EAP writing is reduced to skills that students have to master through focused practices.

3.2   Teaching "EIL: Research Thesis Project" (in Hong Kong)

This course is based on individual self-selected research projects in the broad area of English as an International Language. It is offered in a tertiary institution in Hong Kong, and delivered in a blended mode of face-to-face plenary sessions, research writing workshops, and individual or group consultations, in addition to ongoing online interaction among the lecturers and supervisors (a team of three) and students. This course has both intended learning outcomes for discipline related

research competence, and academic literacy. This academic research project course focuses on a dual process of learning to write, and writing to learn.

This course recognizes that university students, particularly students at the level of postgraduate studies, are assessed largely based on what they write and how they acquire and process discipline-specific knowledge. The lectures, workshops, seminars and individual and group consultations play a facilitative role in assisting the students with their understanding of what academic research is and how academic writing can be instantiated. In addition, this EIL course is based on individual self-selected research projects of the students in the broad area of English as an International Language. It also offers the students opportunities to explore new ways of thinking, doing and being, as suggested by Alsagoff (2012), because these students are situated in authentic EIL environment where they appropriate and shape English in developing their own voices in both speaking and writing. In terms of Canagarajah's (2002) models, this group of EIL Research Thesis Project students move beyond the EAP model along the line of contrastive rhetoric (CR), social process (SP), and the transculturation model (TM). They are aware of the boundaries between dominant academic writing communities and their own immediate learning communities. However, they are exposed to conflicting discourses, and they tend to fuse discourses and texts of multilingual communities while struggling for their own voices in their academic writing. It should be noted that Hong Kong, as a city in the Kachruvian "Outer Circle," provides a unique context for the students to engage in the contestation between the local and the global, and to negotiate between the imagined ideal academic writing discourse and the realistic complex societies that surround them. Connor (2008) reiterates the importance of considering social contexts and practices surrounding the written texts. In summary, this EIL Research Thesis Project is delivered in a socio-cultural context that intrinsically engages the students in research and writing so that their learning naturally takes place throughout the process.

3.3 Teaching "EIL: Writing Across Cultures" (in Melbourne)

This course is offered to final year undergraduate students in a university in Melbourne. Its aim is to develop students' insights into the way a written text becomes a meaningful and unified unit for cross-cultural communication. The theoretical foundations of the course include World Englishes, English as an International Language, and intercultural rhetoric. The learning objectives are for the students to familiarize with intercultural rhetoric, and features of writing in World Englishes, review critically the assumptions behind one hegemonic model of writing in English for international communication, and develop cross-cultural writing competence in professional and international contexts.

This course is delivered in a blended mode, comprising lectures, tutorials, synchronous online discussion forums, and students' in-class presentations. The students attending this course represent a wide range of linguistic and cultural, as well

as disciplinary backgrounds. They include Asian, Southeast Asian, European and Australian students, and they come from different faculties. This course draws on the students' multilingual and multicultural writing experiences, and broadens their perspectives on writing in World Englishes, and academic writing in English as an International Language.

The course begins with an introduction of what English is in terms of its current profiles and the taxonomy of Englishes by function, community, history, structure, and ecology (Seargeant 2010, pp. 100–101). It then problematizes the notions of "good writing" and its associated ideology for correctness and standardization, and encourages the students to perceive certain linguistic and stylistic variations in English writing as being normal and natural. The course also examines the assumptions of contrastive rhetoric through a critical lens, and enables the students to justify and appreciate diversity in writing across cultures. In addition, issues of identity and voice in writing have been discussed to the extent that the students become aware that it is actually an advantage to be multilingual writers, and that their own experiences, values and interests should be well retained and projected in their practice of writing across cultures. This coincides with Canagarajah's (2002) transculturation model (TM) and contact zones perspective (CZP), in which multilingual students interact with the dominant communities critically to make a space for their own voice, identity, and interest. They also adopt subtle and creative strategies to construct their oppositional forms of knowledge and discourses and to reshape academic conventions while shuttling between different communities including their discipline-specific discourse communities. This echoes Connor's (2008, p. 312) notion of "intercultural rhetoric" in that L2 writers negotiate their writing in English in a great variety of situations for varied purposes. Throughout the course, the focus has been on the reshaping of ideology and insights into how written texts can be composed, negotiated, and appropriated to synchronize with current understandings of the complexity and diversity in cross-cultural written communication. In summary, this course serves as a useful capstone for students to affirm their voice and identity in writing, and to understand that writing across cultures is usually shaped by "educational practices, local politics and ideologies, as well as transnational discourses in the age of globalization" (Kubota 2010, p. 282).

It is worth pointing out that the aforementioned courses offered in Hong Kong and Melbourne are both conducted in a blended teaching mode, which includes face-to-face and online synchronous teaching sessions through Blackboard or Moodle management systems. Technology has been one of the driving forces for the transformation of teaching and learning, and it can be applied effectively to the teaching of academic writing. Through technology based online teaching of academic writing, students are made aware that even in the context of academic writing, which is often associated with standardization and homogeneity, "various language and culture issues, including multilingualism and multiculturalism, features of Internet language, and local features of different varieties of English, and the interface between technology, language pedagogy and culture" may all play a role in the quality and effectiveness of academic writing works (Xu 2014, p. 23).

Table 1 summarizes how English and academic writing are perceived and taught in different contexts. It is worth noting that these courses are deemed appropriate for the particular contexts and purposes for which they are taught.

4 Pedagogical Principles for Teaching English Academic Writing

In this section, I intend to explore a number of pedagogical principles for teaching academic writing in context.

(a) State-of-the-art issues and practices surrounding the development of English should be explicitly explored in the academic writing classroom. Teachers and students should be aware of the past, present and future of English. As far as the future of Englishes is concerned, Pennycook (2010, p. 667) predicts that there will be a continuing shift away from formerly influential UK and US English models towards a more polycentric English, with Asian Englishes being integrated into the "worldliness of English" model. It is important for English academic writing classrooms to synchronize with state-of-the-art research on World Englishes, EIL, academic writing, and intercultural rhetoric studies, and expose the students not only to tangible features of variations in World Englishes, but also the underlying discourse, pragmatic and rhetoric traditions.

(b) Notions of correctness and standards should be problematized in the academic writing classroom. Clark and Ivanic (1997, p. 188) point out that the symbolic significance of grammar associated with the "great grammar crusade" at a sub-conscious level is often compounded by fundamental misunderstandings about language, i.e., about the role of context in shaping language use, about the relationship between function and form, about the relationship between identity and language use, and about the nature of language change. They argue that over-insistence on correctness may result in the students' lack of attention to other aspects of writing, and their counter-productiveness in writing. Problematising notions of correctness and standards has also been aligned with more recent research on writing and English as an International Language. For example, Canagarajah (2002, p. 29) argues that "simply teaching the linguistic/textual grammar or the cognitive processes of writing are insufficient to make a student competent in academic writing." What needs to be raised to the students should also include their own socio-cultural awareness of the context in which they write and compose their texts, and to what extent they can incorporate their own linguistic and cultural rhetoric into their writing in English.

(c) The importance of context for writing should be emphasized in the English academic writing classroom. Connor (2008, p. 306) argues that "the study of writing should not be limited to texts but should consider the discursive and social practices surrounding it." World Englishes, and its associated worldliness

of English, has rendered the context for English writing an extremely sophisticated notion, which involves intricate relationships among varieties of English, local English users' practices, writer-reader-text interaction, and community of practice in terms of the contestation between the local and the global. Whether English is perceived as ESL or EIL, and whether writing is taught, trained or acquired as a skill, a competence, a process or a social and intercultural activity shall all depend on considerations of different contexts for academic writing.

(d) Learning to write and writing to learn should be integrated in the English academic writing classroom. In universities as well as in professional communities of practice, effective learning and writing skills are essential. In universities, Zhu (2004, p. 43) has elaborated on the importance of "writing to learn" by saying that "writing is used as a means to help students acquire content knowledge and to meet the pedagogical needs of context area professors and programmes." Xu et al. (2011), p. 10), on the other hand, argue that "learning to write is an equally important matter for university students, because success in tertiary education depends largely on the competence of academic reading and writing." Therefore, teachers should design writing tasks with intended outcomes of enhancing both disciplinary knowledge learning, and English writing competence, so that students are not simply instructed to write, but are also directed to write with a purpose, and to deal with real issues in their respective disciplines.

(e) Students' written texts should be examined and evaluated both as a product and as a process. According to Xu et al. (2011, pp. 44–45), writing in the digital world today can be a far more complex process than it traditionally has been, and it involves multiple tasks and processes. In addition, writing is not a linear but an interactive process, where there is an ongoing interaction among the writer, the reader, the text, the real world, and the media used for writing. It is important for academic writing teachers to recognize the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the L2 students and how their writing has been shaped and conditioned by their educational practices, rhetorical traditions, cultural ideologies, and disciplinary discourses. Academic writing teachers should examine their students' written texts diachronically through the lens of varying cultural norms and patterns in terms of both writing processes and written products. In addition, texts should also be studied synchronically, taking varieties of English and their corresponding social contexts and ecologies into consideration. It is important for academic writing teachers to note Kubota's (2010, p. 282) suggestion that "in encountering an essay organized in a way different from a typical English essay, teachers need to take into account multiple factors that could influence the text, such as L1 writing expertise, L2 proficiency, L1 and L2 writing experiences in a particular genre, the writer's intentions, and their own beliefs about cultural difference, instead of attributing the difference entirely to the student's culture."

(f) The boundaries of writing communities, including English academic writing classrooms, should be open to negotiation and appropriation. Globalization and

the internationalization of higher education have rendered academic writing communities to become deterritorialized. According to Canagarajah (2002) such communities are hybrid, and they are characterized by a heterogeneous set of values and locations. He also uses metaphorical expressions, i.e., *asserting*, *respecting*, *crossing*, *merging*, and *appropriating* boundaries, to describe multilingual writers and their relationships with academic communities. In addition, advanced technology in communications and social media has rendered supraterritorial platforms for teaching and learning activities within and beyond the classroom. A good understanding of how relevant technology works in the higher education environment becomes essential so that the pedagogical principles explored in this section can be effectively applied to teaching academic writing in context. Therefore, teachers and students of academic writing should conceptualize academic writing practices in relation to dynamic and technology-enhanced academic communities that vary across disciplines and linguistic and socio-cultural contexts.

5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have adopted World Englishes, EIL, academic writing as community of practice, and intercultural rhetoric as major components of a theoretical framework and compared three English writing courses in different contexts. I have also explored pedagogical principles for teaching English academic writing in context. These include: state-of-the-art issues and practices surrounding the development of English should be explicitly explored; notions of correctness and standards should be problematized; the importance of context for writing should be emphasized; learning to write and writing to learn should be integrated; and students' written texts should be examined and evaluated both as a product and as a process; and the boundaries of writing communities, including English writing classrooms, should be open to negotiation and appropriation.

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Teaching English Grammar in Asian Contexts

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Abstract This chapter addresses the teaching of English grammar in Asian contexts. It argues that texts, rather than isolated sentences, should be used as a vehicle for teaching grammar. This is because texts provide meaningful and appropriate contexts of authentic language use. To elaborate on the concept of text, the systemic functional grammar tradition is adopted to present a perspective that teaching grammar does not always mean teaching the forms but also teaching the meaning and function of grammar. This perspective is important because commercially available grammar books tend to mix the structural and functional labels of grammar in one sentence pattern causing confusion among Asian students especially regarding the 'verb' element. The verb functioning as the Finite of the clause is highlighted in the chapter since this seems to be a major source of grammatical mistakes. In the teaching strategies, presenting grammar in its form, meaning and use is suggested. With regard to 'use', this chapter advocates a 'one text many stories' strategy which originated from the reader-response theory in which the students are given the opportunities to use grammar creatively in the texts they create.

Keywords Systemic functional grammar • Form • Meaning and use • Finite • Predicator • Grammar teaching • Reader-response theory

1 Introduction

Advances in linguistics especially in discourse studies have brought new perspectives in the teaching of grammar in that grammar teaching is no longer viewed as the teaching of morphology and syntax. Since the 1990s, quite a few authors have attempted to demonstrate how the teaching of grammar should be extended to a level beyond syntax. Thornbury (2005), for example, proposes explicit teaching of grammar at word, sentence and text levels. Along the same vein Gerngross, Puchta, and Thornbury (2006), Thornbury (2004), and Jones and Lock (2011), Richards and

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Rappen (2014) have written practical accounts regarding grammar teaching up to the text level suggesting that grammar is not simply a body of knowledge students need to have but also grammar as a resource for making meanings in real communication with various purposes. Thus, the unit of focus in grammar teaching is text.

A text-focused syllabus which integrates grammar in the teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills has been introduced by Feez and Joyce (1998) known as genre-based instruction. In this approach, the unit of focused is text and, therefore, the grammatical items taught in a unit of lesson need to be those that are relevant to the creation of spoken and written texts in question. In this way, both the grammar of spoken and written texts is equally addressed. The learning stages in this approach include: (1) building the context, (2) modeling and deconstructing the text, (3) joint construction of a similar text, (4) Independent construction of the text and (5) linking to related texts (Feez and Joyce, 1998: pp. 28–31).

All of the theoretical as well as the practical methods and techniques suggested by the authors mentioned above can be netted in by the grammar teaching principles suggested by Richards and Rappen (2014: pp. 7–19). The principles include (1) Identify the grammatical resources the learners need, (2) Teach awareness of the nature of texts, (3) Develop awareness of differences between spoken and written language, (4) Use corpora to explore texts, (5) Use a variety of teaching approaches, (6) provide opportunities for guided noticing, (7) Provide opportunities for meaningful communicative practice, (8) Provide opportunities for students to produce stretched output, (9) Make links between grammar and vocabulary, (10) Use student errors to inform instruction, (11) Integrate grammar with the four skills.

The stages suggested in the text-based approach and the 11 principles mentioned above might serve the needs for explicit grammar teaching especially for adult learners in foreign language contexts. As Gerngross et al. (2006: p. 5) put it: "Many adult learners have a very strong need to understand the rules by which grammatical structures are formed. They also frequently insist on being given rules…" In what follows, one particular clause element that appears to be the source of so many grammatical mistakes made by Asian students is discussed. Strategies for teaching this crucial element using a text-based approach are suggested.

2   The English Mood

When talking about English grammar, what learners usually refer to is the Mood of the clause consisting of the Subject and the Finite. In the systemic functional tradition, the clause has two major constituents: the Mood and the Residue. The Mood expresses the feelings, attitudes, or judgments, whereas the Residue carries the rest of the proposition. The Subject

> realizes the thing by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied. It provides the person or thing in whom is vested the success or failure of the proposition, what is held responsible. (Eggins 2004, p. 151, Halliday and Matthiessen 2004)

With regard to Finite, Eggins (2004, p. 152) states that it is "the function in the clause to make the proposition definite, to anchor the proposition in a way that we can argue about it." To serve the function, the Finite carries the tense, the agreement, and polarity of the clause. Here is an example:

He has been doing the same job for the last twenty years.

There are several verbs in the above sentence, but there is only one that is Finite, that is, *has*, because this is the verb that indicates the tense (present), the agreement (the Subject is *He* and, therefore the Finite must agree with it), and positive polarity. The other verbs do not carry the same 'burden' as the Finite. When this clause constituent is labeled as 'verb,' which is a structural label, in the teaching of grammar, it is possible that learners tend to take it for granted as other verbs that do not have the Finite function. Traditionally, grammar books describe English sentence patterns in terms of Subject (functional) + verb (structural label) + Object (functional label). Obviously, the 'verb' here is not assigned a functional status to distinguish that from other verbs having different functional statuses. Consequently, the sentence patterns shown in the grammar books display the followings:

Subject + V1 + Object
Subject + Verb 2 + Object
Subject + be + V-ing

Students often refer to this Mood construction as English 'tenses' or the basic English sentence patterns including the simple present or past tenses, the present/past continuous tenses and so on. Hence, the elements in the clause are seen as the forms that have to be there according to the prescribed rules without further understanding the verb element in the clause can have different functions. Very often, grammar books also limit their explanations of sentence patterns to the form as in

Mary	*lives*	*in Singapore.*
Subject	Verb	Adverb

When using a clause pattern in which the verb element is a lexical verb, all students need to handle is how to put the verb in the correct tense and agreement. However, once they have to express an idea where no lexical verb is required, the verb element is no longer 'conspicuous' to the students and therefore many fail to include this element in their clauses as in

My house	*in Jakarta.*
Subject	Adverb

Foreign language learners whose native language does not require a verb element in every clause type tend to take the verb element for granted possibly because they think that by skipping the verb their message gets conveyed. This may be true in spoken language interactions where other non-verbal cues can be a great help in conveying the messages. This is evident in Agustien's findings (1998:208) indicating

that in casual conversations Indonesian learners 'avoid' negotiation strategies'' "which involve the setting up of and the manipulation of the Mood constituent of the clauses used''. However, the same cannot be said about written language contexts especially when the writing demands the use of more complex sentences to convey more complicated concepts.

The present discussion shows that there is a need to rethink about how English sentence patterns should be presented to language learners. There is obvious need to present sentence patterns consistently in that if the writer uses the functional labels, all of the clause or sentence elements or constituents have to be labeled in functional terms as in Subject + Finite + Object. If the writer decides to use structural labels the pattern should be written as in NP (noun phrase) + VP (verb phrase) + NP (noun phrase). When writers mix the two levels of abstraction in describing sentence patterns students might fail to notice the differences of verbs having Finite status and those that are not. This could be a reason why Finite-related problems persist.

Another reason why this is important may be that because grammar book writers who are native speakers of English do not feel the need of highlighting this Finite issue. To native speakers, Finite element is part of their intuition, whereas in Asian contexts it is an element that needs special emphasis because some Asian languages simply do not require such an element. This Finite element deserves special attention in teaching English in the Asian context. Thus, this chapter is about teaching English grammar viewed from the non-native speaker's perspective.

Regarding how native speakers develop grammar as part of their intuition, Joyce and Burns (1999) explain that there are two ways of knowing grammar: "The first is knowing grammar in order to use it. … The second way of knowing enables people to explain aspects of the language …" (p. 2)

The statement suggests that knowledge about Finite is part of the built-in knowledge native speakers have, whereas Asian learners try to obtain knowledge about English grammar the way they learn other subject matters in school. Explicit teaching of grammatical patterns does not automatically transform the knowledge into the ability to use grammar in real communication. Knowing the patterns is the first step, but this needs to be developed further by teaching strategies involving activities that engage students in communication contexts.

2.1   The Proposed Teaching Strategy

The teaching strategy proposed here highlights the teaching stages known as form – meaning – use in teaching of grammar as adopted by Diane Larsen-Freeman who suggests that "While grammar does indeed involve form, in order to communicate, language users also need to know the meaning of the forms and when to use them appropriately" (2008: xii). These stages have a great potential in helping foreign language learners to make sense of English grammar. The explicit introduction of **form** can satisfy the learners' curiosity about the clause/sentence elements and how to structure the clause/sentence elements. This kind of knowledge might give them some sense of security in the event the learners need to check or monitor whether or

not they have use the correct form. In foreign language grammar classes, form is usually the main preoccupation of both teachers and students, such that the other aspects of grammar tend to be overlooked.

One aspect that is often overlooked is the meaning of grammar. When talking about meaning, students tend to associate the word 'meaning' with the meaning of lexical items; the meaning of words they can find in the dictionaries. Grammar words such as *does*, *is*, *or has*, tend to be regarded as 'meaningless' and, therefore, do not appear as salient features worth attending to. This may be one of the causes why these words often become the stumbling block among foreign language learners.

In this chapter, the term '**meaning**' will be extended to include the function of the clause elements so as to shed light to the common misconception of form and functions commonly found in English grammar books. The misconception manifests in the grammar terms used in describing English sentence patterns such as:

Subject + Verb + Object + Adverb

This kind of description has been widely known and has become a norm. Even when the book uses the abbreviations S+V+O+A (Crystal 2004), the readers do not have any difficulties in understanding them. However, when examined more closely, there is a fundamental flaw in this pattern. Some elements, Subject and Object, are functional labels, but the other elements, Verb and Adverbial, are structural labels. The mixture of functional and structural labels at one level of abstraction may be helpful for foreign language teachers to teach the clause constituent structure, but it is not quite helpful to explain why, for example, some verbs have to agree with the Subject and some do not. It is argued, therefore, that the description of the sentence pattern should be revisited to help language teachers explain why some verbs have to agree with the Subject and some do not.

The proposed description of sentence pattern suggested here includes the functional and the structural levels of abstraction.

(1)

	Mary	*lives*	*in Jakarta*
Functional level	Subject	Finite (does) fused with Predicator (live)	Adjunct
Structural level	Noun	Verb	Adverb (place)

(2)

	Mary	*does not*	*live*	*in Jakarta*
Functional level	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct
Structural level	Noun	Verb	Verb	Adverb

(3)

	Mary	*is*	*going to live*	*In Jakarta*
Functional level	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct
Structural level	Noun	Verb	Verb phrase	Adverb

The three examples above illustrate the meanings of clause elements in their functional and structural terms. As illustrated, the two levels of abstractions are related by realization: the functional level is realized by the structural level. As seen in the above examples, the Subject is realized by a noun, the Finite by a verb, the Predicator a verb or verb phrase, whereas the Adjunct an adverb (Eggins 2004; Halliday and Matthiessen 2004).

When using this kind of description, English language teachers can, for example, explain to the students why they need *does* to negate the verb *lives*. They can explain that *lives* contain Finite *does* and Predicator *live*. If students ask why they have to use *lives* instead of *live*, the teacher can explain because *lives* contains Finite, and therefore it becomes Finite, and it has to agree with the Subject. If the students ask why they have to separate *does* and *live* in order to negate the sentence, the teacher can explain because the negator *not* has to be attached to the Finite *does*, not to the Predicator *live*. The same principles are also applicable when students see sentences with the verb *be* as the Finite.

Students may ask further questions such as how to create an interrogative sentence. The teacher can explain that it can be done by moving the Finite *does* to the front and the Predicator *lives* stays put as in *Does Mary live in Jakarta*? When the students ask how to change the sentence into the past tense, the teacher can tell them to change the Finite into the past tense as shown below.

- *Mary **lived** in Jakarta* (*Finite 'did' is fused with Predicator live*)
- *Mary **did not** live in Jakarta.*
- ***Did** Mary live in Jakarta*?

In this way, the students can see that the Finite is the 'busiest' element in English sentences because it does a lot of things that are fundamentally important in understanding English sentence patterns. By highlighting the Finite element, it is hoped that the students can see the meaning of grammar through functional interpretation of sentence patterns.

The last stage is how to **use** the form in context and the context of use is always text. Whatever sentence patterns are introduced, it is important for the teacher to show how they are used in texts. Teachers can use reading or conversational texts to show how Finites operate in texts and how they affect meanings when they are not correctly used.

2.1.1   Using Text as Context of Use

To enable students to use grammar in context entails involving students in the acts of communication; students need to be involved in the acts of creating texts, spoken or written. The context of grammar is text. Richards and Reppen (2014), to name but a few, are among those who advocate the importance of addressing grammar not only at the sentence level but also at the text level.

They view the teaching of grammar in two perspectives: grammar as knowledge and grammar as ability. "When viewed as ability, the focus is on how grammar is

used as a resource in the creation of spoken and written texts… (p. 5) and its unit focus is text (p. 6)"

In what follows, a text-based approach to teaching grammar is proposed. This approach has been inspired by the Reader Response theory (Iser 1978).

2.1.2 Reader-Response Approach

The Reader Response theory was originally introduced by Wolfgang Iser (1978) in the context of teaching scripture and literature. Although the concept does not traditionally originate in the field of language education, it renders strong relevance in the discussion of teaching grammar in context through texts. Basically, this theory suggests that when a student read a text, he or she must be permitted to create personal responses to the text by exercising 'imaginative recreation' of the text. The text does not have to be comprehended or interpreted as "what the teacher wants" (Rosenblatt 2005, p. 64); instead, the students is allowed to recreate the text by writing different texts in response to the read text.

For example, when a student reads the Cinderella story, he or she is allowed to create a new text, by rewriting the story, say, from the perspective of Cinderella's step mother or the prince, or Cinderella's secret admirer. In this way, the learner is allowed to personally engage in comprehending and creating text. Thus, one Cinderella text, when responded by the whole class, can trigger the production of many texts, many communicative events. Nolte (2012) call this making meaning activity 'One Text, many stories.'

The potential of the 'one text many stories' in teaching grammar as ability is illustrated in the following section. The illustration shows how the approach provides students with opportunities for guided noticing of form and meaning and meaningful communication. The grammatical item addressed here is the Finite.

2.2 The Absence of Finite

In EFL contexts, explicit teaching of form cannot be avoided since the knowledge of form can serve as a short cut to the understanding why an English sentence is structured the way it is. Students often demand explanation regarding why something is right or wrong, and teachers often find this situation very challenging.

It is quite common for English teachers in Asia to hear utterances, such as:

- *You in the classroom*?
- *My wife not there*.
- *I proud of you*.
- *The problem I have no money*
- *Everything will be all right as long as with you*.

Obviously, the ones producing the above-mentioned utterances fail to include the Finite element in their utterances. Facing such problems, English teachers in foreign language contexts may raise some questions with regard to why students consistently make such mistakes. Teaching and explaining sentence patterns that involve Finite is not really a complicated matter, and Asian teachers are usually quite knowledgeable about English grammar. The students, too, do not find the sentence patterns too challenging because many students do very well in multiple-choice grammar tests. However, when it comes to using this clause element in spoken or written communication contexts, Finite is often left out possibly because learners are more focused in the meanings or messages they want to convey. There is nothing terribly new about this phenomenon because the students are using their interlanguage system (Selinker 1972), but this does not mean that teachers can stop trying new strategies in teaching grammar so that the students notice the crucial element in English clause (Doughty and Williams 1998).

A strategy that might be helpful for the teacher in helping students to notice is by going a little bit further from introducing the form to interpreting the meaning of the form or raise awareness concerning the function of Finite in the clause. In this way, teachers can show them what happens if the Finite is missing from their clause.

For example, in a tribunal hearing session, a husband said, "*My wife not here.*" The absence of Finite here confused the officer since his utterance failed to indicate whether the event happened in the past or present. In a tribunal where clarity and accuracy regarding 'presentness' and 'pastness 'are pivotal, ignoring Finite can lead to serious consequences. That may be the reason why a professional interpreter is required although the client claims he or she speaks English.

2.2.1 A Teaching Strategy

In this section, some teaching strategies are proposed. The strategies presented here highlight the three stages in presenting grammar, namely, form, meaning and use. The first column contains the teaching activities whereas the second contains the illustrations of how the targeted grammatical items can be presented.

Activity	Illustration		
FORM			
Teacher introduces the **forms** using the metalanguage the students are familiar with (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb).	*a. Jimmy*	*is*	*there*
	noun	verb 'be'	adverb
	b. Jimmy	*is*	*healthy*
	noun	verb 'be'	adjective
Teacher explains that in every English clause there MUST be a verb and if there is no full verb in the clause, verb 'be' is used to fill out the verb slot as seen in examples *a, b* and *c*. When the clause has a verb, no helping verb 'be' is needed.	*c. Jimmy*	*is*	*a student*
	noun	verb 'be'	noun
	d. *Jimmy*	*studies*	*English*
	noun	lexical verb	noun

(continued)

Activity	Illustration		
MEANING			
Teacher introduces the **functions** or the meanings of the forms using the functional labels: Subject, Finite, Adjunct, Complement and Predicator. This is important to tell the difference between the structural and the functional label because what students are familiar with is actually the mixture between the functional and structural labels such as Subject + verb + adverb. This mixture is something to be corrected so that the Finite element, which is never discussed in students' books can be highlighted.	*a. Jimmy*	*is*	*there*
	noun	verb 'be'	adverb
	Subject	**Finite**	**Adjunct**
	b. Jimmy	*is*	*healthy*
	noun	verb 'be'	adjective
	Subject	**Finite**	**Complement**
Teacher emphasizes the Finite that is realized by full verb because the verb actually 'contain' a Finite and a Predicator.	*c. Jimmy*	*is*	*a student*
	noun	verb 'be'	noun
	Subject	**Finite**	**Complement**
	d. *Jimmy*	*studies*	*English*
	noun	full verb	Noun
	Subject	Finite 'does' + **Predicator** 'study'	**Complement**
Teacher discusses the consequences when the Finite element is left out.	Clause		Response
	*Jimmy **is** there*		***Is** he?*
			No. he isn't.
	Jimmy … there.		???
When the Finite is missing, the clause cannot be responded.	Clause		Response
	Jimmy studies English		**Does** he?
In yes/no question, it is the Finite that is responded.			
When the Finite is missing, people do not have any idea about when something happens and this is crucial in non-casual context.	*Jimmy there.*		When did it happen?
			Is it a habit or is it something that happened in the past?
USE			
Teacher **uses text as context** in teaching Finite.	The Hamster and the Frog		
Teacher explains that an English sentence has a Subject and a Finite. A sentence may have one clause or more.	A mangy looking guy (walks) into a very classy restaurant and (orders) a steak. The waitress says: "I'm sorry, but I don't think you can pay for your meal." The guy admits, "You're right. I don't have any money, but if I show you something you haven't seen before, will you give me my supper?"		
Teacher asks students to identify the clauses in a text. This is to allow students to see how the Finite is used in context.	The waitress, both curious and compassionate, says, "Only if what you show me isn't risqué."		

Activity	Illustration
Students are asked to underline the Subjects and put the Finites in brackets. This is to raise awareness about the Subject+Finite structure that carries the argument forward (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004)	"Deal!" says the guy and reaches into his coat pocket and pulls out a hamster. He puts the hamster on the ground and it runs across the room, directly to a piano. The hamster then proceeds to climb up the piano, and starts playing Gershwin songs.
Students write jokes or folklores by using the text as a model.	The waitress says, "You're right. I've never seen anything like that before. That hamster is truly good on the piano." The guy sits back and enjoys a fine steak supper with all the trimmings.
Teacher and students check the writing to see if there is any Finite missing in their essays.	Shortly thereafter, he asks the waitress, "Can I have a piece of that fine blueberry pie I see on the dessert cart over there?" "Only if you got another miracle up your sleeve", says the waitress. The guy reaches into his coat again and pulls out a frog. He puts the frog on the table, and the frog starts to sing up a storm!
	A stranger from a nearby table runs over to the guy and offers him $300 for the frog. The guy says "It's a deal." He takes the three hundred and gives the stranger the frog. The stranger runs out of the restaurant with dollar signs in his eyes and a big smile on his face.
	The waitress says to the guy "Are you some kind of nut? You sold a singing frog for $300? It must have been worth millions!"
	"No", says the guy. "The hamster is also a ventriloquist." http://jokes.christiansunite. com/Animals/The_Hamster_and_the_Frog. html)

2.3   Incorrect Use of Finite

Incorrect use of Finite, which is commonplace in EFL contexts, indicates how complicated this concept can be for language learners and even teachers. The following sentence is one of the so many examples we often come across in EFL writing.

> *She wants to tell that the curriculum is not make us more excellent but confuse.*

Reading the first Finite *wants*, we get the impression that actually the writer has a good grasp of Finite since the third person singular marker '*s*' attached to the verb 'want' is something that language learners often forget. However, when we look at the Finite in the second clause we realize that our first impression is wrong in that the writer fails to identify the Finite *does* that is supposed to be fused with Predicator *make* resulting in the incorrect use of Finite *is*.

Apart from the other mistakes we see in this sentence, the argument remains the same, that is, many language teachers, including the one writing the above sentence,

do not have good grasp of finiteness. If this is the case, how can they be expected to help the students improve their grammar? A teaching strategy is proposed here as an alternative in teaching the basic element of English clause.

2.3.1 A Teaching Strategy

Activity	Illustration			
FORM				
	(1)			
Teacher introduces the **form** to show the differences between verbs that have the Finite functions and those that do not.	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
	I	*watch*		*television*
	I	*watched*		*television*
	I	*am*	*watching*	*television*
	I	*was*	*watching*	*television*
Teacher explain that there is a big difference between Finite that is realized by verb *be* and those realized by lexical verbs that are? fused with Finites *do, did, does* (as explained in the previous section)	*I*	*will*	*watch*	*television*
	I	*will*	*be watching*	*television*
	I	*would*	*watch*	*television*
	I	*have*	*watch*	*television*
	I	*will*	*have been watching*	*television*
	(2)			
Teacher extends the explanation further to include more than one verb in a clause as shown in the first table in the illustration. Teacher explains that the Finite is very 'vulnerable' to changes. When the tense changes, the Finite has to change; when the Subject changes, the Finite does too; then the clause is negated, the Finite needs to be added with *not*; when the intent changes (from giving information to demanding information) the Finite has to move to the front – before the Subject. The rest of the clause remains the same.	Subject	Finite	Complement	Extended Predicator
	She	*made*	*me*	*do …*
	I	*asked*	*him*	*to go*
	Note: The Finites are the ones attached to the Subjects; the others are Extended Predicators specifying the predicators that are fused with the Finites. That is why they are not subject to changes.			
MEANING				
Teacher introduces the **meanings** of Finite further by showing that actually the Subject and the Finite carries the Mood or the feeling of the clause.	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
	You	*will*	*marry*	*her*
	You	*can*	*marry*	*her*
	You	*may*	*marry*	*her*
	You	*must*	*marry*	*her*
	You	*should*	*marry*	*her*
Teacher shows that in every English clause there is the 'feeling' part and the 'content' part. The feeling is expressed by the Subject and Finite; the content part is expressed by the rest of the clause.	Note: The Finites realized by the modals express the speaker's feelings or attitude towards the content *marry her*.			

(continued)

Activity	Illustration	
Teacher provides examples of different kinds of feelings using various modals all of which are Finites.	It is important, therefore, that teachers highlight the meanings of Finites as a clause element that carries different interpersonal meanings.	
USE		
Teacher uses a text (a song) to show the **use** of Subject +Finite to express different feelings in a song.	Song: Nobody's Child	
	Identifying Finite	Using Subject+Finites to express feelings
Teacher explains how the seemingly mundane simple or past tenses express strong feelings about something.	As I (was) slowly passing an orphan's home one day. And (stopped) there for a moment just to watch the children play.	The writer uses the past tense (shown by the Finites) to tell the readers what happened in the past. S/he is one hundred percent certain that the events did occur.
	Alone a boy (was) standing and when I (asked) him why,	
Teacher can also highlight the modality system that can be used as a resource for expressing different interpersonal meanings or feelings.	he (turned) with eyes that (could not) see and he (began) to cry.	S/he does not use any modals that indicate uncertainty.
	I'm nobody's child	This paragraph is a citation; it is what the boy in the story actually said.
	I'm nobody's child	
This is to show how Subject + Finite needs to be carefully chosen in communication. Incorrect uses of Subject + Finite may result in the wrong expressions of feelings/attitudes and judgment.	Just like a flower I'm growing wild .	Since it is a citation, it uses direct speech using the present tense.
	No mommy's kisses and no daddy's smile	
Teacher can also ask the students to experiment with changing the text as if the blind child wrote it. Students can rewrite the song in a recount text in which students are forced to handle or use different finites in communication.	nobody wants me	The present tense expresses the feeling that what he experiences really happen and no doubt about it since no modals are used.
Another way of practicing how to use the Finites in a different context is by asking students to transform the story in the song into a conversation between the writer and the blind boy. In conversational texts, students use small clauses and therefore not all Finites will be produced.	I'm nobody's child.	The boy is one hundred percent certain and what is said is true all the time. It is indicated by the simple present tense.
	People come for children and take them for their own.	The boy continues the story and, again by using the simple present tense that indicates habit or something that always happens.
	But they all seem to pass me by and I'm left here all alone.	

(continued)

Activity	Illustration	
Alternatively, the teacher can also ask students to write a short drama script about the story by adding more details to the simple story to give students more opportunities to use Finites in context. Once the script is completed, the students can perform the drama.	I know they'd like to take me but when they see I'm blind	However, in the second sentence the child chooses the Finite *seem* that shows less certainty. He is not one hundred percent certain about people passing him by because he is blind.
	they always take some other child and I am left behind.	
Teacher can also ask students to respond to the song in various ways. For example, some students can act as if they were the blind boy and they write a letter to the song writer to tell what has happened to him. Some other students can also act as if they were the writer writing a letter to the blind boy.	No mommy's arms to hold me or soothe me when I cry.	This paragraph starts with the simple present tense again showing absolute certainty.
	Sometimes it gets so lonely I wish that I could die.	In the second sentence, Finites *wish* and *could* are used to express wishes that are unreal.
	I'd walk the streets of heaven where all the blinds can see.	Since he wants to express things that are unreal, the following sentences use Finite *would* (in *I'd*) to express imagination.
	And just like all the other kids there'd be a home for me.	Although he expresses something imaginative, he also shows certainty that in heaven the blinds *can* see.

2.4 Overuse of Finite

If the previous section discusses the missing and the incorrect use of Finites, this section will focus on the overuse of Finites. The language learners and teachers who produce the following sentences seem to be aware of the mandatory element in the clause called Finite. The awareness seems to be so strong that they take all precautions to make sure that the Finite is in place. Here are some examples:

- *How are the interpersonal meaning through the construction of words **is** realized*?
- *It's great to see water **is** everywhere…*
- *Did they **took** your bait*?

Seen from the systemic functional grammar perspective, the learners seem to have problems with clause complex described as two or more clauses logically connected as illustrated by Gerot and Wignell (1995, p. 82).

> *John invited the Wilsons to the party, but they didn't come which made John rather indignant as he had thought he was doing them a favor.*

The above sentence consists of several clause and to identify how many clauses there are, students need to find how many Subject + Finite constructions in the sentence. The above sentence can be broken down into five clauses:

John (*invited*) *the Wilsons to the party*,
   but they (didn't) come
   which (made) John rather indignant as
   he (had) thought
   he (*was*) *doing them a favor*.

There are some verbs in the five clauses, but not all of them are Finites. When, for example, people want to change the past tense into the present, only the Finites change; the rest do not. This may look like a simple matter, but when some clauses are combined to create a clause complex where a number of words are in operation confusion can often be seen. A teaching strategy is proposed here to help teachers confront the problems.

2.4.1   A Teaching Strategy

Activity	Illustration
FORM	
Teacher introduces the **form** of clause complex by drawing the students' attention to how a complex is constructed.	*Nobody's Child*
	(1) As I (was) slowly passing an orphan's home one day
	(2) and (stopped) there for a moment just to watch the children play.
	(3) Alone a boy (was) standing and when
Students identify how many clauses there are in one sentence or utterance by identifying Subject+Finite constructions in a text.	*(4) I (asked) him why.*
	(5) He (turned) with eyes
	(6) that (could not) see
	(7) and he (began) to cry.
Teacher explains in what way an element in clause number 2, '*the children play*' cannot be called a clause although it has Subject+Finite elements.	Note on clause (2):
	The main (independent) clause is *I stopped*.
	The rest of the clause is called Circumstancial Adjunct of time (*for a moment*) and purpose (*to watch the children play*)
Teacher explains how logical relations can be created through conjunctions, conjunctives and even in the absence of conjunctions.	*The children* is not the Subject of a clause because it is the complement or the Object of the main clause and, therefore, cannot be followed by a Finite.
	The verb *play* here is not a Finite because the complete version of the clause is in fact *the children who play* where the relator *who* is the Subject (not *the children*).
	That is why *the children play* in clause (2) is not a clause.

Activity	Illustration	
MEANING		
Teacher introduces the **meaning** of logical relations created in clause.	Conjunction/Conjunctive	Clause
	As	*I was slowly passing …*
	And	*(I) stopped there …*
		A boy was standing
	And when	*I asked him why*
		he turned his eyes
		that could not see
	And	*he began to cry.*
Teacher emphasizes the identification of conjunctions and conjunctives as they often become 'clause marker' in a text in that they signal the existence of clause and thus a Finite.	Note:	
	As illustrated above, conjunctions and conjunctives can be used as the clause marker in that they are often followed by clauses. When students know this, they may feel more confident is checking whether or not a verb serves as Finite or not and they do not, for example, put all verbs in a clause in the past tense or put unnecessary Finites after a noun.	
	Some common conjunctions/conjunctives commonly found in text include: and, or, but, after, if, because, although, where and so on.	
USE		
Teacher involves students in **using** clause complex by asking students to create texts.	Mind Map	
To encourage the use of a clause complexes, teacher can use a mind map that depicts logical relations among concepts.		

Activity	Illustration
The relations created should include paradigmatic and syntagmatic or hierarchical relations expressed in coordination and subordination in sentences.	Note:
	Students can write a descriptive or an information report text based on this mind map, thus the communicative purpose is to describe some aspects one needs to consider in order to stay healthy.
By having exercises in creating texts that challenge the students to be precise in handling Finites, it is hoped that they will eventually gain better control in using Finite in real communication	The text can be structured by describing the health elements, one by one: diet, sleep, stress, exercise and help. These elements are related paradigmatically.
	Every element also has syntagmatic relations with health (higher order) and the other elements in its lower order. Diet, for example, has hierarchical relationships with health and fruit, fiber etc.

Although the present discussion is focused on the teaching the Finite element of the clause, the activities show that when teachers use texts as the contexts of teaching grammar, the Finite element is not the only grammatical aspect that is developed. By using the one-text-many-stories method other aspects of grammar such as conjunction, pronoun, and modality can also be developed in tandem.

3   The Use of Information Technology

Nowadays, the Internet has become an important part in the teaching of English in non-English speaking countries, especially in giving teachers access to a large variety of texts. On-line newspapers, pop-up advertisements, websites containing examples of text types as well as English narratives are very useful in providing the contexts for grammar teaching. These resources provide authentic models for grammar use in real spoken and written communication. In order to provide good examples of how grammar is used and how good texts are created, teachers can use Youtube links such as https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RyO1w9x2s-M where teachers can find interesting narratives of Aesop. For adult learners, the links connecting listeners to some TED TALKS where one can learn to talk for different purposes from expert speakers can be accessed through https://www.ted.com/talks.

With regard to teaching the discrete element such as finiteness, some links provide opportunities for students to understand the concept as well as online exercises. These can be found, among others, in the following links:

- http://www.englishpractice.com/improve/finite-nonfinite-verbs/
- http://www.myenglishpages.com/site_php_files/grammar-exercise-finite-non-finite-verb.php
- http://www.ecenglish.com/learnenglish/lessons/finite-and-non-finite-verbs
- http://www.grammar-quizzes.com/sent-nonfinite.html

These links show different ways of explaining finiteness and provide some activities that can engage learners in the learning processes.

4   Conclusion

The teaching of grammar in foreign language contexts has been done for as long as the history of English language teaching in Asia. Many approaches, methods and techniques have been suggested and documented, but there is one persistent problem, finiteness, which does not seem to be easily learned compared to other aspects of grammar. Unfortunately, Finite is a fundamental element in the English clause since it defines the clause as much as Subject. So far, many grammar books address English sentence patterns from a structural perspective but the descriptions of the patterns often mix the functional and structural levels of abstraction. The structural description does help students in structuring words into different patterns, but it seems to have failed to explain why some verbs are subject to modifications or changes while some are not. The functional approach suggested here is an attempt to bring a perspective that is not only descriptive but explanatory. This is just one way of bringing functional grammar into foreign language classroom (Jones and Lock 2011).

Some studies by Liamkina (2005), Liamkina and Pankova (2012), Sprang (2003), and Harley (1989) have demonstrated the positive effect of functional approaches to grammar instruction on second language acquisition. While Liamkina and Pankova and Sprang did their studies in the teaching of German grammar and Harvey of the French grammar, the results prove to be consistent in that a functional approach to grammar turns students and teachers to be researchers and analysts during their exposure to texts and thereby they see the connection between grammar and communication. This article confirms the previous findings and advocates a set of strategies along the same line but in a different light.

Note

1. All functional labels start with capital letters as in Subject and Finite to distinguish them from structural labels as in noun, verb etc.

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Teaching Vocabulary in the EFL Context

Anna Siyanova-Chanturia and Stuart Webb

Abstract Teaching vocabulary in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context is challenging. Incidental vocabulary learning is limited due to a lack of second language (L2) input, and most words are learned through classroom instruction. Overall, research has shown marginal L2 vocabulary growth in many EFL situations. Such research indicates a need for a more effective and efficient approach to teaching vocabulary in the EFL context. This chapter discusses how to optimise vocabulary learning in the EFL context. It touches on the following questions: Which words should be taught? How should vocabulary be taught? How many words do EFL learners need to know? What should a vocabulary-learning programme include? How can vocabulary learning be fostered given limited classroom time? Which activities might be useful in indirect vocabulary learning?

Keywords Vocabulary size • Vocabulary learning • Extensive reading • Extensive viewing • Vocabulary-learning programme

1 Introduction

Both first (L1) and second (L2) language educators and researchers agree that mastering vocabulary is of great importance in one's becoming a mature language user. Although learning vocabulary in a L1 and L2 is not fundamentally different, one of the important ways in which L1 and L2 vocabulary learning does differ is the rate of vocabulary growth. In the L1 learning context, the amount of regular input is immense allowing for much of vocabulary to be learnt incidentally. In contrast, the smaller amount of regular input in the L2 context means that the opportunities for learning new vocabulary items are limited, with relatively few words being acquired

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incidentally. It is, thus, hypothesised that teachers have the greatest influence on the quality and quantity of L2 vocabulary learnt by EFL learners (Laufer 2003). Because teachers play such a key role and ultimately decide what will be learnt, their careful planning and general knowledge of the issues involved in vocabulary learning may help enhance the learning process. The present chapter has as its aim to address a number of questions with regard to vocabulary size and coverage, the amount and type of vocabulary that EFL learners may know and need to know, core components of a vocabulary-learning programme, activities and opportunities for incidental vocabulary acquisition, as well as the role of the teacher in vocabulary learning in the EFL context.

2 Vocabulary Size and Coverage: Key Facts and Figures

According to Nation (2006), one of the ways of deciding on vocabulary learning goals in an English language-learning programme is to look at native speaker's vocabulary size. It is estimated that a well-educated native speaker of English knows about 20,000 word families, or around 32,000 vocabulary items, excluding proper names (Goulden et al. 1990). Clearly, this figure is a very ambitious and rather unrealistic goal for any L2 learning programme. It has been proposed that the vocabulary size of a highly educated non-native speaker of English is around 8000–9000 word families (Nation 2006) – less than a half of that of a native speaker of English.

Another, perhaps, more realistic, way of determining vocabulary learning goals is to identify how much vocabulary is needed in order to perform a particular activity in the target language, such as, for example, reading newspapers or novels, watching movies, participating in conversations, and so on (Nation 2006). When deciding on the amount of vocabulary needed for L2 learners to be able to successfully engage in a particular task, it is important to consider the relationship between lexical coverage (percentage of known words in a text) and reading comprehension. Hu and Nation (2000) studied precisely that. They determined lexical coverage by replacing the low frequency items in their text with nonsense words (such that one could be certain they were unknown to the learner). Reading comprehension was measured using a reading comprehension test and a cued recall test. It was found that with a text coverage of 80 % (one in every five words being a nonsense word), no L2 reader was able to demonstrate satisfactory comprehension. When the text coverage figure was increased to 90 %, a very small number of learners demonstrated adequate comprehension. When the figure was further increased to 100 %, most learners were able to demonstrate good comprehension of the text. Further analysis revealed that 98 % text coverage (i.e., one unknown word in every 50 words) would be required for most L2 learners to achieve good comprehension of a text.

With this figure in mind, in a more recent corpus study, Nation (2006) investigated how large a vocabulary was needed to adequately comprehend a variety of written and spoken texts. For example, it was found that a vocabulary of 9000 word

families (made from the British National Corpus (BNC)) would be needed to read *Lady Chatterley's Lover* by D. H. Lawrence, and a vocabulary of 8000–9000 would be needed to read other similar novels. Interestingly, a similar 8000–9000 vocabulary size was found to be needed for adequate comprehension of newspaper texts. When simplified texts, such as graded readers designated for language learners, were looked at (e.g., *The Picture of Dorian Gray* by O. Wilde), it was found that only 3000 word families were needed to achieve a 98 % coverage level. Nation (2006) also looked at spoken texts, such as a children's movie *Shrek* and unscripted spoken English. The former required about 7000 word families and the latter a comparable 6000–7000 word families, excluding proper nouns. It was concluded that if one takes 98 % as the ideal coverage, a 8000–9000 word-family vocabulary is needed to deal with most written texts, and 6000–7000 word families are required to deal with most spoken texts (other figures have also been proposed; for example, van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) found that, based on a 95 % coverage figure, language learners would need to know 2000–3000 word families for adequate listening comprehension, which is, clearly, lower than Nation's (2006) estimate of 6000–7000 families based on a 98 % figure). These vocabulary sizes might be considered as useful language learning targets.

3   How Much Vocabulary Do EFL Learners Know?

L2 vocabulary learning progress is often slow and uneven. Whereas native speakers may learn, on average, 1000 word families each year until the age of 20 (Goulden et al. 1990). This rate of growth is clearly unrealistic in the EFL learning context. This is due to a number of inter-related factors, such as insufficient input, lack of opportunities to use the language outside the classroom (insufficient output), teaching methods used (communicative language teaching vs. grammar-translation method), amount of time dedicated to the English language in general, amount of time dedicated to vocabulary learning in particular, and so on.

By and large, studies have shown that English vocabulary knowledge and learning rates in the EFL context fall far short of what is considered to be a norm in the L1 context. For example, Nurweni and Read (1999) investigated the English vocabulary knowledge of 324 first-year university students in the Indonesian EFL context. They found that after six years of formal English language instruction, on average, the learners knew 1226 English words (986 words, or just under 50 %, of the General Service List (West 1953) and 240 words, or 30 %, of the University Word List (Xue and Nation 1984)). Given that L2 learners of English are thought to require 4000–5000 words to be able read university level textbooks (Nation 1990), it is evident that the EFL learners in Nurweni and Read (1999) were not equipped even with the most basic vocabulary to be able to cope with university-level readings. As the authors conclude, the limited vocabulary knowledge found in their study is disconcerting as Indonesian EFL learners are expected to have the vocabulary size of a minimum of 4000 words upon entry to the university. As a possible solution to such

an alarmingly low level of vocabulary gains, the authors recommended paying more attention to vocabulary learning; in particular, focusing more directly on teaching high-frequency words.

Such was also the conclusion of Webb and Chang (2012), who investigated the vocabulary knowledge of 166 EFL learners in Taiwan over a period of five years. They measured students' vocabulary learning progress using the *Vocabulary Levels Test* (VLT: Schmitt et al. 2001). The data were examined according to the number of hours of English language instruction that learners had received (e.g., while one group enjoyed between 10 and 22 h of English classes per week, another group had a mere 2–6 h of English per week). The authors found that those with less exposure to English learnt significantly fewer words (some learnt as few as 18 words in one year), while the learners with greater exposure learnt as many as 430 words in one year. Perhaps, most disappointingly, the study revealed that after nine years of English language instruction, less than half of all the learners had mastered the words in the first 1000 word families. More disappointingly still, only 16 % of the learners had mastered the words in the second 1000 word families. Similar to Nurweni and Read (1999), Webb and Chang (2012) highlighted the need to specifically focus on the high-frequency words, that is, those in the first and second 1000 word families.

4   Choosing Words to Be Learned in an English Language-Learning Programme

Frequency plays a central role in language acquisition, processing and use. It is believed that the language processor is tuned to input frequency because language users are sensitive to the frequencies of linguistic events in their experiences. Lexical frequency effects are, arguably, some of the most robust in psycholinguistic research, and are thought to be responsible for the organisation of the lexicon (Bod et al. 2003; Ellis 2002; Forster 1976). Indeed, frequency is a decisive (albeit not the only) factor indicating which L1 words are likely to be learned and when. Some words are acquired early on in a child's life (*milk, bottle, dog*), others may be acquired later in life (*internet, university, marriage*); many words, however, may never be acquired, used, or ever encountered by even highly educated L1 users (terms and other very low frequency words: *dactylion, tachyphagia, yclept*). It is, thus, hardly surprising that frequency of occurrence should be the guiding force in language teachers' and course designers' decisions regarding what should be taught to L2 learners and when. Over the past two decades, corpus-driven studies of written and spoken discourse have been fundamental in improving our understanding of the relative frequency of words and, hence, value of vocabulary in language learning and teaching.

In the corpus study described above, Nation (2006) found that a 8000–9000 word-family vocabulary is needed to deal with written texts, and 6000–7000 word families are needed to adequately comprehend spoken texts. More importantly,

Nation (2006) concluded that the greatest variation in vocabulary is likely to occur in the first 1000 word families, which cover around 80 and 83 % of written and spoken texts, respectively. Similarly, the most frequent 1000 word families in the BNC were also found to cover over 85 % of the words in 88 television programmes (Webb and Rodgers 2009a) and around 86 % of the words in 318 movies (Webb and Rodgers 2009b). These findings demonstrate the value of the high frequency words and, thus, make learning the first 1000 word families of primary importance in any English language-learning programme. On the contrary, the second 1000 word families in Nation (2006) were found to account for around 9 and 6 % of written and spoken language, respectively, while combined the fourth and the fifth 1000 word families were found to provide only 3 % coverage of written and 2 % coverage of spoken texts. Clearly, however, in order to reach specific language learning goals and be able to communicate effectively in the L2, it is fundamental to learn and be able to operate with the words beyond the first 1000 word families.

What these figures demonstrate, first and foremost, is the relative value of words in vocabulary learning. Learners' primary task should be sufficient mastery of the words in the most frequent 1000 word families before they move on to second or third 1000-word levels. Evidently, learners learn (or attempt to learn) what teachers present them with. Thus, an important role in the mammoth task of vocabulary learning belongs to language teachers and course designers, whose duty it is to choose, in a principled way, which words should be learned and when.

Earlier in the chapter, we reported that students in various EFL contexts, even those studying at a university, may not know some of the high-frequency words found in the first 1000 word families, and may know very few, if any, words in the second 1000 word families (Danelund 2013; Nurweni and Read 1999; Quinn 1968; Webb and Chang 2012). These learners' vocabulary knowledge can be said to fall far short of what is expected of an EFL learner upon entry to university. These rather disheartening findings suggest that vocabulary learning in the EFL context may be lacking a number of important elements, both at the level of course planning and course delivery. In what follows below, we discuss what can be done to improve the effectiveness of the EFL learning programme on vocabulary development.

5 Vocabulary-Learning Programme: Key Features

A number of challenges exist with respect to L2 vocabulary learning and teaching. First, much unlike L1 vocabulary learning, L2 vocabulary learning rates are slow and uneven. This is largely due to insufficient input and lack of opportunities to use the language in and outside the classroom. Second, the sheer task may appear daunting – there is simply too much to learn. An educated native speaker knows 20,000 word families, while an educated L2 speaker's vocabulary is 8000–9000 words – even the latter may be a life-long challenge for an EFL learner. Finally, words differ vastly in their frequency and coverage and, hence, learning worth – it is, therefore, imperative to choose words judiciously. It makes little sense to introduce an EFL

learner to words from the second 1000 families (or beyond) until the words in the first 1000 word families have been mastered, if not productively then at least receptively. What can help learners and teachers in the vocabulary-learning quest is the development of a sound institutional programme aimed at optimising vocabulary teaching and learning.

A prominent example of such a programme is Nation's (2001) model that incorporates the vocabulary component of a language course. The main tenets and elements of this model can be summarised as follows:

1. *Establishing goals and needs.*

   While an overarching goal will, inevitably, be to increase learners' vocabulary size, more specific goals may differ from one group of learners to another. For example, depending on what the learners already know, the focus may be on high-frequency, academic, technical, or low-frequency vocabulary. In order to identify the goals and to establish what kind of vocabulary teachers should focus on, it is important to find out what vocabulary learners already know. Nation (2001) and Webb and Chang (2012) suggest using diagnostic testing, such as the VLT (Schmitt et al. 2001), or *Productive Levels Test* (Laufer and Nation 1999). While the VLT is a receptive test and the scores will indicate whether learners can *recognise* the meanings of L2 forms, the Productive Levels Test indicates whether learners might be able to produce the L2 forms of words when speaking and writing. Thus, teachers should establish what vocabulary learners already know and can use, and which words should be focused on and to what extent.

2. *Taking into account environmental factors.*

   Nation (2001) suggests establishing features and characteristics of the learners (e.g., Do they share the same L1?), the teachers (e.g., Are teachers well informed about teaching and learning vocabulary?), and the situation (e.g., Do L1 and L2 share cognate vocabulary?).

3. *Following vocabulary-teaching principles.*

   Arguably, the core of Nation's model is the three principles of *content and sequencing*, *format and presentation*, and *monitoring and assessment*. The principle of content and sequencing deals with the vocabulary to be learnt, the stages and means of learning. For example, frequency and range of occurrence should be the main guiding force in deciding what should be learnt and when. Students should also be trained in vocabulary-learning strategies (guessing from context, learning word parts, learning to use a dictionary, using word cards) and be familiarised with what is involved in knowing a word (form, meaning, aspects of use). With regards to the principle of format and presentation, Nation (2001) emphasises that high-frequency words should occur in the four strands of meaning-focused input (learning through listening and reading activities that are oriented towards comprehension and enjoyment), meaning-focused output (learning through speaking and writing), language-focused learning (deliberately learning language features such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse), and fluency development (which does not involve the learning of new vocabulary

items, but focuses on becoming fluent in using what the learner already knows). The four strands are a useful basis for vocabulary learning, because each strand focuses on different aspects of knowing and using a word and contributes to vocabulary development in its own unique way. In addition, this principle highlights the importance of spaced, repeated exposures to the target vocabulary (we will come back to this principle in the final section of the chapter). Finally, the principle of monitoring and assessment centres on a regular and systematic use of various types of assessment (e.g., tests, quizzes) in order to measure learning progress, but also to motivate and encourage learners. Depending on the goals, some assessment may happen weekly or fortnightly (short-term achievement), while other forms of evaluation may only happen twice, at the beginning and at the end of the course (long-term achievement).

4. *Evaluation of the vocabulary component of a language course.*
   The final component of the model centres on evaluating the effectiveness of the vocabulary component of a language programme. Nation (2001, 2008) provides a number of principles that can be used to achieve this aim. The following questions draw on some of these principles:

   (a) Were the target vocabulary learning goals reached?
   (b) Were the important environmental factors taken into account?
   (c) Were the learners' needs met?
   (d) Are teachers and learners happy with the vocabulary-learning programme? If not, do they understand its key components and principles?
   (e) Did the learners' development of vocabulary knowledge extend beyond the learning of form and meaning? Were the learners able to *use* the target vocabulary? If not, were there sufficient opportunities for students to encounter the target vocabulary (in and outside the classroom)? Were the learners encouraged to use extracurricular activities for indirect vocabulary learning?

6 Vocabulary Learning Activities: Learning Outside the Classroom

As has been pointed out throughout the chapter, researchers and educators recommend paying more attention to vocabulary learning and strategically focusing on teaching high-frequency words. However, there is a limit to how much vocabulary can be explicitly taught in the classroom. It is not uncommon for EFL students to have a very limited exposure to the target language (some learners in Webb and Chang (2012) had as few as two hours of English classes per week). In addition, not all of this time will be dedicated to vocabulary learning; other aspects, such as grammar, will too be part of the curriculum. It may, therefore, be of considerable value to encourage EFL learners to engage in a number of extracurricular, out-of-classroom activities that focus on and promote the acquisition of new vocabulary.

As Nation (2001) notes, opportunities for indirect vocabulary learning should occupy much more time in a language course than direct vocabulary learning activities. Such indirect activities may, for example, include extensive reading and extensive viewing.

6.1 Extensive Reading

Reading may not be *the* main source of vocabulary acquisition in an instructed language-learning context (Laufer 2003), but it can be used as a useful activity outside the EFL classroom. It is also one of the activities central to Nation's (2001) strand of meaning-focused input. Second language researchers, educators and practitioners have long acknowledged an important role of reading in vocabulary acquisition (Pigada and Schmitt 2006). It has been claimed that acquiring vocabulary through reading leads to learning gains due to repeated encounters with the same word (according to Nation's (2001) core principles of vocabulary teaching, spaced, repeated exposures are imperative for vocabulary learning). This suggests that longer texts might be better suited for vocabulary learning purposes than shorter ones, as the same word is more likely to be encountered a number of times. Extensive reading has been argued to be particularly effective in vocabulary learning. Not only does extensive reading offer opportunities for repeated exposure to the same lexical item, but it also provides learners with opportunities to encounter words in their contexts of use, thus helping them notice, read, analyse, and eventually learn new items.

Modern technology can also help teachers use extensive reading more effectively in the EFL context. For example, the RANGE programme (Nation and Heatley 2002) allows teachers to tactically choose texts for different courses according to the vocabulary level of their learners. When selecting texts for use in and outside the classroom, it is advisable to use texts that are primarily made of high frequency words and contain relatively few low frequency words. The RANGE programme, which allows the user to compare vocabulary loads of a large number of texts at the same time, is easy to use and can be an invaluable tool for teachers and course designers alike. Webb and Chang (2012) argue that judiciously selecting texts that largely contain high frequency words will provide superior conditions for text comprehension and will allow the learner to focus their attention on the target vocabulary. Other researchers have similarly argued for the relative simplicity of extensive reading texts, and have outlined some of the key principles to be borne in mind when choosing extensive reading material for a language-learning programme. For example, Day and Bamford (2002) put forward ten principles for an extensive reading approach that deal with the nature of extensive reading, as well as the conditions and methodologies necessary for its implementation and success:

1. The reading material is easy (i.e., primary focus on high-frequency vocabulary; the RANGE programme can help teachers select appropriate texts);

2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available;
3. Learners choose what they want to read;
4. Learners read as much as possible (i.e., multiple encounters with a new word are necessary; Nation and Wang (1999) suggest that learners need to read about one book per week in order to meet repetitions of a new word soon enough to reinforce the previous meeting);
5. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding;
6. Reading is its own reward;
7. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower;
8. Reading is individual and silent;
9. Teachers orient and guide learners;
10. The teacher is a role model of a reader.

As can be seen, the focus is primarily on L2 learners – their choice, their reading for pleasure, and their comfort zone. Importantly, extensive reading promotes learner autonomy, can be motivating, and can result in substantial vocabulary learning, which is difficult to achieve with explicit teaching during the short period of time that L2 learners spend in the classroom (Pigada and Schmitt 2006). Finally, as Nation (2001) points out, the use of reading may be one of the few options for out-of-class vocabulary development for some learners, such as, for example, EFL learners. Researchers have, therefore, recommended including extensive reading into the language-learning programme (Day and Bamford 2002; Pigada and Schmitt 2006).

6.2   Extensive Viewing

It has been argued that word knowledge involves a number of skills and that word learning can be facilitated by approaches and methods that provide varied learning experiences. Extensive reading *may* be one of the few options for out-of-class vocabulary development available to EFL learners (Nation 2001), but it is not the only one. Researchers also suggest that an approach that involves comprehensible and enjoyable aural input in the form of extensive listening to aural versions of graded readers and other text types may be a useful way to further expand vocabulary knowledge and listening skills (Chang and Millet 2014; Renandya and Farrell 2011). Extensive viewing of L2 television is another such activity that can complement extensive reading (Webb 2009, 2014).

Television, movies and videos have a long history in English language teaching and learning, and research into the ways in which popular media can be used to enhance English learning dates back to the 1980s (Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia 2014). EFL learners are particularly encouraged to watch English television programmes outside the classroom (Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia 2014; Nurweni and

Read 1999) since research has shown that it can aid the learning of English vocabulary (Koolstra and Beentjes 1999; Lin 2014).

Webb (2009, 2014) recommended extensive viewing of English language television programmes as an approach to increasing vocabulary growth. Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia (2014) suggest that *internet television* may be an ideal material for developing autonomous vocabulary learners. They argue that EFL learners can take internet television with them and watch it wherever they happen to be (while commuting, at home, at university). Recent technological developments mean that internet television is accessible with a few clicks on an internet-enabled smartphone (or another mobile devise), allowing learners to receive authentic input even if they have only a few minutes on a train.

According to Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia (2014), the following principles demonstrate the potential of internet television, especially, in the EFL context where classroom time is limited:

1. Learners receive extensive exposure to English;
2. Learners have the opportunity to observe authentic, everyday English. This is especially important in the context of formulaic language which has been found to be particularly problematic for L2 learners (Siyanova and Schmitt 2007, 2008; Siyanova-Chanturia and Martinez 2015);
3. Internet television facilitates contextual vocabulary acquisition.

Extensive viewing is not unlike extensive reading, in that it too promotes repeated exposure to lexical items and exploits contextual cues available to the viewer. With regard to the latter, however, television provides multimodal (e.g., aural, visual) contextual cues, which are likely to make it easier for learners to not only work out the meaning of an unknown lexical item, but also to learn the new item (Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia 2014). Simply put, given the availability of multimodal contextual cues, fewer exposures may be necessary for vocabulary learning to take place.

One of the principles of extensive reading proposed by Day and Bamford (2002) is that it should be easy. Because television puts emphasis on authentic (unmodified) input, this is unlikely to apply to extensive viewing of television. Moreover, while extensive reading is suitable for any level (beginner, intermediate, advanced), television may only be suitable for more advanced EFL learners. Even then, learners may need help and guidance on how to make watching television a valuable learning (rather than entertainment only) experience. The following strategies, adapted from Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia (2014), may help guide EFL learners:

1. Repeated viewing: Repeated viewing leads to repeated encounters with a vocabulary item. There is no maximum number of times that a learner can watch a given episode (in Nation's (2001) model, the importance of repeated encounters with the target item is emphasised);
2. Training on contextual vocabulary learning skills: This will help learners acquire implicitly from watching television;
3. Programme selection: While learners' individual interests should be prioritised, Lin (2014) argues that programmes should be chosen based on the extent to

which they reflect real language use. Lin (2014) found that television programmes in the factual, drama and comedy categories were more representative of everyday English than programmes in the music, learning and religion categories;

4. Narrow viewing: Viewing programmes on the same or similar theme, which is more likely to provide multiple repetitions of vocabulary items and may help learners accumulate vocabulary on a particular topic (Rodgers and Webb 2011);

5. Subtitles: These can be used in the same language as the programme (*intralingual* subtitles), or in another language, such as learners' L1 (*interlingual* subtitles). Subtitles have been found to aid vocabulary learning (Koolstra and Beentjes 1999). However, more research is needed on the effect of subtitles on foreign language learning, as recent findings suggest that while foreign-language subtitles may assist learning, native-language subtitles may, in fact, create lexical interference (Mitterer and McQueen 2009).

Finally, learners may also benefit from reading-while-listening activities. Research suggests that reading while listening can lead to greater vocabulary learning than reading alone (Webb and Chang 2012; Webb et al. 2013). TED Talks (http://www.ted.com/) and other similar services provide a range of videos and talks with transcripts. In addition, Tom Cobb's Compleat Lexical Tutor (available at http://www.lextutor.ca/) offers a range of electronic versions of graded and ungraded readers accompanied by recordings that learners can listen to before, after, or during reading. It is noteworthy that the Compleat Lexical Tutor is an extremely valuable resource for teachers and learners alike, offering (among other things) such tools as word lists, concordancers, vocabulary profilers, and vocabulary tests.

Overall, researchers agree that watching (traditional) television and internet television can be a useful EFL activity promoting learner autonomy and enhancing vocabulary learning, and recommend including extensive viewing of television into the language-learning programme.

7   Conclusion

In the present chapter, we raised a number of issues pertinent to vocabulary teaching and learning in the EFL context. Overall, research has shown only marginal L2 vocabulary growth, suggesting that vocabulary learning in many EFL situations may be inefficient. These findings call into question current EFL pedagogies and practices. We argued that careful development of the vocabulary component of a language course – that takes into account the core principles of vocabulary teaching – might have a positive and long-lasting effect on the development of vocabulary knowledge among EFL learners. Finally, we proposed that a number of extracurricular, out-of-class activities, such as extensive reading and extensive viewing, have the potential to contribute to vocabulary development and enhance EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge.

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Teaching Pronunciation to Learners of English as a Lingua Franca

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Abstract This chapter discusses three major issues in the teaching of English pronunciation: Why, What, and How. As the world evolves into a global village, the need for English to function as a lingua franca is ever increasing. Thus, the goals of teaching English pronunciation have become manifold. The traditional aim of acquiring one "standard" pronunciation will not suffice. Learners nowadays have to learn to communicate with English speakers from different varieties: British, American, Australian, Indian, etc. This chapter will first argue why, more than ever before, pronunciation plays a major role in second language learning. It then outlines key components of English pronunciation that deserve instructional attention. These include segmental as well as suprasegmental features of speech that research has shown to be important in cross-cultural communications among bilingual or multilingual speakers of English in the world today. The last part will explore a number of pedagogical options for teaching pronunciation and will focus on the teaching of pronunciation features that will enable our L2 learners to communicate comfortably in diverse international settings. The use of online resources for exposing L2 learners to the many varieties of spoken English will also be explored as a viable pedagogical option in L2 classrooms.

1 Introduction: The Changing Landscape of English

As the world evolves into a global village, the need for English to function as a lingua franca is ever increasing. The differentiation between ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) no longer seems to be a useful perspective in English language teaching and learning. These two terms have been replaced by EIL (English as an International Language) or ELF (English

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as a Lingua Franca). The substitution is not merely a switch in terminology. It indicates a major change of mindset, which is important in English language teaching (ELT).

ELF is defined as "a means of communication between people who come from different first language backgrounds" (Jenkins 2012, p. 486). What it implies is that it is the English that all users of English, regardless of whether they are native or non-native speakers, ESL or EFL learners, employ to interact with each other. In Jenkins' own elaboration, a speaker of ELF includes "… any user of English, be they from an L1 English country, a post-colonial English country, or a country where English is neither L1 nor official language" (Jenkins 2012, p. 487).

With such an all-encompassing definition of an English language 'user,' the goals of teaching English pronunciation have become manifold. The traditional aim of acquiring one 'standard' pronunciation will not suffice. Learners nowadays have to learn to communicate with English speakers of different varieties, both native and non-native. They have to understand the pronunciation features among these varieties, which can range from dialectal variations to learners' errors. Such a standpoint definitely imposes changes in terms of the content and methodology in pronunciation teaching and learning.

2 New Approaches and Goals

2.1 Intelligibility in an ELF Context

Ever since Jenkins (1998, 2000) introduced the concept of EIL, which later evolved into ELF, research in EIL/ELF has been shaped by the idea that the gist of teaching and learning of English should emphasize the ability to communicate with native and non-native speakers alike. Jenkins (2000) promotes the idea that, rather than adhering to one 'standard' norm, be it Received Pronunciation (RP) or General American (GA), the teaching and learning of English should not be dictated by any of these as the sole model because "there seems to be little reason to base the teaching of L2 English on an RP model, other than the fact that 'even in the inner circle only a specific elite group is considered as "norm makers", or as models for emulation' (Kachru 1985, p. 17)" and that "RP has altered over time" (ibid).

Wells (2005) agrees that it is not realistic "to ask for a choice between EFL and EIL: our students need both" (Wells 2005, p. 1). Indeed, learners learn English to interact with all speakers of English, not exclusively RP or GA speakers. The most important theme of ELF in ELT is to realistically acknowledge the existence of variability in language use.

Although Jenkins (2000) and Wells (2005) do not completely agree on the details of the Lingua Franca Core, both emphasize the importance of pronunciation features which impede intelligibility. As Jenkins has aptly pointed out that even when learners use a variant grammatical form or an inappropriate expression, they can

still be understood. It is usually the wrong pronunciation that leads to communication breakdown (Jenkins 2012). The decisive role of pronunciation in mutual intelligibility is evident. The effort of ELF researchers (Jenkins 2000, 2006; Seidlhofer 2001; Walker 2010, just to name a few) in advancing a paradigm shift in ELT is slowly paying off.

On the practical side, Wells (2005, p. 10) provides a few principles to follow within such a paradigm. He suggests that the teaching of English pronunciation in an EFL/EIL context should focus on areas which impede communication most but at the same time we should not undermine learners' confidence. Also, while the importance of effectively communicating with NSs should be maintained, NSs should be educated, too, so as to achieve mutual intelligibility from both sides.

Wells appeals to contrastive analysis (CA) as a way to locate areas of difficulty. Despite its rather simplistic approach, CA is a useful initial step to identifying potential areas of unintelligibility. It is through the careful comparison and contrast of L1 and English that teachers and learners of different language backgrounds can be made aware of the pronunciation features that are likely to cause problems in understanding among speakers of different varieties. Such awareness raising is crucial in language learning and is of primary importance in language teaching.

2.2 Awareness Raising in Pronunciation Teaching

Two factors in pronunciation teaching and learning are crucial: awareness raising (Burgess and Spencer 2000; Jenkins 2004; Jones 1997) and self-monitoring (Arteaga 2000; Hinkel 2006; Scarcella and Oxford 1994). First and foremost, if learners are unaware that their spoken English is unintelligible to other speakers, they will not take the initiative to change. This is exactly what the 'noticing hypothesis' of Schmidt (1990, 2001) refers to. It is especially applicable in the teaching and learning of pronunciation. If a learner is not able to notice the distinction between /iː/ and /ɪ/ in *beach* and *bitch*, how do we expect the learner to take the initiative to produce the different vowels? By the same token, if a teacher is ignorant of such distinctions, how can he/she make the learners become aware of such differences?

It has been found that phonemic awareness facilitates the learning of new vocabulary items among L1 children (Ehri 2005). In the learning process, learners form connections between sounds and spelling. When they see a word, they examine the spelling, they pronounce the word. Reading aloud the word a few times secures the connection in memory. Such a process requires the knowledge of grapheme-phoneme mapping and phonemic awareness. Phonemic awareness refers to the awareness of the discreet sound units which contribute to differences in meaning, for example, the /p/ in *pin* as opposed to the /f/ in *fin*, and the /b/ in *bin*, and so on. Such a process is a true reflection in L2 acquisition, too because most L2 learners rely heavily on printed materials to learn English. Many L2 learners deduce pronunciation of new words from their spelling. The crucial element, therefore, is to establish the sound to spelling correspondences. Thus, raising the phonemic awareness of learners in pronunciation teaching is indispensable. The awareness can be brought

about by examining the details in how the individual English segments are articulated and such details can be explicitly taught to learners. Phonemic awareness can also be achieved by comparing and contrasting the sounds of the learners' L1 with English. The primary concern is to highlight the areas in the relevant sound systems which may cause difficulties and which will affect intelligibility. For example, the two TH sounds (/θ/ and /ð/) are difficult for many learners. Learners should first be alerted that their TH sounds are not accurately articulated. They should then be taught the articulatory features of the dental fricatives so that they are able to produce the expected difference among words such as *thin ~ fin ~ sin* and *then ~ den ~ Zen*, etc. Not only should they be taught how to produce the problematic sounds through the articulatory details, they should also be taught how to perceive the differences among similar pairs or groups of sounds.

In the teaching and learning of pronunciation in an ELF context, awareness also means being sensitive to the differences among the varieties. Learners should be made aware of the major differences among the regional varieties such as the vowel alternation between the RP /ɑː/ and GA /æ/ in words like *dance*, *ask*, *master*, etc. As a result, they will be able to comprehend the speech of speakers of these two major varieties. Very often, miscomprehension is not so much the learners' inability to hear accurately what NSs produce; rather, it is their lack of awareness of the fact that not all speakers of English speak in the same way. The raising of learners' awareness of the pronunciation features of other varieties of English is especially important in an ELF context.

2.3   Self-Monitoring in Pronunciation Learning

Being aware of the difficulties in English pronunciation does not necessarily lead to the production of intelligible English speech. Speech production is, to a large extent, automatic (Levelt 1989). In the acquisition process of an L1, the articulation of individual segments as well as their combination become less controlled and more automatic. However, in learning an L2, some of our 'automated' speech production skills of L1 will have to adjust accordingly. And modifying these skills can be as difficult as acquiring new ones. This always requires a lot of conscious effort in the beginning. Consciously monitoring one's own speech is a useful strategy in learning a new sound system. The target is to achieve fluency. To achieve fluency in an L2, paradoxically, is to minimize the effort to consciously control one's production and to maximize automaticity.

The initial effort for L2 learners to consciously control their speech production may derive from declarative knowledge imparted to them by their teachers. This is a necessary and important stage because they need to practice these skills so as to 'automaticize' them to achieve fluency.

These developmental stages can be reflected from the discrepancy in learners' performance in different tasks. Most English teachers have experienced frustration over the fact that students who are able to produce perfect pronunciation in minimal

pair drills often fail to reproduce those exact same words in natural spontaneous speech. In minimal pair drills, students have made use of their declarative knowledge to exercise full conscious 'control' over their speech production. However, natural spontaneous speech production requires highly automatic processing. For learners who are still in the stage of 'conscious control,' errors may seem inevitable.

In L2 acquisition, the intermediate stage of 'self-monitoring' is a crucial step. To complement the explicit instructions provided by teachers, learners need to 'self-monitor' their own speech until many of the speech production skills, which may interfere with intelligibility have been eradicated or appropriately modified. When learners have grasped the articulatory details of certain sounds or sound combination of the differences between their L1 and English, they will have to first turn such knowledge into 'controlled processing,' which requires special attention, and then turn the controlled processing into 'automatic processing.' The 'controlled' component is to constantly monitor one's own speech. Failing to do so may end up producing unintelligible speech.

Although in an ELF context, learners are not expected to produce speech approximating an idealized target 'standard' norm, their speech is still expected to be understood by the majority of ELF speakers. Who else has the best clues about whether one's speech is intelligible or not other than the learners themselves and their teachers? Learners should be reminded to self-monitor their speech whenever they can in order to identify features that tend to impede communication. Then they should reflect on what these features are and be instructed as how their automatic skills learned from their L1s can be modified so their spoken English becomes more intelligible.

3 The Sounds of English as a System

3.1 Sounds and Spelling

The sound system of English includes features from the articulation of individual consonants and vowels to the phonotactics of the syllables and the complex intonational structure. It consists of some vowels and consonant features that can pose problems for L2 learners.

There are 20 English vowels in the RP variety (16 in GA), some of which are distinguished in terms of the slight difference in the openness or closeness of the jaw. For example, the /iː/ in *beat* is a vowel a bit 'closer' than the /ɪ/ in *bit*. The vowel /æ/ in *bad* is a bit more 'open' than the /e/ in *bed*. The subtle difference in the openness or closeness of the jaw can be difficult for learners whose L1 vowels do not exhibit such differences. Another common problem concerns the pairs of vowels that are differentiated in terms of length (or tenseness): /iː/ ~ /ɪ/ (*feet* ~ *fit*), /uː/ ~ /ʊ/ (*fool* ~ *full*), /ɔː/ ~ /ɒ/ (*caught* ~ *cot*). Again, not many languages employ such a

feature in their vowel system. Learners from these L1 backgrounds may find these pairs of vowels difficult.

Among the 24 English consonants, the voicing contrast of the obstruents (i.e., the oral stops, fricatives, and affricates) is of vital importance. The pairs /p/ ~ /b/, /t/ ~ /d/, /k/ ~ /g/, /f/ ~ /v/, /s/ ~ /z/, /θ/ ~ /ð/, /ʃ/ ~ /ʒ/, /tʃ/ ~ /dʒ/ are distinguished on the basis of voicing: the first member of the pairs is voiceless and the second one is voiced. For learners whose mother tongue does not exhibit such a distinction, acquiring the voicing contrast requires a lot of conscious effort. Other consonantal features that are challenging for learners include the two TH sounds /θ/ and /ð/ (for French learners), the pair of post-alveolar fricative /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ (for Korean learners), the /l/ and /r/ distinction (for Japanese learners). These difficulties may be due to the absence of the English segments or the similarities of these segments with some L1 sounds.

Even when the individual sounds are properly produced, the combination of them may pose problems. One recurrent problem found among English learners is the English consonant clusters, both word-initially and word-finally. Words like _fr ee_, _pl ay_, and _wai st_, _te nts_, _a sked_, etc. are simple words but they are phonologically complex because they consist of consonants occurring in a sequence. The English sound system allows a maximum of three consonants to occur in the word initial position (e.g., /spl-/ in _splash_, /str-/ in _stream_, /skr-/ in _screw_, etc.) and four conso-nants in the word final position (e.g., /-ksθs/ in _sixths_). Some languages do not have such complex syllable structures. Only simple syllable structure like CVC (a single consonant followed by a vowel with another consonant) exists in languages like Korean and Cantonese. Therefore, for learners of languages with simple syllable structures to learn the complex English consonant clusters, a lot of conscious effort and monitoring is required before automatic processing can be achieved.

Having described the pronunciation difficulties that a learner may face in acquir-ing the sound system of English, we now turn to another issue, which is usually overlooked by teachers. It is the important role that spelling plays in the process of learning pronunciation, an issue that has been briefly introduced earlier.

Unlike the acquisition of a first language in which sounds are mapped directly onto meaning without the mediation of the writing system, most learners of English rely heavily on printed materials (mostly textbooks) to acquire pronunciation. In other words, many English learners infer the pronunciation of words from the spell-ing. Unfortunately, the English orthography can be quite inconsistent sometimes. For example, the vowels represented by the letter 'a' in _f a ther_, _a ll_, _a pple_, _a ge_, and _a bout_ are all different. The letter 'a' is pronounced as /ɑː/, /ɔː/, /æ/, /eɪ/, and /ə/ respectively. Another example is that a combination of the two letters 'gh' can rep-resent many different consonants: namely /g/ in _gh ost_, /f/ in _tou gh_, /p/ in _hiccou gh_, or no sounds at all in _throu gh_. Many learners may not be aware of such oddities and may simply pronounce the word based on an analogy with a word they have learned before. For example, _pear_ will be pronounced as /pɪə/ (as inferred from _p_ plus _ear_) instead of the correct pronunciation /peə/. Thus, a systematic training of the sound-spelling correspondences and phonemic awareness can definitely help learners resolve the unpredictable sound-to-spelling problem in English. This can be assisted

by the use of phonetic symbols especially when the focus is on the articulation of individual vowels and consonants.

The use of IPA may also be useful in identifying how English sounds may differ in the many varieties of English. For example, some words spelled with the letter *a* (such as *dance*, *ask*, *path*, etc) are pronounced as /ɑː/ in RP but /æ/ in GA. Words with the diphthong /eɪ/ in RP and GA like *day*, *hate*, *face*, etc. are pronounced with the vowel [ʌɪ] in Australian and New Zealand English but [əɪ] in South African English (cf. Rogers 2000). Words spelled with *-ile* (*missile*, *hostile*, *futile*, etc.) are pronounced as /aɪl/ in RP but /əl/ in GA. Instances of the different pronunciation among the varieties can be more easily demonstrated through the use of IPA symbols.

3.2   English Word Stress

Another English feature which has not received sufficient attention is word stress. In pronunciation studies, the focus is normally on the segmental rather than the supra-segmental features. Yet, it is often found that deviant stress placement can lead to miscomprehension (Derwing and Munro 2005; Field 2005; Hahn 2004; Kang et al. 2010; Lepage and Busa 2014). The problem with word stress is twofold. One issue concerns where to place the primary stress in multi-syllabic words and the other is how to produce the stressed syllable as the most prominent syllable. In the former case, learners always face a problem as to which syllable should receive the primary stress when they encounter a new word. For example, for a group of morphologically related words such as *symbol*, *symbolic*, and *symbolism*, learners have to figure out how a suffix may or may not change the word stress. If the wrong analogy is used, an unintelligible pronunciation will result. In the case of *symbol-ism*, for example, if the stress pattern in *syBOlic* is used to pronounce *symbolism*, the wrong stress will result (*symBOlism instead of *SYMbolism*). The other problem is about how to produce a stressed syllable; or rather, how to produce the unstressed syllable. The stressed syllable is normally louder, longer, and accompanied with pitch change while the unstressed syllables are less so and are usually produced as the weak vowel /ə/. For many learners of English, learning to produce the schwa /ə/ is a real challenge.

English word stress is an intricate phonetic and phonological phenomenon since it intertwines knowledge at the word level and the utterance level with the ability to produce and recognize stress through the relevant phonetic features such as vowel length, loudness, pitch change, and vowel reduction. At the word level, every English word has a fixed stress pattern. For example, the two morphologically related words *consultation* (/kənsʌlˈteɪʃən/) and consultative (/kənˈsʌltətɪv/) sound quite different because the two words have the primary stress on different syllables. Some learners, by analogy, frequently stress the third syllable in *consul <u>ta</u> tive* the same way that *consul <u>ta</u> tion* is stressed (i.e., */kənsʌlˈteɪtɪv/), which is a wrong

stress pattern. Such a stress pattern is unlike most varieties of English and may lead to mis-comprehension.

Although English words have a fixed stress pattern, the stress may sometimes shift for two reasons. First, some suffixes may move the stress to another syllable in a morphologically derived word. The pair of examples in the previous paragraph (i.e., *consultation* and *consultative*) well illustrate this point. The other factor which affects the realisation of stress is nuclear stress in an utterance. English intonation may make a lexically stressed syllable become more stressed or less, depending on the discourse message that is being delivered. This intricacy of the placement of primary stress in an English word and its ultimate realisation in the spoken discourse in fact may contribute to the overall unintelligibility of a learner's speech when compared with other varieties of English. Therefore, more emphasis should be placed on the teaching and learning of word stress. Checklin (2012) presents a comprehensive review of research studies illustrating the importance of teaching word stress to learners. He suggests three main principles guiding the teaching of word stress. First is to teach how suffixation may or may not change stress placement, for example, *NEIGHbour* and *NEIGHbourhood* versus *LIbrary* and *liBRArian*. Second is to make explicit to learners that there is some consistency between word class and word stress. For example, most nouns have the primary stress on the first syllable but most verbs have it on the last (e.g., *EXport* versus *exPORT*). Finally, learners should be taught the internal structure of the syllables because primary stress tends to fall on 'heavy' syllables where heavy syllables mean syllables containing long vowels and more than one consonant. In short, the knowledge about word stress is derived from an understanding of the English sound system, which basically means the phonetics and phonology of English.

3.3   The Basis for Pronunciation: Phonetics and Phonology

We do not intend to recommend turning pronunciation teaching into the teaching of phonetics and phonology. On the contrary, we advise teachers to avoid teaching all the jargons related to phonetics and phonology. However, an understanding of the knowledge and research findings of phonetics and phonology can no doubt facilitate the teaching of pronunciation. For example, the phonetic knowledge of the fact that the voicing distinction between /s/ and /z/ is caused by the vibration of the vocal cords can be very useful. In pronunciation teaching, it is important to make the learners whose L1 does not have voicing contrast become aware of such a difference. Teachers can even make them 'feel' the difference by showing the vibration located at the larynx. It is not very useful, however, to teach learners what 'vibration' or 'vocal cords' means.

Phonetics is the study of sounds. It is essential in understanding how individual segments are produced and how differences can be perceived, which is vital in awareness raising and self-monitoring in learning pronunciation. It is the 'know-how' in the teaching and learning of pronunciation.

Phonology, the study of how sounds function and interact as a system, complements the knowledge in phonetics. Phonotactics is a case in point. In Wells (2005, p. 9) description, "…it is not so much individual sounds that constitute a problem as their combinations in particular positions in the syllable." As discussed earlier, compared with a number of Asian languages, English has a relatively more complex syllable structure. English consonant clusters tend to be an area causing intelligibility problems (e.g., non-distinction between *play* and *pray, fly* and *fry*). A consonant cluster occurring at the end of a word as a result of suffixation (i.e., the *–ed* and *–s* suffixes) is a relevant example. The pronunciation of these suffixes is phonologically conditioned but learners are often unaware of it. Although there is no need for learners to fully understand linguistic terms such as 'voicing,' or 'sibilants,' they should be informed of the phonological rules governing the alternation of the *–s* suffix (i.e., [s] if the root ends in a voiceless consonant, [z] if the root ends in a voiced consonant or a vowel, and [ɪz] if the root ends in a sibilant) which are robust and very learnable. Learners, in addition to being made aware of the phonetic details of the differences of the individual segments, should also be alerted to the difficulties they may encounter with reference to English consonant clusters as well. It is evident that phonological features can be turned into teachable and learnable topics which can facilitate the learning of English pronunciation.

Knowledge in phonology is also essential in the teaching and learning pronunciation in an ELF context. Different varieties of English normally diversify in some systematic alternation of vowels and consonants. For example, Indian English differs from GA or RP in the realisation of the word initial plosives: /p/, /t/, and /k/. In RP and GA, the word-initial plosives are aspirated while in Indian English they are usually unaspirated. So *pace* is pronounced as [pʰeɪs] in RP and GA but [peɪs] in Indian English. It is similar to someone saying 'space' but without the [s]. Knowledge of this kind will definitely facilitate learners to comprehend each others' speech more easily.

In short, by raising the awareness and learning to self-monitor one's speech in terms of the production and perception of sounds in English (phonetics) and how these sounds function (phonology), learners will be able to understand English pronunciation more thoroughly.

4 Crucial Elements in Pronunciation Teaching Methodology

4.1 Explicit Instructions to Raise Awareness

ELT methodology in teaching pronunciation has come a long way – from mechanical audio-lingual drills to interactive communicative tasks (cf. Jones 1997; Hunter and Smith 2012). These methods are mostly shaped by the changing theories in linguistics and ELT. The field has been supplied with more methods than teachers can possibly cope with. What is needed is how to use them more appropriately and

effectively. Lightbown and Spada (2011, pp. 137–180) have provided an insightful discussion of ELT teaching and learning methods based on a number of research studies. They conclude that a blended learning environment, which incorporates explicit form-focused instructions and corrective feedback into a communicative curriculum will be conducive for language learning. Simply focusing on one aspect such as fluency or accuracy alone may not suffice. An eclectic approach with explicit instructions is the key to successful language teaching. They think that if learners' errors persist, teachers should alert them because learners may overlook these errors if they are not being pointed out. Equally important is the need to correct learners of errors that are probably caused by a common first language. For example, Hong Kong English speakers tend to substitute [w] for /v/ (e.g. [weri] for *very*). It will be very effective to point out such a substitution to the whole group and provide some description of the differences between the two sounds, namely [v] is labio-dental while [w] is labial. If this is immediately followed by some practices, the learners' awareness is further consolidated.

Awareness in pronunciation learning and teaching refers to both the learners' awareness that their pronunciation is different from other varieties as well as their awareness of how to produce the different variant forms. For example, Mandarin learners tend to produce the English glottal fricative /h/ as a velar fricative [x], obviously due to the transfer of /x/ from Mandarin (e.g., *high* is pronounced as [xaɪ] instead of [haɪ]). Their attention should first be drawn to their substitution pattern. Then the teacher should illustrate how the English [h], a glottal fricative, is different from the Mandarin [x], a velar fricative. Ideally, this is followed by some reinforcement practice exercises.

As pointed out earlier, awareness raising is indispensable in pronunciation teaching. Not only should it be an approach adopted in everyday classroom instruction, it should also underpin curriculum planning. First and foremost, pronunciation should be part and parcel of the English language curriculum. A more systematic comparison of the major varieties of English with the local variety should be introduced into the planning of materials for pronunciation teaching. Specific attention to areas of difficulties must be incorporated as well.

In order to achieve the abovementioned aims, teachers should be educated to become more 'aware.' First, they should be trained to be more sensitive to learners' pronunciation problems so that they can in turn train their students to be watchful of these features. On the other hand, they should become more knowledgeable about different varieties of English so as to better inform their students of the similarities and differences among them.

4.2   Phonetics and Phonology in Teacher Education

As discussed in previous sections, teachers should be knowledgeable in phonetics and phonology in order to be able to effectively conduct their teaching. Thus, teacher training in these two areas is essential.

Derwing and Munro (2005, p. 387) have pointed out that a serious problem in pronunciation teaching is the lack of formal training in phonetics among many English teachers. If teachers do not possess the basic knowledge about sound systems, they will not be able to identify areas of difficulties of their students. Nor can they effectively help students grasp the details of the articulation of certain vowels and consonants, or explain the more complex phonetic or phonological concepts such as consonant clusters, word stress or intonation.

Teachers should have thorough understanding of phonetic and phonological concepts such as the IPA, the articulation of consonants and vowels, voicing, assimilation, schwa, consonant clusters, word stress, weak forms, and nuclear stress, intonation. These concepts not only provide the 'know-how' for teachers to teach pronunciation, they are vital for teachers in deciding what features are important to his/her students at which levels. Burgess and Spencer (2000) have argued strongly for more integration between pronunciation teaching and phonology in teacher education. Such integration may help solve problems in areas such as the selection of which pronunciation features to teach, the ordering of these selected features, as well as the methods and contexts to use to teach them.

4.3 The Internet

The revolution brought about first by the computer and then the internet has drastically changed the way how learning can take place in the twenty-first century. Language learning has progressed from computer-assisted language learning (CALL) to web-enhanced language learning (WELL) to mobile learning. As computing technology advances, the modes of language learning vary accordingly: from online language games, practice exercises, multi-media courses and materials, to chat room exchanges, and blogging. Dudeney and Hockly (2012, pp. 540–1) believe that mobile technology will definitely impact on ELT in the not too distant future.

The learning of pronunciation definitely should incorporate advanced technology. The age of WELL, which makes use of the world wide web emphasises the cognitive development of the learners (Warschauer 2004). The Internet has almost become the default platform for learning to take place among the e-generation.

One of the powerful features of the Internet, which greatly enhances the effective learning of pronunciation is its multimedia capability. Not only can learners easily access audio files whenever and wherever they want to, they can also have access to animated video clips demonstrating how certain sounds are articulated. As far as pronunciation is concerned, the following types of resources, which facilitate pronunciation learning, can be easily located on the internet:

(a) authentic English speech such as newscasts (e.g., BBC & CNN), movies, documentaries.
(b) online dictionaries with audio pronunciation demonstration (e.g., Cambridge & Merriam-Webster)

(c) web-based pronunciation practice exercises
(d) downloadable speech analysis programmes (e.g., PRAAT, SFS)
(e) online video communication facilities (e.g., Skype)

The first three types need no further elaboration. The capabilities of the last two types are fast growing. Speech analysis programmes in the past were used exclusively by phoneticians for research purposes because such software was very complicated to operate. However, many speech analysis programmes are much more user friendly nowadays and they are available as freeware. Two of the more popular ones are PRAAT and SFS/WASP. PRAAT is 'Doing phonetics by computer' (Boersma and Weenink 2013), developed by the two authors at the University of Amsterdam. SFS and WASP stand for 'Speech Filing System' and 'Windows Tool for Speech Analysis' respectively. Both programmes are developed by researchers at University College London. SFS is more sophisticated while WASP shows simple waveforms and pitch patterns. These programmes enable users to record speech and display their speech signals as visual display. Learners and teachers may make use of the visual display to practise, for example, intonation patterns. It has been reported in Ai et al. (2014) that a programme named 'Sprinter' has been developed to automatically detect pronunciation errors and learners can improve their pronunciation by the visual display, which is similar to the display shown in PRAAT or WASP.

These internet resources enable learners to have access to authentic spoken English to model on, well-designed exercises to practice with, and speech analysis software to explore. Such resources are invaluable to awareness raising and self-monitoring. The only limitation of these types of web-based resources is its one-way communication. Video conferencing programmes such as Skype, Viber, and FaceTime, can solve this problem. These tools facilitate face-to-face communication opportunities. They provide a useful platform for interaction among students of very different language backgrounds. Eakin (2011) reported on a study where students who are learning French used Skype to interact with French speakers over a 3-week period. Most students rated the use of Skype very positively. Such a model can be easily adapted to the English language class. For example, teachers in China can design regular video conferencing sessions with English speaking students in Canada. They can collaborate on projects, exchange of cultural information. A lot more meaningful tasks and activities can be devised by delving into this useful platform. In this way, learners can communicate with speakers from very different language background, both native and non-native. Through well-designed communicative tasks, learners will be able to reflect on how intelligible their speech is to other speakers of English. At the same time, they will also learn to decode Englishes spoken by a great variety of speakers. In an ELF context, the world is well-connected by the web. Web-based learning is a logical and necessary step forward.

While the internet has housed many resources for learners to learn independently, it is also a major source for learners to be exposed to the many different varieties of English. For example, 'the speech *accent* archive' constructed by Weinberger (2014)

and his colleagues at George Mason University has provided speech samples from more than 300 L1 language backgrounds for comparison. The speech samples were collected based on a short reading passage, so it is easy to examine the differences among speakers. Each speech sample contains an audio recording, together with the reading passage in ordinary orthography and in phonetic transcription. One very useful feature of this website is that each sample includes a description of all the special features for each speaker. For example, a Hungarian speaker produced [v] instead of [w] for the words *we* and *Wednesday*. These two words are highlighted in red. By listening to the recording and looking at the transcription, teachers can easily show how a Hungarian learner's speech is different from the GA variety.

A website similar to the speech *accent* archive is IDEA (International Dialects of English Archive) (Meier 2015). The main difference between these two archives is that the speech samples in IDEA contain both scripted and spontaneous speech while those in the *accent* archive are recorded based on a scripted short passage. Another special feature of IDEA is that it welcomes submission from the public. In other words, learners can submit their speech sample to be archived on the website.

Another useful website showing the different varieties of English is the "Accents of English from Around the World" developed by a team of experts at the University of Edinburgh. The website allows users to compare the pronunciation of 110 different words from a wide range of regions including England, Ireland, Scotland, Canada, US, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, Nigeria, India, and Singapore. One can listen to the pronunciation of all the words said by a Londoner, or a Singaporean, or an Indian. On the other hand, one can browse the website based on single words. For example, the page of the word, *day*, will show the pronunciation of this word by all the regional speakers indicated by a phonetic transcription, each of which is linked to a sound file. Therefore, a variety of accents are clearly revealed at one's finger tip. Such rich resources can only be made possible with the advanced technological development accompanied by the fast growing capacity of the internet. In an ELF context, these websites are most precious for teachers and learners.

5 Conclusion

Pronunciation is the key to mutual intelligibility among the different varieties of English. In an ELF context, teachers must therefore strive to help their students to make their pronunciation comprehensible to speakers of English who come from a variety of L1 backgrounds. In order to achieve that, teachers should first raise the awareness of learners in their phonetic and phonological features, which may hinder communication. Teachers who are well trained in phonetics and phonology are able to help learners raise their awareness and provide the skills necessary to help them become aware of their differences and improve their pronunciation. With the rich resources available on the Internet, the teaching of pronunciation should be fun and rewarding.

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Language Learning with ICT

Mark Wilkinson

Abstract Language learning with ICT encompasses a range of tools, strategies and activities. This chapter discusses theories of language as they link to CALL and ICT and then discusses principles for selecting tools and platforms that can be used to support language learning with ICT. The types of tools available to teachers and learners are then surveyed, and the components and process of a constructivist language learning project is described. After completing the chapter the reader will have gained an awareness of how language learning theories support learning with ICT, how to begin to make decisions on selecting appropriate digital tools and strategies, and how language learning with ICT can be accomplished through a digital project.

Keywords ICT • Technology • Project-based learning • Flipped learning • Apps • ELT

1 Introduction

It may be difficult to find a classroom today in which younger learners have not been in some way exposed to digital technology. Prensky's 'digital natives' (2009) have grown up in a world in which the Internet and the World Wide Web have always existed. These digital natives may use Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, and Twitter daily for their personal, social, and media pursuits. In their language classrooms, their teachers may draw on a range of technological resources to help them learn English.

Technology in the language classroom has a long history. Early technological tools for audio input included phonograph records and reel-to-reel tapes, used for listening and drill activities. In the 1970s, the portable cassette tape recorder became popular not only for listening but also for voice recording (De La Selva 2006). The

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language lab, with its banks of carrels with cassette recorders, linked to a control console, became an indicator of a school's investment in technology for language learning and was a popular showcase for visitors.

The computer – in the 1980s multi-component desktop units, followed by laptops in the late 1990s connected to wireless networks – transformed the use of technology in the language classroom. Materials that used to be printed could be accessed on these computers. Worksheets and handouts could be distributed as electronic documents, and interactive quizzes could be created. New possibilities for audio and video playback and creation emerged.

Today Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) encompasses a range of platforms, materials, and approaches. Information communication technology (ICT) is, for many L2 teachers and learners, an integral component of a learning programme. A teacher may select a purpose-made programme, application, or website for use in helping learners to learn listening or writing. Another teacher may construct an activity in which learners read, respond, or interact with other learners using materials on the Internet. Or a school may develop a set of learning activities or lists of resources for learners to use outside of class for self-directed learning activities.

This chapter aims to discuss (1) how CALL supports L2 learning theories, (2) the place of digital literacy in L2 classrooms, (3) principles for the selection of digital learning tools and activities, and (4) digital tools and activities for supporting learning in the L2 classroom.

2 The Contribution of ICT to L2 Development

To put the use of CALL in EFL classrooms into perspective, we first need to look at how the computer is linked to theories of language learning. CALL has the potential to provide a "rich linguistic environment" which is the key to language learning (Youngs et al. 2011, p. 25). The teacher, the learner, and the language make up the core components of the L2 classroom, and the computer is often a fourth component, a tool that can encourage teachers to understand better the process of learning and how to support their students to be successful learners (Chapelle and Jamieson 2008).

Technology has supported a succession of L2 language theories since the 1950s, such as the chalkboard's support of grammar translation and the cassette tape's support of the audio-lingual method (Warschauer and Meskill 2000). By the 1980s, communicative approaches to language learning had emerged, which focused on student interaction in meaningful exchanges (Warschauer and Meskill 2000).

2.1   Input and Interactionist Theories and CALL

Krashen's hypothesis of comprehensible input (1982) is facilitated by CALL, through which input may be modified to meet learners' needs (Chapelle 1998). Interactionist theory centers on CALL's potential to provide rich linguistic input (Youngs et al. 2011). Youngs et al. (2011, pp. 26–27) have summarized features of CALL that are salient to L2 learning with reference to interactionist theory. Two examples are (1) new input types such as hyperlinked text, with its multimedia integration and (2) the visual properties of CALL applications, including input enhancement features such as typographic or phonological qualities, which appear to lead to increased awareness of language features and language errors.

L2 theories that focus on output and interaction are well supported by CALL, which offers engagement opportunities that go beyond what is possible in the traditional face-to-face classroom. The use of a discussion board, for example, offers (1) opportunities for discussions not dominated by individuals, (2) more linguistic input that learners can use to notice and use in their own output, and (3) output that is richer than oral language (Warschauer and Meskill 2000). The opportunities to get feedback are increased in a computer-mediated environment compared to a face-to-face classroom. Learners can get feedback from other online communicators in addition to their teachers.

2.2   Cognitive Theories and CALL

Another approach to learning focuses on cognitive theories. In this approach, language learning is viewed as internal and unique to an individual (Warschauer and Meskill 2000; Youngs et al. 2011). Cognitive interaction with input from the target language is used by the learner to create a mental representation of the target language (Chomsky 1986, in Warschauer and Meskill 2000).

A technology that supports the cognitive theories exposes learners to meaningful language so they can develop a mental representation of the language (Warschauer and Meskill 2000). Applications that enable teachers to create text reconstruction activities is one example of a specialized technology that supports cognitive theories; another is multimedia simulation applications in which the learner can be exposed to meaningful and contextualized language in a simulated world (Warschauer and Meskill 2000).

Research into the manipulation of factors in the presentation of multimedia has revealed how these can promote mental representations of learning, e.g., by including visual and written information when learning new vocabulary. In their 2002 study, Jones and Plass examined whether students of French could better recall translations of new vocabulary and the passage itself after listening to it when they could use written and/or pictorial annotations while listening. The study found that students who used pictorial and written annotations were able to learn more

vocabulary than those who learned from the listening passage alone. This finding was seen to lend support to Mayer's (2001) theory of multimedia learning (Jones and Plass 2002). In Mayer's theory, for learners to comprehend a text meaningfully, they need to select written information which they organize into a mental representation and pictorial information which they organize into a visual representation, then make mental connections between both and with their existing mental model of the language (Jones and Plass 2002).

2.3 Constructivist Theories and CALL

In constructivist theory, learners use their previous experiences to assimilate or accommodate new information and learn by constructing knowledge that relates to their experiences. Learners are "actively engaged in constructing knowledge to create their own interpretation and understanding of the world around them" (Ellis et al. 2005, p. 190). When learners take ownership of their knowledge, their level of commitment to building knowledge increases (Jonassen et al. 1999).

Instructional scaffolding is a key component in the socioconstructivist perspective, in which a learner receives support that is appropriate to his level (Sawyer 2006). The concept of scaffolding originates from Vygotsky's concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which looks at the gap between what a learner can do with assistance from an experienced leader and what they can do independently (Vygotsky 1980).

Collaboration is another key component of socioconstructivist theory. In collaboration, the capacity of learners to learn from the experiences of their peers is emphasized. L2 learners in a collaborative environment not only work toward a meaningful L2-related goal but also use language to accomplish that end goal. They might, for example, use language to express opinions connected to reaching the goal to others in their group in spoken or written language, and listen to or read the opinions of other members (Ellis et al. 2005).

A digital movie-making project is one example of an ICT-infused constructivist L2 learning activity. In such a project, learners work in groups to plan and produce a digital movie. The teacher's role is to facilitate and steward the project (Ellis et al. 2005). The project would provide the learners with opportunities to become "discoverers, experts, leaders, planners, communicators and collaborators" (Towndrow and Vallance 2004, p. 219). Such a project could be considered an example of what Spodark (2005) called technoconstructivism. Learners use digital tools such as online resources to research information, web blogs, or social learning platforms for group communication or documentation, movie editing software to produce the final product, and public video platforms to share the finished movie.

In considering the digitally-infused world of young learners, who may be well versed in sharing and creating on Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and YouTube, a constructivist perspective can help teachers use technology in an informed way. With this perspective, teachers can create suitable tasks and environments in which

learners share, collaborate, and create knowledge in meaningful and linguistically rich ways.

2.4   Flipped Learning

Educators looking to maximize the productive use of class time and increase student success have turned to flipped learning. In this model, the input (e.g., lectures) is done out of class, often on videos or narrated slideshows selected or made by the teacher. Class time is then used for student-centered learning activities, often collaborative ones, in which students apply their learning from the input material to productive tasks. The teacher has more time to facilitate and interact with students who need more focused assistance. The current spotlight on flipped learning stems from efforts to increase the success of struggling students in science and mathematics (Lockwood 2014).

Bergmann et al. (2013) described the key features of a flipped classroom. In their view, it can lead to greater interaction between students and their teacher, who facilitates learning, blend direct instruction with constructivist learning, which can help keep students engaged, and provide a way for absent students to keep up by preserving content digitally for them to review.

Flipped learning can have benefits to the English language learner. Lockwood (2014) noted that when students self-pace their learning of input material outside of class it can help them to understand more fully and be more prepared to work with the material in class. This is in contrast to what they might achieve with the input material presented in a teacher-paced lesson. Additionally, students may find it less of a burden to view or read input material outside of class (as opposed to traditional homework tasks) and more engaging to work in a flipped classroom where they are supported by and interact with the teacher and classmates as they work on productive activities (Lockwood 2014).

The flipped classroom movement evolved as a reaction to lecture-based science and mathematics classes, where the teacher explained a topic and assigned activities to be done as homework. Stannard (2015) noted that English language classrooms are often communicative and interactive, and not teacher-centered. In this view, classrooms are already flipped to some degree and English language teachers already tend to be innovative and imaginative. Flipped learning can expand on these qualities, and also be useful for putting online commonly used instructional material, e.g., on grammar or compositional styles, that then lead to activities in class time that are more useful and efficient.

Nielsen (2011) noted some of the drawbacks to flipped learning. In particular, some students may not have access to the technological resources assumed to be necessary for the out-of-class work. She also notes that flipped learning still requires homework and doesn't necessarily guarantee good pedagogy. A degree of personal responsibility is still needed and teachers may need to accommodate students who haven't prepared for class (Stannard 2015).

While video is often mentioned as the primary input material in flipped learning (lectures, explanations of diagrams, narrated slideshows), it is not a requirement. For English language classrooms, authentic readings, audio or video clips, or explanatory materials (i.e., textbook readings) could be used as input material (Lockwood 2014). Stannard (2015) notes that video is often seen as an efficient way of delivering information to students, and lists several tools and methods that teachers can use to create their own audio-visual materials. Narration can be added to documents, charts, or PowerPoint slideshows. Screen capture technologies such as Snagit (techsmith.com/snagit.html) can be used to record explanatory annotations or other material on the screen as video. These teacher-produced materials can be loaded to sharing platforms such as Slideshare (slideshare.net). Other possibilities include Sway (sway.com), a new online platform for creating and sharing multimedia content and OfficeMix (mix.office.com), a PowerPoint add-in to bring interactivity to PowerPoint presentations.

3   CALL and the Development of Literacies

What do L2 learners need to learn to communicate in the twenty-first century? In the past literacy meant being able to read and write, but in the twenty-first century it is often taken to mean much more. Ohler (2009) identified four types of literacy as essential to success – Digital, Art, Oral, and Written. The ability to present oneself and one's views to a real-world audience in spoken and written digital formats is increasingly an expected part of academic work, job-seeking and job duties, and personal pursuits. L2 activities can be expanded to include such twenty-first century literacy building activities as digital storytelling, reading, writing and responding to blog posts, instruction in writing effective emails, searching for and evaluating appropriate sources, avoiding plagiarism, and building an electronic portfolio. The learner can become a content creator, and by doing so can develop literacy (Ohler 2009).

3.1   Asynchronous and Synchronous Learning

Asynchronous learning refers to the learning that takes place when a group of people, not in the same place or working at the same time, access online resources individually to work toward their learning goals. Learning management systems (such as BlackBoard), email, discussion boards, and blogs are examples of digital literacy environments that accommodate asynchronous learning. In using these, the time and place can be decided by the learner, as long as there is access to the learning environment. For example, in a self-access course, a learner accesses and downloads an activity from an LMS, then completes it and uploads it to a blog on the platform, after which the teacher will read the work and post a comment. The

teacher may provide links to online resources to help the student refine an understanding of an instructional point of the activity.

Synchronous learning, on the other hand, refers to learning events that take place with all learners at the same time. In a distance-learning environment, students may join a virtual classroom, for example an Edmodo group, for real-time communication. For audio-visual interaction, a link on a videoconference platform may be established. Messages could be exchanged in text over a chat platform. In a synchronous learning situation, students need to log on to a learning platform at a specific time to participate in the learning activities. In a writing class, for example, a group of students at different locations, could collaborate to write a draft of a composition in Google Docs, then post it on Edmodo, where their teacher will read and comment on it. The students could read the practice essays posted by other groups in the class and post their comments along with the teacher. All students benefit from the work of the whole class and it is all accomplished within a specified timeframe.

4   Principles of Selecting and Evaluating ICT Tools and Resources for the EFL Classroom

What principles can teachers follow in selecting and evaluating ICT tools and resources for the EFL classroom? Teachers today may be encouraged or expected by administrators, parents, or learners to incorporate CALL into their teaching. But they may lack familiarity with guidelines on how to do this to the benefit of their learners. Or they may find the number and variety among the tools too great to make sense of. Teachers need to be aware that few of the applications and websites available to them have been specifically adapted to L2 learning, and thus need to adapt them to their teaching and learning contexts (Bloch and Wilkinson 2014).

Chapelle and Jamieson (2008, p. 3) made three basic assumptions about the language classroom:

- Learners need guidance in learning English.
- There are many styles of English used for many different purposes.
- Teachers should provide guidance by selecting appropriate language and by structuring learning activities.

In the view of Towndrow and Vallance (2004), IT in language learning needs to be integrated into a meaningful task that involves multi-faceted use of the target language. The underlying premise is that the best use of IT aims to provide language learners with enriching and diverse experiences in the classroom.

Towndrow and Vallance (2004, p. 105) list ten characteristics of IT that add value to language learning. We can express these characteristics as questions teachers can ask when considering the use of IT in the classroom. Does this use of IT

- make possible activities that could not be done as easily or at all in the print-based realm?
- allow the integration of digital media?
- allow greater flexibility as to the place and time when learning takes place?
- allow access to a wide range of information?
- allow for a focus on both the products and processes of learning?
- allow instructional material to be stored and recycled?
- encourage discussion and consultation?
- provide a channel for feedback and assessment?
- eliminate or reduce the need to duplicate previously produced materials?
- allow time to be saved?

We can further ask:

- Does this use of IT provide L2 learners with enriching and diverse language learning experiences in the classroom?

Towndrow (2007, pp. 68–69) further refined what teachers must take into consideration when planning a lesson involving ICT and suggests that the learners' needs, interests, and abilities would make a good starting point.

Mobile devices represent a related area of technologically infused language learning. Making decisions on how and when to use these devices in an L2 setting involves further considerations. Stockwell and Hubbard (2013) proposed a set of principles to guide task designers when developing a mobile language learning activity. Among them, developers are encouraged to limit multitasking in an activity, keep activities short, and provide guidance to learners and teachers on how mobile devices can be used for language learning. Additionally, Stockwell and Hubbard (2013) encouraged developers to plan for unequal ownership and access to mobile devices among learners, and to recognise learners' preferences for public vs. private learning spaces. For example, users may associate their mobile device with social rather than educational purposes and may be reluctant to use it for learning purposes. In developing an activity, or even a L2 learning application, these are additional considerations that could contribute to or detract from the success of the activity with the target group.

5   Tools, Techniques, and Activities: ICT Resources for EFL Classrooms

Teachers are faced with a wide range of options when it comes to selecting ICT resources and activities to support L2 learning. In this section, we will discuss L2 skill-specific application (commercial and free), general applications that can be used to facilitate L2 learning, and examples of integrated technology-infused L2 learning activities.

5.1 Skill-Specific Applications

This category can be subdivided into commercial tools for purchase and free online tools.

(a) *Commercial tools*

Commercial tools can be available in specific formats (e.g., CD-ROM, DVD, or download) and are often tailored to work on one or two versions of an operating system (e.g., Windows 8 and Mac OS 10.9). They may be stand-alone applications or linked to published textbooks. Newer applications may be browser-based and thus machine-independent. They may be available as one-time purchases or on a subscription basis. As the software must be purchased to use, it is typically free of advertising, and the designers will have taken into consideration how to make the interface user friendly.

In addition to considering whether the tool will effectively support learners in a specific L2 skill – listening, for example – the teacher or programme administrator also must consider other factors:

- Ease of use: How intuitive or straightforward is it for teachers and learners to use?
- Stability of programming: Does it have coding that causes hanging, crashes, or other instability?
- Hardware compatibility: Are the school computers compatible with the software? If the software is browser-based, are browsers up-to-date and compatible?
- Licensing: Can the software be installed on multiple school computers with one license?
- Upgrade potential: Does the software developer or publisher provide an upgrade path or will a new version need to be purchased when hardware is upgraded or your version is no longer supported?
- Level of support: Does the developer or publisher provide support? Is the user guide easy to understand? Is it thorough?
- Value: Is the software good value for the cost? Does it predominantly focus on closed tasks (see Towndrow and Vallance 2004, pp. 102–104) or allow more flexible learning options?

(b) *Free L2 learning tools*

Freely accessible websites that support L2 learning in specific skills are often listed in curated lists such as the Cool Sites for ESL Students (UIC 2014). The sites found on such lists can generally be accessed on most browsers. These sites are primarily supported by advertising and guidance from teachers may be needed to help learners access the most useable material on a site. Digital literacy skills can be brought into focus as well by guiding learners into differentiating the advertising – sometimes not related to education – from the links to site material. An example of a long-running free ad-supported site to practice listening is Randall's ESL Cyber

Listening Lab (esl-lab.com). For use by teachers, Gerry's Vocabulary Teacher (cpr4esl.com/gerrys_vocab_teacher/index.html) is a site where vocabulary exercises can be generated.

In designing a task for a specific group of L2 learners, a teacher may incorporate material from these free websites as part of the task, perhaps as source material to read or listen to, or because the website contains useful information that can be used as a resource.

5.2   Web Resources and Mobile Apps

A web resource is a website that provides information useful to L2 learners, though not necessarily specifically for them. An online dictionary would be an example of a web resource. In an online dictionary (e.g., Macmillan Dictionary), a user can get a definition, the transcription in phonetic symbols, and can listen to the word's pronunciation, usually in British and American English.

An example of a web resource for writers is the Purdue University Online Writing Lab. This website is designed for a wide audience of writers but also provides specific advice for L2 learners of English. Pages for L2 learners provide information on topics such as grammar (e.g., pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and coordination); understanding assignment prompts; stance, tone, and purpose; and stages of the writing process, The site map is a useful starting point (owl.english.purdue.edu/sitemap/).

YouTube is a resource for L2 learners with a vast range of useful materials. A teacher may select a video clip from a film for use with a listening lesson, or as a stimulus for a speaking or writing task. A video on how to pronounce English sounds or a video that models good public speaking skills might be chosen. In some tasks, the authentic language of a video may be the focus, but in other contexts it is the information itself that is most pertinent. YouTube supports automatic subtitling, but the technology is still in development and in many cases the results are inaccurate and even nonsensical. While free subtitle generators can be found online (see wondershare.com/multimedia-tips/subtitle-maker.html), applications that automatically generate useable subtitles through speech recognition do not appear to be readily available.

5.3   Mobile Applications

Applications (apps) for use on mobile devices have helped create new uses and functionality for the devices. An app is a small program for a mobile device that accesses a particular site in a simplified and user-friendly way. Apps are intended to ease the access to and enhance the usability of a particular organization's content or functions. An example of an app developed for use in improving spoken English is

Well Said (itunes.apple.com/sg/app/nie-well-said/id495877379). This free pronunciation app, developed at the National Institute of Education, Singapore, familiarizes learners with the International Phonetic Alphabet and provides example recordings of the sounds of English as well as videos and animations of a speaker producing the sounds. It also features ways for learners to interact with each other, such as a link to a discussion forum. While there is no corresponding standalone website that learners without a mobile device can use for Well Said content, versions of the app were developed for both Mac iOS and Android devices.

5.4   Sites for Recording

Before smartphones became popular, learners who wanted to record their voices had to use programs such as Audacity, which could be installed on computers or more recently MP3 recorders. Now, smartphones have built-in voice recorders and web applications such as Vocaroo enable online voice recording. In both cases, the recordings can easily be shared by email, for example.

5.5   Web 1.0 Tools

Web tools have evolved from static and non-interactive pages, software, and techniques known as Web 1.0 (Strickland 2008). These include email, web page design, and chat or discussion forums. Web 1.0 tools continue to have value to language instructors. These tools can be easy to use and promote literacy and communicative skills in various ways and tend to be used to communicate ideas or help learners develop basic writing skills (Bloch and Wilkinson 2014).

One of the drawbacks of Web 1.0 tools is that a sense of personal authorship and identity may not be easily facilitated due to the short and quickly written nature of these texts (i.e., emails, short forum or chat board posts), or the informational nature of webpages (Bloch and Wilkinson 2014). However, there is still value in using these older tools. Email, for example, can be used as a means of helping learners understand the concept of purpose, audience, and context, and can help them acquire strategies for communicating with various audiences, with a focus on learning language that is appropriate and accurate for the task.

5.6   Web 2.0: The Read-Write Web

Whereas Web 1.0 was mainly a one-way experience in which information is presented and consumed, the new Web 2.0 tools offer a more interactive experience. O'Reilly (2005) compared Wikipedia, the online encyclopaedia that offers users the

opportunity to edit, with a traditional online encyclopaedia. Wikipedia users can contribute to, edit and revise documents, so that the articles are always changing or evolving. Web 2.0 tools are participative in nature and encourage users to become content creators, developing and uploading content to share with users around the world (Bloch and Wilkinson 2014). Long-form blogs such as the Wordpress or Blogger platforms, and short-form microblogging platforms such as Twitter exemplify two tools of use to language learners. Bloch and Wilkinson (2014, pp. 12–13) noted some of the uses of blogs and Twitter in the language classroom.

- Blogs can be used for longer, more organized texts and can be used as a way for learners to share ideas for classroom discussions. They can be used to generate ideas for longer, more formal papers, or to store material sourced from the web, including multimodal content (e.g., links, videos, images) to be used in writing academic papers. Teachers may use learners' blog posts to help develop rhetorical modes, arguments, and referencing skills.
- Twitter, which permits brief posts of up to 140 characters, can be used to share brief and possibly only partially formed ideas or develop an ongoing, participatory narrative among learners in a group.

Collaborative learning can be facilitated by Web 2.0 tools. In Google Docs, for example, learners who are each logged into a Google account, can create and edit a text document simultaneously. Each learner's contribution is colour-flagged in the Google Docs window, and with each change logged by the system, it is easy to examine and revert to a prior version if the group decides against keeping its latest updates.

From the teacher's point of view, Web 2.0 tools can be invaluable for tailoring a resource site or even a course package for a specific group of learners. Platforms such as Google Sites, Diigo, or Padlet can be used by the teacher to organize an annotated collection of web resources. For example, a teacher may search for and assemble a collection of web resources with examples of the use of verb tenses, or YouTube videos that demonstrate pronunciation features. A logical extension of such a resource site is an activity for learners to complete having reviewed and practiced with the material on the site.

5.7   Social Learning Platforms

Web 2.0 tools such as blogs are by default public and typically searchable. Some teachers and learners may not be entirely comfortable with the open nature of these tools and may wish to preserve some control and privacy over their digital output. This is where a social learning platform such as Edmodo can be useful.

Edmodo was developed as a safe, ad-free, school-friendly alternative to Facebook. Teachers and learners set up free accounts, and then the teacher sets up groups and invites learners through a group code. In these members-only groups, learners can interact, complete tasks, submit assignments, comment on the their peers' work, and

get feedback from their teachers. In commercial platforms such as BlackBoard, the sponsoring institution may lock the access to courses after the end of the semester. In Edmodo, learners can continue to access their Edmodo groups until the teacher deletes the group. In this way learners continue to have access to the resources the teacher has collated for the group well after the end of the semester.

6   Putting It All Together: An Integrated Constructivist ICT-Infused Project

Digital Storytelling and Documentary Journalism are two related forms of multimodal literacy. The two forms can be usefully adapted to the L2 context, with appropriate scaffolding for the learners' proficiency levels. As a form of literacy, multimedia stories and documentary reports are an increasingly widespread and important mode of communication.

A digital story or documentary journalistic report can have these goals:

- to learn the conventions of structure of a story or journalistic report
- to provide opportunities to write a script for a story or report
- to provide opportunities to record the script in an engaging manner
- to provide opportunities to pronounce accurately, use stress, pace, pausing, and intonation to enhance listener engagement
- to learn to select and sequence appropriate images, clips, and soundtrack material to help tell the story or report
- to learn and implement interview techniques and to record audio and video interviews
- to learn ethical considerations in conducting and using interviews
- to understand considerations relating to the use of intellectual property, such as images or music
- as a motivation, learners may choose to upload (or the teacher may facilitate uploading) the stories and reports to an online portal, such as YouTube

How then can a teacher use technology to help learners reach their end goal- a cohesive digital story or documentary report? To do this, the teacher will need to

- provide an introduction to the genre (structure, interview techniques)
- present a review of pronunciation features to increase listener engagement
- structure opportunities to write, get feedback on, and revise a written script
- structure opportunities to record, get feedback on, and re-record the narration or voiceover
- structure opportunities to assemble, get feedback on, and edit the digital story or report
- arrange opportunities to share the finished product – with classmates or the world
- devise rubrics for assessing the project work

An advantage of this project structure is that its structural design provides a process cycle that can be reused throughout the stages of project completion. To illustrate, we will consider the steps in structuring the first steps of the project:

- an introduction to the genre, including interview techniques,
- a review of pronunciation features, and
- the preparation of a written script and its delivery with good sentence rhythms to engage the audience

The teacher may choose to prepare a website that learners will refer to throughout the course. This may be done through a commercial learning management system (LMS) such as BlackBoard, or created on Google Sites. To provide an introduction to digital journalism, for example, the teacher can source for good examples of documentary videos of the length and style that the project aims to produce. These can be embedded or linked on the website together with questions to guide learners as they analyze and respond to the videos. To help introduce learners to interview techniques, the teacher can provide links to one or two key online resources that give guidelines on how to interview.

The teacher will need to structure practice activities that scaffold the learning process. For example, learners can be tasked to interview classmates. They can refer to the interview guidelines to write questions for their interviews. Depending on the goals of the project, the teacher could structure feedback on the language of the interview questions, either by the teacher or by peer feedback.

In the next step of the project, the learners record their interviews. The recordings can be done with smartphone or tablet recording apps, a computer app such as Audacity or GarageBand, or a web app such as Vocaroo. Once recorded, the audio clips could be uploaded to an LMS or a social learning platform such as Edmodo.

Once uploaded, learners can engage in activities to analyze language features. If they are focusing on improving pronunciation, for example, they could listen for specific features in their own and their partner's interviews. To prepare for this step, the teacher may have provided pronunciation resources, for example, videos on YouTube or animations that show how specific sounds are produced. The learners can then post comments on their LMS to their partner or on their own pronunciation. The teacher can then listen and expand on or validate the learners' comments.

7   Scripting a Voiceover That Makes the Digital Story Come Alive

A monotonous delivery in the voiceover of a video report or digital story may lead to the audience losing interest. Listeners may find it more difficult to follow the speaker's line of communication or just find it uninteresting. The teacher may help learners prepare for speaking more effectively through analysis of and practice with key features of delivery. Learners can, for example, write a script of 90 words and

annotate it by marking key content words to stress. This could be shown to the teacher in hard copy or uploaded onto the LMS for feedback. In the same way as with the interview, the learner, partners, and teacher can comment on the delivery. The learner would then record it with a focus on achieving a good sentence rhythm with adequate stress on the key content words. This, together with instruction and practice in structuring a story for oral delivery, helps scaffold the learners for their video report or story.

The production of the video report or story could follow a similar cycle:

- review, guide analysis of, or provide instruction in the component (e.g., the script for a voiceover)
- prepare a draft of the key component (e.g., the script for a voiceover)
- post on the LMS or social learning platform
- get feedback from partners and teachers
- revise the component
- proceed to next component (e.g., a practice recording of the script)

Although we describe this as a series of similar cycles occurring sequentially, throughout the project there will be multiple processes occurring in parallel. For example, as learners are conducting their interviews or learning the conventions of story structure, they may be collaborating with small group partners to identify, map out, and agree on a story topic. Or after collecting resources for the story or video report, they may be assembling and sequencing the visuals at the same time they are writing, recording, and getting feedback on their voiceovers.

After the projects have been completed, the learners are very likely to want to share their accomplishments. Depending on the subject nature of the project, the sharing could be done in within the project community, or they could be made available to a wider audience. Learners are often motivated to do their best if they know they will be showcasing their work publicly. For example, a YouTube channel (UF Journalism Students n.d.) featuring the assignments of student journalists at the University of Florida (not L2 learners) has attracted over 100 subscribers and over 140,000 views since the channel was created in 2008. One solution to sharing video publicly is for the teacher to create a channel on a video platform, such as YouTube or Vimeo. Learners can then upload their videos within a specific time frame after the teacher has viewed the video and given final approval for it to be shared. Learners can then publicise their posted videos through blogs, Twitter, or other social media platforms.

8   Assessment of Digital Language Learning Projects

The assessment of digital language learning projects can be carried out on several levels. The product may be assessed from primarily a language use perspective: Is the pronunciation clear and intelligible; is the delivery well paced with appropriate

sentence rhythms? Does the script follow the expected conventions and style of spoken journalism?

The multimodal aspects of the product can also be assessed. Towndrow (2007, pp. 92–93) described four possible interactions between modes. Decoration uses, for example, an image at the beginning of a video that is attractive to the viewer but does not contribute to communicating the story. Captioning is another interaction, in which a label in one mode is applied to another. This is commonly seen in journalistic videos where, for example, a label identifying an interviewee is placed at the bottom of the screen during the interview. Duplication is a third type of interaction between modes where the information in one mode is echoed or paraphrased in another mode. For example, a digital story may include a clip of a street lined with small shops in which points of interest shown in the picture are described in an accompanying voiceover. A final type of interaction is extension, in which one mode brings out more about what is presented in another mode. An example would be if, in the video clip of the shopping street, the voiceover gave information about the history, or the backgrounds of the owners, or the speaker's experiences shopping there, which would not be evident from the video alone.

Towndrow (2007) makes the point that language teachers need to be clear about what they want their students to do or learn. In the case of the digital story, the teacher may decide that the learners should be demonstrating not only specific language skills but also elements of multimodal literacies, perhaps even to the point of demonstrating effective use of multimodal interactions. An example of a rubric for digital storytelling developed at the University of Houston (2010) gives descriptors in these categories, which form a mix of traditional and digital literacies:

- purpose of story
- point of view
- dramatic question
- choice of content (including selection and effect of images)
- clarity of voice in the recorded voiceover
- pacing of the narrative
- meaningful audio track
- quality of images
- economy of story detail
- grammar and language usage

Sample rubrics and rubric generators such as Rubistar are good places to begin. Teachers may also choose to specifically assess appropriate use of intellectual property and avoidance of plagiarism (Bloch and Wilkinson 2014). Learners can be involved in the assessment process, creating rubrics based on their experiences viewing or creating digital stories, or assessing their work using the rubrics provided by the teacher (Bloch and Wilkinson 2014). Learners can be further involved in self-assessment through the use of critiquing – not simply self-criticism – as a way to reflect on and ultimately identify and make improvements (Towndrow 2007). Stommel and Morris (2015) suggested that digital teaching begins with explorations and allows room for unexpected discoveries. A project that is conceived from the

point of view of how it will be assessed misses out on the opportunity to allow for the unexpected.

9 Conclusion

For the language teacher today, there is a wide range of digital tools and resources that can extend or expand on language teaching and learning. From free web resources and commercial programs that can help learners practice and develop specific language skills to 'adaptable' programs that can underpin and enable learning to an extent not possible even 20 years ago, teachers and learners have many possible ways to learn with ICT. Stommel and Morris (2015) suggested ten things the best digital teachers do. Among them, they

- start by working with the tools they're familiar with
- incorporate ICT incrementally
- find ways to adapt or 'hack' digital tools
- improvise and allow space for discoveries and surprises.

Language teachers need to be clear about their purpose for incorporating ICT into their classroom. Developing an awareness of how specific tools or techniques can enhance learning is essential. Finding ways to design meaningful language-learning activities that motivate learners through useful contributions is a key task for teachers, and can lead to greater satisfaction and learning effectiveness than teachers (and their students) might imagine.

This chapter has endeavoured to help readers become aware of the links between L2 theories and CALL, to discuss considerations when selecting ICT tools, and to describe a constructivist language learning project. In the end, we as teachers need to implement ICT in our classrooms in service to our educational goals, and to the benefit of our students in ways not otherwise possible.

Appendix: Resources

The tools and sites in this list are good places for teachers to begin exploring ICT in the L2 classroom. Many tools are available in free but limited versions and paid, full-featured versions.

Audio, Image, and Video Editing, and Website Creation

- Audacity: audacity.sourceforge.net
- GarageBand (for Apple devices): apple.com/mac/garageband/
- Google Sites: sites.google.com
- iMovie (for Apple devices): http://www.apple.com/mac/imovie/

- Movie Maker (for Windows devices): windows.microsoft.com/en-us/windows/movie-maker
- OfficeMix: mix.office.com
- Prezi: prezi.com
- Slideshare: slideshare.net
- SnagIt: techsmith.com/snagit.html
- Sway: sway.com
- Vocaroo: vocaroo.com
- WeVideo: wevideo.com

Blogging, Microblogging, Video Sharing, and Social Bookmarking

- Blogger: blogger.com
- Diigo: diigo.com
- Symbaloo: symbaloo.com
- Twitter: twitter.com
- Vimeo: vimeo.com
- Wordpress: wordpress.com
- YouTube: youtube.com

Collaboration and Social Learning Platforms

- Doodle: doodle.com
- Edmodo: edmodo.com
- Google Docs: drive.google.com
- Lino.it: en.linoit.com
- Padlet: padlet.com
- TodaysMeet: todaysmeet.com

Language and Digital Tool Reference

- 100 Best Digital Learning Tools For 2012: teachthought.com/technology/100-best-digital-learning-tools-for-2012
- 50 Incredibly Useful Links For Learning & Teaching The English Language: teachthought.com/learning/50-incredibly-useful-links-for-ell-educators
- Digital Tools for Teachers: digitaltoolsforteachers.blogspot.sg
- Gerry's Vocabulary Teacher: cpr4esl.com/gerrys_vocab_teacher/index.html
- Macmillan Dictionary: macmillandictionary.com
- Purdue OWL Lab: owl.english.purdue.edu
- Randall's ESL Cyber Listening Lab: esl-lab.com
- Rubistar: rubistar.4teachers.org/index.php
- Well Said: itunes.apple.com/sg/app/nie-well-said/id495877379

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Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP): English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)

Handoyo Puji Widodo

Abstract English for vocational purposes (EVP), under the umbrella of English for specific purposes (ESP), has gained its prominence because more and more English language programs are geared for those who would like to learn English, which is relevant to their vocations. The overarching goal of ESP instruction is to help specialist learners function well in workplaces or vocational higher education settings where English serves as a medium of communication. There has also been a burgeoning issue whether ESP teachers should teach content or language or both content and language. In response to this challenge, this chapter discusses key elements of teaching EVP. The central goal of the chapter is to provide ESP practitioners with both theoretical and practical guides to designing and implementing EVP instruction in the context where English is learned as an additional language.

Keywords English as an additional language • English for specific purposes (ESP) • English for vocational purposes (EVP) • Specialist knowledge

1   Introduction

English for specific purposes (ESP) instruction has long been designed, implemented, and evaluated to meet burgeoning professional and academic communication needs. The primary goal of this endeavor is to equip learners with ESP competence/ability to function in English-mediated professional or academic encounters. Growing needs for ESP instruction have been driven by diverse needs of many speakers of English as an additional language (EAL) working for multinational firms and taking English-medium undergraduate and postgraduate programs (Widodo 2015). There has also been a growing demand for understanding increased disciplinary/specialized

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language, knowledge, and practice in which English plays a pivotal role in mediating the development of learners' specialized language competence and disciplinary knowledge and skills.

ESP continues to evolve as the profession of ESP comes a long way. This is because professional and academic domains vary from one context to another. English for vocational purposes (EVP) is no exception. EVP, under the umbrella of ESP, has gained its prominence in that more and more English language programs are geared for those who would like to learn English relevant to their vocations. The overarching goal of EVP instruction is to help students function well in a workplace or a vocational higher education setting where English serves as a medium of communication. There has been a burgeoning issue whether ESP teachers should teach content or language or both content and language (Lo 2015). To cater to this need, both ESP teachers and content/specialist teachers need to collaborate in the design of ESP materials. A recent study by Widodo (2015) showed that both English teachers and vocational content teachers were involved in the design of Vocational English (VE) materials, and this cross-curricular collaboration assisted ESP teachers to select the texts that were relevant to students' vocational areas.

In response to an urgent need for teaching English to learners with diverse content areas, this chapter discusses key issues in teaching EVP (TEVP). Overall, this chapter is organized into needs analysis in ESP, English for Vocational Purposes (EVP), and elements of EVP materials. These concepts provide the reader with conceptual foundations of ESP in general and EVP in particular. The chapter moves on to present Vocational English tasks that ESP teachers may adopt or adapt. Thus, the central goal of the chapter is to provide ESP practitioners with both theoretical and practical guides to designing and implementing EVP instruction in the context where English is learned as an additional language.

2   Needs Analysis in ESP

Studies of needs analysis have been undertaken over the last 30 years, and examined needs of "diverse learner groups in academic, professional, and occupational as well as "survival" settings" (Krohn 2009, p. 260, quotation marks in original). This suggests that needs analysis has been well documented (see Long 2005 for a comprehensive review of needs analysis in different settings). Pedagogically speaking, needs analysis serves a number of different purposes. For example, Richards (2001, p. 52) lists six main purposes:

1. to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales managers, tour guides, or university students;
2. to help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students;

3. to determine which student from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills;
4. to identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important;
5. to identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do; and
6. to collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing.

Widodo and Pusporini (2010, p. 150) add that needs analysis aims to "bridge a gap between insider's perspective/assumption and outsider's perspective/assumption."

As part of ESP instructional design, needs analysis serves as the basis for informed curriculum practices, such as syllabus design, materials development, and instructional design. Thus, the values of needs analysis should go beyond predictions of what should be taught and learned. Liu et al. (2011) argue that, for instance, to develop sounder classroom pedagogies, which are sensitive to individual learners' learning goals, language practitioners should be fully aware of and reflect critically on different language needs of learners. This self-awareness and critical reflection help ESP teachers always question what 'needs' mean within such rigid categories as necessities, wants, and lacks. With this in mind, learners' expectations and goals should be taken into account to provide the learners with more motivating and engaging materials such as texts and tasks. This suggests that developing ESP materials, 'the cornerstone of ESP instruction,' involves much more than understanding needs as entry level of language proficiency, but it touches upon how available resources and constraints impact on design and implementation of ESP instruction as a whole.

3   English for Vocational Purposes (EVP)

In the context of vocational education both at secondary education (e.g., technical schools) and higher education (e.g., polytechnics), students are commonly streamed/placed into particular vocational areas, such as the hotel hospitality, accounting, tourism management, and computer engineering. For this reason, students have to experience texts, which are relevant to their vocational knowledge and skills. Building vocational knowledge and skills is one of the goals that students have to envision. This has a significant implication for English language programs, which cater to differing needs of diverse groups of vocational students. In response to this, vocationally oriented language learning (VOLL) programs have been set up (Vogt and Kantelinen 2013). A VOLL program aims to provide students with an English course integrated with vocational content. This vocational content is a starting point for designing English language programs. In this respect, English materials are

selected based on vocational themes, tasks, and language. For this chapter, English for vocational purposes (EVP) is defined as a program sited in both the secondary education and tertiary education sectors, which equips students with English competence that supports their vocational expertise. The role of English as a medium of vocational communication helps students understand their vocational content, build and develop their vocational knowledge and skills, communicate their vocational expertise and perform specialist tasks, and develop their disciplinary language (Widodo 2015). Drawing on Basturkmen's (2010) classification of ESP, EVP can be designed from wide-angled (English for General Vocational Purposes) and narrow-angled (English for Specific Vocational Purposes) perspectives (Widodo 2014). For example, English for tourism can be classified as English for General Vocational Purposes. Framed in this general vocation, English for tourism has different branches, such as English for Hotel and Restaurant Workers, English for Hotel Receptionists, English for Tour Guides, English for Hotel Management, and Travel English. This specification is tailored to meet students' target vocational areas.

4   Elements of ESP Materials

In any language instruction, materials play a crucial role in shaping that instruction. In this chapter, I would like to discuss seven key elements of ESP materials: (1) authenticity, (2) topics/themes, (3) texts and contexts, (4) knowledge and language, (5) tasks or activities, (6) representations of participants and social practices, and (7) pedagogical prompts. These elements emphasize the totality of what constitutes ESP materials.

Authenticity has long been hotly debated in English language instruction, and it has emerged since the birth of communicative language teaching (CLT) in the 1970s. CLT has advocated genuine communicative purposes. At present, information and communication technology (ICT) has brought the concept of authenticity to the fore in that it "open[s] up unlimited access to authentic texts from the target language culture, thereby impelling the issue of authenticity of texts and interactions to the fore in language pedagogy" (Mishan 2005, p. ix). Mishan, further, argues that "authentic sources, in turn, tend to stimulate learners to further independent discovery and learning. Today, learner autonomy means taking advantage of the technological resources now widely available, and extends the notion of communicativeness to encompass computer-mediated communication" (p. 10). Particularly in language materials design, MacDonald et al. (2006) point out that the word, *authenticity*, is an attribute of language, text, and materials (e.g., authentic language, authentic text, and authentic materials). For this chapter, the notion of authenticity is defined as the actual use of texts (e.g., text of hotel room reservation) and tasks (e.g., doing online hotel room booking) in vocational areas. For low proficiency ESP students, authentic materials can be simplified based on language and content they wish to learn. The students can work on shorter texts with relatively easy vocabulary and with simple clauses. They also carry out tasks with more

capable peer or teacher support or tasks that are not cognitively demanding (e.g., assisted role playing). In the ESP context, authentic language, text, and materials should be relevant to students' specialized/disciplinary knowledge, social practices, and discourses. Taken together, authenticity in ESP materials refers to a number of factors such as actual users or interactants (e.g., hotel receptionists and guests), communicative and social purposes (e.g., check-in and check-out encounters), contexts (e.g., hotel hospitality), and social practices (e.g., guest registration).

The second element of materials is themes or topics. In every English lesson both EGP and ESP, identifying themes is one of the important criteria for selecting materials because "a content topic is always the starting point for [learning]" (Huang and Morgan 2003, p. 241). Determining a particular topic aims to specify materials content. In some ESP literature, the issue of content is associated with content based instruction (CBI) or content and language integrated learning (CLIL), one of the approaches to ESP instruction. A topic of student interest underlies a language lesson, and it is anchored in a particular genre. Within this framework, there are dual learning goals, that is, content-focused learning and language-focused learning. Specifically in ESP materials, a theme is also a crucial component of disciplinary knowledge construction. Specifying content in materials also frames topics of interest relevant to what students are currently doing in their vocational areas. In deciding themes in ESP materials, ESP teachers need to know core competencies of students' vocational areas among diverse topics of interest in the vocational context. These core competencies narrow down the scope of materials ESP teachers are designing and in turn frame the foci of the materials. For instance, students specializing in accounting should be provided with texts and tasks, which fall within the remit of such core vocational themes as financial statements, the recording process, and ledgers.

Texts and contexts are another component of ESP materials. Creation of texts is always attached to social environments where texts are socio-historically constructed. Understanding text "requires an interpretation not only of the text itself but also of its context (context of situation, context of culture), and of the systematic relationship between context and text" (Halliday 1994, p. xv). Halliday (1999) argues "the environment for language as text is the context of situation, and the environment for language as system is the context of culture" (p. 1). This suggests that texts are flexibly interpreted in relation to context. This context involves users, texts, and communicative purposes (genres). To design ESP materials (e.g., English for culinary tourism or Accounting English), teachers should include texts, which are used in culinary tourism or accounting contexts so that students will become familiar with how to understand and produce texts in these vocational domains. Thus, the selection of vocational texts should be based on the authenticity of text and task use in a particular social context (e.g., communicative events in the area of culinary tourism or accounting) because interpretation of the texts involves contextual factors (e.g., participants engaged in a vocational domain, social practices, in which they routinely participate, and vocational discourse—ways to participate).

The fourth element of ESP materials includes knowledge and language. Knowledge is seen as ""systems for interpreting the world"—systems that are

transformed even as they are being used for understanding" (Barnes, as cited, Huang and Morgan 2003, p. 235, quotation marks in original). It is tiered in that it comprises a number of interrelated components. Knowledge development cannot be divorced from language development. From a functional perspective, language is a resource for meaning making; thereby providing a principled account of how knowledge as content and language as a linguistic system/resource are intermingled with each other in discourse (Huang and Morgan 2003). Hence, linguistically, language is always integrated with knowledge as content because it presents and shapes knowledge as content and organizes texts, which comprise the knowledge. The nature of content knowledge varies from one register to another: common sense/everyday knowledge (e.g., a report), academic/scientific/disciplinary knowledge (e.g., a ledger), professional knowledge (e.g., financial accounting), and vocational knowledge (e.g., financial statements). Particularly in a field-specific or ESP domain, technicality/disciplinarity renders specialized or field-specific meaning (Wignell et al. 1993), and it helps compress meanings (Woodward-Kron 2008). Disciplinary language also assists students to understand meanings and engage with specialized knowledge. This language goes hand in hand with disciplinary knowledge in as much as it mediates the construction of disciplinary knowledge. For instance, a term, *horticulture*, conveys three main domains of meaning: *fruit cultivation*, *vegetable farming*, and *floriculture*. To understand this vocational knowledge, students need to experience and engage with disciplinary text of horticulture.

Tasks or activities (e.g., task-oriented activities: online hotel room reservation and completing a check-in form and language-oriented activities: text-based grammar analysis) are a crucial part of language materials. Task design determines how much students engage with texts and activities (Widodo 2015). Motivating activities always foster students' engagement that allows them opportunities to gain access to knowledge as well as opportunities to engage in using language in their discipline-specific practices. Without tasks or activities, learning will never happen though students are given texts. Learning activities vary from a general task to a specific task, depending on the goals of doing such activities. The nature of activities is interactional (meaning making and negotiation) and transactional (information and product-service exchanges). In a language for specific purposes, for example, tasks should be aimed at "[h]elping learners recognize language patterns typical in different disciplines can raise their awareness about the varied ways language constructs knowledge in different subjects" (Fang and Schleppegrell 2010, p. 591). In addition, activities should afford students opportunities to make use of language to perform activities that reflect disciplinary knowledge and practice in disciplinary community discourses. In other words, informed awareness of language use and capability of using the language become central learning goals. This suggests that students should be fully capable of recognizing and using disciplinary knowledge and language as a social semiotic (Halliday 1978) in social discourse communities.

Another element of language materials is representations of participants and social practices. Both participants (enacting social relationships) and practices as social processes (Malinowski & Firth, as cited in Halliday 1999) are socially

intertwined because social practices are a product of human interaction mediated by language as a form of action. Representations of participants and social practices are shaped by context of situation (register) and context of culture (genre). Thus, the use of language becomes context-specific. It is important to help students become fully aware of actual actors in particular social practices. Participants/actors and social practices are key components in actual communicative settings; all groups of people engage in social practices. For example, in vocational communicative settings, a hotel receptionist welcomes guests and assists them with check-in stuff. The nature of this social encounter is definitely interactional and transactional because both engage with negotiated meaning making and with product-service exchanges.

Instructional prompts are instructive information that guides or enables students to perform learning tasks. These verbal or non-verbal scaffolds help students manage self-regulated learning. Some authors argue that prompts are "questions or elicitations which aim to induce meaningful learning activities by eliciting learning strategies and learning activities that the students are capable of, but do not show spontaneously. Prompts stimulate active processing of the learning materials and direct the attention to central aspects" (Schworm and Gruber 2012, p. 274). Instructional prompts are also considered as an important strategy of self-regulated learning. Empirical findings show that such prompts foster learning outcomes, so they have proven to be a powerful instructional tool (Hübner et al. 2010). Prompts are questions, hints, or instructions geared to stimulate engaging learning behaviors. For this reason, prompts should be situated in social and cultural contexts so that students are able to carry out specific tasks (Horz et al. 2009). In the EVP context, the following instructional prompts stimulate student engagement: *Navigate and select two different culinary arts texts in a newspaper/a magazine and a textbook. Then, compare the use of language in the two texts in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Do these tasks in pairs*. In these prompts, students are told to do two series of tasks. First, they are asked to look for and pick a text of the same vocational topic but with different genres such as a magazine/a newspaper and a textbook. Second, they do language analysis of the two texts in relation to vocabulary and grammar. Methodologically speaking, these tasks encourage one type of collaborative learning, that is, pair work. Thus, actual learning tasks or activities along with appropriate prompts can help students to realize what is supposed to do.

In addition to the seven elements mentioned above, ESP materials should arouse students' prior knowledge or experience. This prior knowledge provides a catalyst for making sense of any information because no student is a blank slate. In other words, whether ESP materials can be incentive for meaning making enterprises depends upon students' linguistic resources and knowledge of the world, their level of competence in the language generally, their understanding of specific topics and registers, and their communicative/discursive orientations. In the vocational context, both common sense knowledge and disciplinary knowledge interweave each other.

5   Vocationally Oriented Language Learning (VOLL) Tasks

There are a variety of tasks that support vocationally oriented language learning (VOLL), that is, English for Vocational Purposes (EVP). In EVP programs, teachers attempt to achieve two goals: (1) building content knowledge and skills and (2) developing language. These dual goals help students optimize the learning of EVP. In this section, I would like to suggest three main VOLL tasks that ESP teachers may adopt or adapt. These tasks include (1) Vocational Vocabulary Building, (2) Vocational Knowledge Building, and (3) Functional Metalanguage Analysis. These tasks are a springboard for language skills tasks such as vocationally oriented speaking and writing. These speaking and writing tasks help students develop their ability to produce both spoken and written texts.

5.1   *Vocational Vocabulary Building*

In language learning, vocabulary plays a pivotal role in making sense of and producing spoken and written texts. Nation (2001) argues that particularly in the contexts of foreign language and second language programs, vocabulary knowledge affects students' language skills performance because lexical items convey meanings that the students need to comprehend and express. To comprehend and produce both spoken and written texts, language learners should have sufficient size and depth of vocabulary knowledge. The size of vocabulary knowledge pertains to the number of words that language learners know at a particular level of language ability (Akbarian 2010), but the depth of vocabulary knowledge is referred to as how well language learners knows a lexical item in different contexts (Nassaji 2004). Research into second vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Akbarian 2010; Nassaji 2004) shows that vocabulary knowledge includes different dimensions, such as pronunciation, spelling, register, style, morphological features, and syntactic and semantic relationships with other words (e.g., collocations, antonymy, synonymy, and hyponymy). Of these dimensions, register, style, and syntactic and semantic relationships with other worlds are important for EVP students, but for low proficiency students, morphological features of words may be introduced. In the EVP context, students encounter both general and technical vocabularies. Between two types of vocabulary, they may find semi-technical vocabulary, "lexical items that are neither specific to a certain field of knowledge nor general in the sense of being everyday words" (Hsu 2013, p. 257). In short, vocabulary knowledge is an important dimension of EVP so that students can understand and produce both spoken and written texts in the vocational context. For focused vocabulary building tasks, vocational vocabulary needs to be prioritized.

There are a number of tasks, which help students enhance size and depth of vocabulary knowledge.

(a) Repeated Reading (RR): The use and impact of RR (Samuels 1979) in second and foreign language vocabulary learning has been studied (see Gorsuch and Taguchi 2008). In RR, students are told to do repeated reading and pay attention to words that they need to know more in terms of morphological features and semantic taxonomies. They re-read a relatively easy and short text four times or more times, until they can read at a word per minute (wpm) level (e.g., 150 words per minute, Nation 2008). Two types of RR include unassisted RR (without an audio model) and assisted RR (with an audio model). The choice of either unassisted or assisted RR depends upon students' current language ability. For low proficient students, assisted RR is a useful task to help them build their vocabulary knowledge.

(b) Shared Reading or Text-based Discussion: Students discuss some technical words, which are related to the text they read. In this shared reading, students can talk about the words with their peers or with a teacher. They may elaborate on the use of the identified words in other contexts. The students share what words they learned or found in the text with which they engaged. In his study, Widodo (2015) exemplifies that ESP teachers and accounting students discussed enlarged vocational text (e.g., financial statements) to jointly read repeated portions of the text, identify high frequency vocational vocabulary (e.g., *assets*, *liabilities*), and talk about how particular vocational vocabulary conveys disciplinary knowledge (e.g., *an income statement*, *a balance sheet*, and *a cash flow statement*). In short, in shared reading, students share with each other or with the teacher any words they find worthy of discussion while jointly reading an enlarged text.

(c) Intentional Vocabulary Learning through Intensive Reading along with Peer and Teacher Discussion: Students learn new words intentionally through intensive reading. This intentional vocabulary learning can develop vocabulary knowledge (Kasahara 2011). Students are given a freedom of choice to learn vocabulary incidentally based on their language needs. By reading a large amount of text, students may notice particular lexical items that they would like to learn more. For instance, if students are interested in elaborating on such lexical items based on morphological (e.g., word formation), syntactic (e.g., tense change), and semantic (e.g., synonyms and hyponyms) features, they may use dictionaries (e.g., Macmillan and Cambridge) and corpora (e.g., British National Corpus and Corpus of Contemporary American English) to increase size and depth of knowledge vocabulary. Through discussion-based intensive reading, students learn a large number of words because they engage with different texts and talk about these texts. Experiencing and engaging with a range of different texts and a high volume of words in meaningful contexts can develop fluent and automatic reading.

(d) Vocabulary Portfolio Task: Students are asked to identify unfamiliar words in the text they read. They create a vocabulary portfolio, which includes morphological and semantic properties. In this vocabulary portfolio, students document word formation (e.g., *produce—production*), collocations (e.g., *make/initiate change*), synonyms (e.g., *give—afford*), and hyponyms (e.g., *culinary tour-*

ism—*tourism*) of lexical items identified. Students can also include vocabulary elaboration based on these taxonomies of elaboration: (1) naming, (2) defining, (3) classifying, (4) describing, and (5) explaining. Another form of a vocabulary portfolio is a Discipline-Specific Word List/Corpus. A Word List aims to document both general and technical words that students find widely used in their vocational area. The selection of words can be based on vocational themes, which convey key concepts in the area students are learning.

(e) Theme-Based Writing Task: Theme-based writing tasks start with vocational themes students are learning. In this task, students pick a word, which conveys key vocational information. For example, they can compose a procedure text or an information report text using the word, *a ledger* or *the recording process*, in Accounting English. They can write a step-by-step procedure for preparing for a ledger or for the recording process in the accounting area. This actual writing may begin by asking students to name, define, classify, and describe particular specialist vocabulary on which students wish to elaborate. This vocabulary elaboration leads to the actual writing task, depending on which a text type students focus on.

5.2   *Vocational Knowledge Building*

Knowledge building is the key to communication. Without sufficient knowledge, one cannot present or elaborate on a particular idea. A threshold of knowledge about a topic or topical knowledge is one of the contributing factors in successful communication. In language learning, topical knowledge is a springboard for rendering language skills such as speaking and writing as well as making meaning of both spoken and written texts. Knowledge of vocational areas varies from one discourse to another. In EVP classrooms, knowledge building can be carried out through extensive listening and extensive reading. These activities help students develop their knowledge. Students may use online resources, which provide them with a wide range of both spoken and written texts. While building vocational knowledge, students can explore how this knowledge can be presented through a different use of language because language is a tool for knowledge building or production. Here are three tasks that ESP teachers can adopt to assist their students to develop vocational or content knowledge.

(a) Reading with Literature Circles: In the EFL context, literature circles have been studied to explore the benefits of literature circles, such as student engagement, knowledge building, and language development (see Rowland and Barrs 2013; Widodo in press). In this literature circle, students are assigned to navigate, select, and present a vocational text. They are given autonomy to opt for a topic or a theme, which is relevant to their vocational interest (e.g., *culinary tourism*, *financial accounting*, or *software engineering*). In this dialogic and shared reading, students are asked to form a group of four to six members. They "meet

regularly to share ideas, feelings, questions, connections, and judgments about [texts] they had read" (Daniels 2002, p. 7). Each of the members plays different roles, such as text pickers (navigate and select a text), text masters (understand and present the text), and language enrichers (explain lexico-grammatical items and provide language resources). Teachers may assign students with a variety of roles in order to optimize literature circle-oriented reading activities and to encourage students' engagement. Thus, a literature circle-based reading task encourages students not only to talk about their vocational knowledge but also build and develop this disciplinary knowledge.

(b) Extensive Listening with Listening Journals: Students are assigned to listen to authentic listening texts and regular listening practice in the vocational domain. At the outset, student may be assigned to do simultaneous reading and listening in order to develop auditory discrimination, improve word recognition, develop a reading rate, and enhance an awareness of form-meaning relationships (Gobel and Kano 2014). ESP teachers can guide students to find digital texts through You Tube or through Google Search. Students are allowed to listen to these texts repeatedly. A variety of topics help learners develop their vocabulary through different contexts. Learners should engage in planned sustained listening for a set time between 15 and 60 min so that they become familiar with the content and language of the spoken text. To document what students listened, ESP teachers can ask them to create listening journals, which may include a summary of spoken text and language genres of the text.

(c) Extensive Reading with Learning Logs: Students are assigned to read a variety of vocational textbooks, articles, and manuals, for example. Software engineering students may read textbooks on programming language and antivirus software. Tourism students may read articles on tour guides, culinary tourism, and tourist destination management. The themes of extensive reading can be determined based on core vocational competencies that students have to achieve or develop. Vocationally oriented extensive reading enables students to build a reading tradition while widening a horizon of their vocational knowledge. More importantly, both teachers and students need to negotiate types of vocational textbooks or articles the students read on a daily or weekly basis. ESP teachers may involve vocational or content teachers in deciding reading materials so that the selection of these materials really caters to students' needs of vocational knowledge building. Learning logs can be integrated with extensive reading to keep track of what students read so far and to share their readings with teachers and with peers.

5.3   Functional Metalanguage Analysis of Vocational Texts: Spoken and Written

From a functional perspective, learning language means learning to mean through language (Armstrong and Ferguson 2010). With this in mind, students use language for three main purposes. They make use of language as an information/content resource. Students need to have the ability to convey vocational information at the sentence and discourse levels. For instance, tourism students should be able to present information on tourist destinations. Second, students use language as interpersonal resources for building and maintaining social relationships (e.g., receptionist-guest relationship, accountant-customer relationship) and social roles/identities (e.g., accountants, receptionists, tour guides). Students can convey a range of speech acts (e.g., suggesting, commanding, persuading). They engage in a variety of goods and service exchange (acting) and information exchange (knowing) activities. Thirdly, students utilize language as a resource for discourse coherence, which allows them to join their thoughts together in a coherent and cohesive way (Armstrong and Ferguson 2010).

In the context of EVP, vocational texts comprise different lexico-grammar, genres, and discourses, which convey varied meanings in context. Different contexts of communicative acts and events require different kinds of genres and lexico-grammatical expressions that are suitable to that particular context. Genres deal with text types (e.g., narratives, information reports, procedures, explanations, and argumentations) and text forms (e.g., short story books, farming guide books, and culinary manuals). Therefore, functional metalanguage analysis is suggested to help students enhance their awareness of how language works in different vocational texts. Three functional metalanguage analysis tasks: (1) genre analysis, (2) lexico-grammar analysis, and (3) language appraisal are suggested.

(a) Genre Analysis Task: Genre as "a multifaceted construct characterized by a range of features that include social actions, communities of practice, power relations, texts, and the interactions among texts" (Flowerdew 2011, p. 120). A genre analysis task assists students to recognize rhetorical or move patterns (how text is structured) and functions (social roles of move patterns) of texts. In this genre analysis task, students learn to understand situation-specific language use in one situation (Widodo 2015). For example, in the hotel hospitality industry, students are assigned to explore how online hotel room booking is done through different hotel websites. In this task, students identify what social actions prospective guests need to take, what documents and information they need to supply, and what language they use to complete this online hotel room booking. All the steps as social actions into online hotel booking are mutually linked because guests cannot proceed with the next step without completing the current step.

(b) Lexico-grammar Analysis Task: Both vocabulary and grammar are termed as lexico-grammar in order to show a dialectical relationship between the two.

Students are told to identify lexico-grammatical items and classify them into form and function in context. They may create a lexico-grammar portfolio to document the learned lexico-grammatical items in relation to form, meaning, and context. ESP teachers may ask students to identify a myriad of language choices to present information or express an argument in a different way. Certainly, these choices have an impact on meanings in context.

(c) Language Appraisal Task: Language appraisal refers to evaluation of language in use (see Martin and White 2005). It is one of the tools for unpacking authors' tones, styles, voices, and attitudes in texts. Through a functional lens, the use of language in text conveys a variety of discursive meanings realized through attitude (e.g., McAfee LiveSafe is comprehensive [**positive valuation of the thing**] antivirus software that protects [**the capacity to do a thing**] all your PCs, Macs, smartphones, and tablets); engagement [Some ecotourism researchers [**more than one voice**] reported [**reporting verb**] that younger people were more likely to pay fees for natural attractions [**evidence-based proposition**]]); and graduation (e.g., Hong Kong has a remarkably [**upscalling/strengthening a proposition**] rich geological diversity). In other words, a language appraisal task assists students to become aware of how the use of language impacts on particular meanings in context.

6   Conclusion

This chapter has presented key elements of teaching EVP, which is a branch of ESP, such as needs analysis, EVP coverage, elements of EVP materials design, and instructional design of EVP. In particular, it has chronicled three main EVP tasks; namely, vocational vocabulary building, vocational knowledge building, and functional metalanguage analysis. Vocational vocabulary building tasks prepare students to develop their technical vocabulary knowledge in terms of size and depth. Vocational knowledge building tasks aim to assist students to become familiar with vocational knowledge, social practices, and discourses. Functional metalanguage analysis tasks expose students to a variety of how language operates within a myriad of vocational texts. These three tasks can be tailored to students' present language needs and language ability. ESP teachers can use needs analysis tools (e.g., interviews and formal and informal tests) to examine students' language needs and ability. Taken together, the goals of these tasks are to help students build language and genre awareness of vocational texts and to develop language resources and vocational knowledge. In EVP programs, vocational vocabulary building, vocational knowledge building, and functional metalanguage analysis tasks can be integrated with more challenging language skills tasks, such as vocationally oriented speaking (VOS) and vocationally oriented writing (VOW). To extend students' experience and engagement with vocationally oriented learning tasks both inside and outside the classroom, both teachers and students can use different technological tools and platforms, such as online dictionaries and thesauruses (e.g., Online Macmillan

Dictionary, Thesaurus.com), online videos (e.g., CNN, You Tube, podcasts), The World Wide Web (e.g., websites, blogs, wikis), corpora (e.g., BNC, COCA), mobile device apps, and social networking sites (e.g., Facebook). Using different technological tools and platforms definitely provides students with ample opportunities to access language in context and to use English as a target language in different vocational/professional communication contexts.

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Facilitating Workplace Communicative Competence

Radhika Jaidev and Brad Blackstone

Abstract Many workplace communicative competence curricula are skills-based and rightfully so because the objective is to equip students with, e.g., writing and speaking skills that they can readily apply when they go out to work. However, teaching these skills in atomistic, compartmentalized lesson units in linear progression, as is the case when we teach business email writing followed by proposal writing and then verbal and non-verbal communication followed by oral presentation skills, divorced from a context or overarching purpose, undermines the significance of learning those very skills for the student. Students may not be able to appreciate that real workplace tasks are usually organic in nature and as such, require one to apply a variety of communication skills from start to finish in order to achieve the overall purpose. That purpose could be to investigate a problem and find a solution, research a product or service to persuade a client, etc. In this chapter, we describe the Proposal Communication Project (PCP), an inquiry-based, group research project which required students to be actively engaged in identifying a problem, follow through by investigating and analysing it from different perspectives and then proposing a viable solution- all the while actively applying a range of communication skills within multi-modal contexts from start to finish. In this way, the inquiry-based pedagogy simulated real-world, workplace communication demands within the classroom context to facilitate significant learning.

Keywords Workplace communicative competence • Inquiry-based pedagogy • Multi-modal contexts • Active student engagement • Significant learning

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1   Introduction

This chapter describes and evaluates an inquiry-based research project of a professional communication course offered as an elective at the National University of Singapore (NUS). The project is referred to as a Proposal Communication Project (PCP) because in the process of working towards producing a research-based written proposal and delivering a team presentation based on that over a span of 8–10 weeks, students had to carry out several associated communication tasks individually and in their teams. The project was designed based on an inquiry-based pedagogical approach, which required students to be actively engaged in "problem posing, investigating, critical analysis, taking multiple perspectives, and communicating to build and share knowledge" (Jennings and Mills 2010, p. 468). Such an approach was employed to facilitate students' acquisition of English language and communication skills within the multi-modal contexts needed for the workplace by engaging them in a group or team research project that required them to actively apply all of the communication skills that they were being exposed to in a particular professional communication module. In this way, the approach simulated real-world, workplace communication demands within a classroom context. Course development was also informed by Fink's "Taxonomy of Significant Learning" (2003, p. 30), the key dimensions of which include 'learning how to learn' and 'learning about oneself and others' as well as the 'integration of different ideas, people and various realms of life' and the 'application of one's practical, creative and critical thinking.' Basing a course project on such a foundation requires that self-directed, task-based learning be situated at the centre of the educational process. From this perspective, the teacher is expected to serve mainly as a facilitator for students, outlining the macro tasks for the project and providing frameworks for accomplishment, rather than acting as the central source of knowledge. Through the cooperative nature of the tasks, each student is encouraged to establish and explore relationships with others, empowered to make important group-based as well as individual decisions and judgements, and provided with ample opportunity to reflect and share those reflections. A significant point to note about this project is that there is a strong emphasis on student use of technology and virtual platforms to communicate over and above face-to-face communication, e.g., through emails, pedagogical blogging, Google docs and a self and peer-assessment online platform called TEAMMATES (Goh et al. 2011). TEAMMATES was developed by a team led by Professor Damith Rajapakse at the School of Computing in NUS. The incorporation of this and other forms of technology and the use of virtual communication to balance face-to-face communication in this project is a conscious effort to simulate communication in contemporary workplace contexts.

2   Inquiry-Based Pedagogy in the PCP

The inquiry-based teaching-learning approach adopted for this research project immersed the students in a 'real' problem-solution context in which they had to employ spoken and written English communication to respond to a real-world problem challenge: they had to set goals within their teams, brainstorm ideas, seek information, develop strategies to solve their respective problems and then present their recommendations for a solution to a 'real' client or group of stakeholders. The project also encouraged students to carefully consider their 'audience,' the 'purpose,' and the 'context' of any communication before crafting a 'message,' whether that was to seek information from someone or persuade someone into taking action. The underlying objective of employing an inquiry-based pedagogy to teach language and communication was to emphasize to students the importance of *adapting their language and communication style to suit specific audience needs in particular workplace contexts*, and in so doing, develop what Wee (2008) categorizes as 'self-based authenticity,' a critical component for any effective professional communicator (p. 259).

According to Wee (2008), the nurturing in students of "self-based authenticity," or the individual's ability to project confidence, commitment to the task at hand, trustworthiness and sincerity in professional contexts, is "achievable with sufficient practice" through planned and carefully designed classroom activities (p. 263). Consequently, an important consideration when conceiving the PCP was that it had to provide multiple opportunities for students to define and clarify who they were to themselves first, and then to others, i.e., the rest of the world (Gad 2001, p. 171). Wee (2008) explains this process as one that requires a person to make "careful adjustments that take into account anticipated audience feedback" (p. 269). The PCP was designed to provide students with the opportunity to discover their own language and communication styles, learn through inquiry, observe audience response, and reflect and adjust their language and communication styles to suit those of their interlocutors. For these reasons, the project was designed as a group assignment in which students would collaborate, engage actively in various communicative tasks, and exchange feedback with peers.

As described earlier, these tasks were focused on a problem-solution challenge and required students within a team to brainstorm areas of interest, decide through negotiation and eventual consensus on an area in which there was a pressing problem, identify specific issues within that problem situation that could be solved or improved upon, strategize a research plan for finding a solution and then propose that to the relevant audience. In this process of inquiry, students had to go beyond the confines of the university and, through personal interviews and survey questionnaires, fully engage members of the local community who were actual stakeholders in the chosen topic area. Furthermore, at strategic junctures during this whole process, the students were provided with opportunities on various platforms to reflect on their own performance as well as to obtain critical feedback, both orally and in writing, from their tutors and peers. The self-reflection and feedback was carried out

through classroom debriefing sessions, through the use of an interactive software named TEAMMATES and through written interactions facilitated by pedagogical blogging. With feedback and reflection being so strongly encouraged, the students were able to openly share their ideas and opinions while also practising what they had learnt in the course about effective communication.

3   Twenty-First Century Values and Skills

In the previous section, it was noted how important it is for soon-to-graduate university students to have experiences that allow them to develop their personal brands and shape their language and communication styles through practising the requisite skills and competencies. Achieving success in their personal, academic, professional and civic endeavours may well depend on this. Many business leaders, policy makers and educators have recognized the changing social landscape and identified such student needs by designating a particular skill set as "21st century skills" (atc21s.org 2014; Singapore Ministry of Education 2010). These skills include creativity/innovation, collaboration, communication, media literacy, research and inquiry, as well as flexibility and adaptability (Ananiadou and Claro 2009; National Research National Research Council 2012).

However, as Rotherham and Willingham (2009) state convincingly, many of these skills are not new. The Boyer Commission Report of 1998 recommended that the undergraduate learning experience be enhanced by making research-based learning a requirement, and it suggested that joint projects as well as collaborations be made part of every university learning experience. The report also recommended that university courses incorporate opportunities for students to express their research findings both orally and in writing.

Indeed, communication, critical thinking, problem solving, information literacy, and global awareness have long been valued and provided to "the elites" in the top schools in many societies. What seems different today is that "schools must be more deliberate about teaching critical thinking, collaboration, and problem solving to **all students**…." (Rotherham and Willingham 2009, para. # 4). This notion might be appropriate for each of the traditional soft skills along with the more obvious twenty-first century skill areas, including information/ communication technology concepts and operations, and digital citizenship. Within such a discussion, the question posed to many educators is, "how to meet the challenges of delivering content and skills in a rich way that genuinely improves outcomes for students" (Rotherham and Willingham 2009, para. # 7).

4 Teaching Twenty-First Century Values and Skills Through Inquiry-Based Pedagogy

In many universities, the capstone project is where students collaborate in research-based tasks that require them to present their findings orally and in writing. In NUS, the 'professional communication' courses are generally designed to optimise students' opportunities to interact in different groups, collaborate on research projects, and present their findings orally and in writing to an audience. In this way, these courses are designed specifically to assist students in developing their English language and communication skills to secure positions and perform effectively beyond the university, whether in the workplace, in an internship or within a post-graduate research program. A number of such communication courses have been implemented in various university faculties. The professional communication course described and evaluated in this chapter, along with the central project of the course, was aimed at addressing the English language and communication needs of second-, third- and fourth-year students, mainly from the science and engineering faculties (with a few students from other faculties) in various social settings, but most especially, within the workplace. In terms of learning outcomes, the course goals were to help students:

- understand the basic principles of good communication;
- employ a variety of appropriate strategies in order to make a favorable impression and successfully interact and exchange ideas with others;
- plan, construct and produce "professional" messages, both oral and written, that are clear, convincing and fitting to audience, context, and purpose; and
- deliver those messages effectively, in writing and orally

However, as Kramsch (2006) has stated, "Today it is not sufficient for learners to know how to communicate meanings; they have to understand the practice of meaning making itself" (p. 251). This could be taken to mean that it is no longer adequate to be able to use the right words and syntax or even to adapt one's communication to suit the perceived 'stereotypes' of different and yet 'fixed' cultures because it has been established that such linguistic and cultural stereotypes do not exist (Rampton 1999). Kramsch (2006) suggests exposing students to many different ways of expressing and communicating so as to help them realise the contradictions and unclear ways in which people might use language; in this manner students can engage in real "meaning-making" (p. 251). She also contends that there should be emphasis on the form that a piece of communication takes, "e.g., linguistic, textual, visual, acoustic, poetic" because form conveys meaning as well (p. 252). As has already been stated, in the PCP under discussion, such 'meaning making' was facilitated within a series of 'interactional contexts' (i.e., group project discussions, peer feedback sessions, TEAMMATES, task debriefings, blogging) that served as pedagogical platforms for heightening students' awareness of their 'authentic selves' as they connected with others. The various reflection exercises, in particular, encouraged students to leverage on their strengths and improve on those weaknesses

apparent in their project-related written, verbal and nonverbal communications. The PCP allowed for all this and more by providing students with a workplace-like experience, one that required them to interact with each other within and outside of their project teams through multiple modes, be those face-to-face, by telephone (voice and texting) or online, all the while utilizing a broadening skill base so that they might not only do well in the course but also eventually be better equipped for a real world workplace.

5 Workplace Communicative Competence

Cameron (2002) states that the contemporary workplace demands much more than language proficiency from individuals. She explains that to be able to communicate competently at the workplace, one needs to be able to speak openly and truthfully about one's feelings, listen actively to different perspectives without pre-judging and exercise assertiveness when necessary. Added to this combination of necessary skills is the ability to interact with colleagues from different cultures, a common feature of contemporary workplaces. Indeed, these are formidable goals, some requiring years of practice to refine. Nonetheless, the PCP described in this chapter was designed to raise students' awareness of the demands of contemporary workplace communicative competence.

In a sense, Larsen-Freeman's (1997) reference to chaos or complexity theory to describe the differences among learners, ranging from the nature of their first language and socio-cultural background to English proficiency level in a second language classroom, has a parallel in the contemporary workplace. For example, although English may be the official language in a country such as Singapore, whenever workers communicate with one another 'on the shop floor,' be they principle stakeholders and members of management, regular staff members or part-time employees, they may not understand that all who interact "do so as whole persons with hearts, bodies, and minds, with memories, fantasies, loyalties, identities" (Kramsch 2006, p. 251). What this means is that when people communicate, their views and preferences are influenced by their cultural backgrounds, and miscommunications may result if there is a lack of awareness of these cultural influences within any complex communication situation. As stated in an earlier section of this chapter, employers and employees alike must be able to recognize possible ambiguities and contradictions in language use in such complex contexts and make meaning out of them. In addition, they must be able to understand and employ different discourse strategies to express themselves through different modalities and media. Within this context, it can be said that *workplace communicative competence* requires individuals to be able and willing to 'self-style' their speech according to their interlocutors' roles in any particular workplace communication exchange, and these exchanges are likely to carry with them a range of emotions, such as apprehension and anxiety, a sense of superiority or inferiority (Canagarajah 2012). Furthermore, these emotions and the way they can be expressed may not be

immediately obvious, which is why university students entering the job market should have opportunities to interact with others in simulated workplace situations so that their abilities to recognize and control such emotions might be further developed.

6 The Proposal Communication Project

The Proposal Communication Project (PCP), as alluded to in previous sections, was a research-based proposal that students undertook for researching and writing a problem-solution proposal and then presenting that to an audience of peers. The project began with a mock *Call for Proposals*, or what is commonly known in professional communication contexts as a Request for Proposals, or RfP. It read as follows:

> In the ongoing effort to ensure that Singapore develops in a manner that benefits its citizens, I would like you to identify a specific problem area, **outside NUS but within Singapore**, that you believe could be improved, whether in services for the elderly, the transport system, housing and rising living costs, education, or any other area. Analyze the context of the problem and possible causes thoroughly, develop and recommend a solution and/or plan of action to address the situation. Also, demonstrate the benefits of your proposed solution/ plan of action.

It can be seen from the RfP that a broad theme relevant to Singapore was assigned. The main reason for this was that it was believed that a local problem or issue would give the assignment the urgency and concreteness that students could leverage while conducting their research. A secondary consideration was that placing the research issue within the local context would both simplify students' search for secondary data through the university's library portal and expedite their efforts to contact respondents and interviewees while conducting primary research. This was an important practical consideration since students only had 8–10 weeks to complete the entire project. The process from start to finish involved students going through the following stages:

(i) form teams of three to four members and agree on meeting schedules and platforms (face-to-face, virtual on Google Hangout)
(ii) brainstorm ideas in response to the RfP on areas of concern that affect the quality of life of people in Singapore
(iii) negotiate and come to a consensus about a specific area of research within the scope of the theme
(iv) deliberate and agree on a plan of action that includes details of

    (a) the scope of the research with respect to the area of concern so that the project is achievable within the time frame
    (b) where to look for the secondary data

(c) the target population to observe, survey or interview for the primary data and whether expert opinion should be sought, what sample sizes would be optimal for the questionnaire surveys and/or interviews

(d) the best ways to carry out the research, e.g., platforms on which to administer the surveys (e.g., Google surveys, Survey Monkey), whether to conduct face-to-face, telephone or other types of interviews (e.g., Google Drive/Hangout, Skype, or FaceTime)

(e) how to design a good questionnaire survey and interview (peer-teaching on questionnaire design and informational interviews/asking good questions)

(f) how to approach respondents to take the surveys and request permission from potential subjects for the interviews (peer-teaching on business writing)

(g) how to communicate on a regular basis on the status of each sub-task (e.g., through WhatsApp or WeChat)

(v) agree on whether to divide up the workload based on individual members' strengths or to divide it up equally regardless of strengths

(vi) agree on deadlines for progressive completion of component parts of the total project to ensure the smooth flow and completion of the final product

(vii) agree on a fair method of sharing information so that there would be individual accountability and group cooperation towards achieving a common goal (using, for example, Google Drive and Google Docs)

(viii) conduct secondary and primary research

(ix) analyse the data, draw conclusions and make recommendations

(x) complete a mid-project self and peer assessment of one's own as well as one's peers' interpersonal and team-working skills during the project utilizing an NUS-developed software called TEAMMATES

(xi) write the eight to ten page draft proposal according to the guidelines and recommended format with proper references, ensuring that there would not be any plagiarism

(xii) conduct peer-review of the draft of another team's written proposal

(xiii) review, revise, and edit the draft proposal based on the peer feedback as well as making it ready for submission

(xiv) conduct practice presentations of the final team presentations and give peer feedback on the practice presentations of other teams

(xv) deliver the team presentation of the proposal to a panel of 'stakeholders' usually comprising the tutor and classroom peers.

(xvi) write a 250-word reflective blog post on one's individual performance during the final presentation

(xvii) write a 250-word reflective blog on one's own experience while working with the team on the project

(xviii) complete an end-of-project self and peer assessment of one's own as well as one's peers' interpersonal and team-working skills during the project through the NUS-developed TEAMMATES software.

From the itemized description of the project at various stages, it can be observed that with guidance from the teacher, students could make both independent and consensus decisions on the area and scope of research while also setting both individual and team targets as the basis for completion of the project's component parts. Work was shared based on equity in load and individual skill strengths. In this manner the project required that students act on their own initiatives and yet collaborate very closely, thus demonstrating the breadth of twenty-first century skills that were mentioned earlier.

During the span of 6–8 weeks when students worked on the PCP, the teacher also would discuss with students the essentials of the various tasks involved, for instance, proposal writing and presentation delivery, and would provide clear models of previously completed assignments on similar themes and well-defined rubrics demonstrating the criteria expected in each major component of the assignment (the presentation and the proposal). Further scaffolding was provided by the students themselves when they engaged in peer teaching of topics like questionnaire surveys and information interviews. Throughout the process, students had the chance to ask questions, clarify their doubts, and consolidate their understanding of how to complete each the component tasks.

7 Opportunities for Acquiring Workplace Communicative Competence

In preparation for the PCP, students were advised to have a 'mixed group' profile as they were forming project teams, meaning that they were supposed to include a mix of females and males as well as Singaporeans and non-Singaporeans on their teams. This was usually possible because, over and above the usual multicultural Singaporean profile of the classes, this course tended to attract a fair number of exchange students from both Asian and Western countries. Such a situation provided an excellent opportunity for the students to interact and work with peers from cultural groups different from their own, and they frequently encountered real-life communication situations that were complex and culturally-influenced, complete with English language use and usage that was sometimes different from what they had been accustomed to. This experience encouraged students to strive to *make meaning* out of what was being spoken by asking questions for clarification and paraphrasing to check understanding. Here are two experiences shared by students working in such groups:

> Some things that we felt did not appear as usual to them. But working with them taught me to overcome my initial concern. As my peer teaching group was mostly made up of exchange students, there was some difficulties communicating with some of them. Some of the norms that happened in Singapore posed challenges in communication and working styles. **Student F**
>
> I found it useful to work with people from different backgrounds than myself, as it helped me learn how to better handle situations where we did not agree and to respect the

fact that other people can have different views and working styles than mine. We could learn from each other. **Student G**

As the teams embarked on their research, many of them chose to 'meet' online on Google Drive and share what they did among their team members. Often, they used this platform to collaborate, revise, and edit their drafts. A tutor could also work with the different teams on the same platform. Through such sharing, the teams would receive tutor and peer feedback on their research methods, survey questionnaires, interview briefs, emails to prospective interviewees, and proposal drafts.

Also, throughout the 12-week term, students engaged in several other specific tasks, all of which scaffolded workplace communication competence. One such related task was the peer-teaching that students carried out on specific topics. The peer-teaching task progressed alongside the research project on the course schedule. Each team of three or four students selected a topic from a prescribed list, including writing business correspondence, designing a survey questionnaire, and conducting an information interview, all of which were conceived to provide basic scaffolding for the proposal project. Once students had chosen their team topic, each team collaborated to create and then implement a 30-min lesson. In the lesson, the teams were expected to introduce the thematic focus of their lesson in a manner that they found most appropriate, whether that was via a lecture or workshop or a combination of the two. Prior to any of the peer lessons, the tutor would present materials in both a lecture and workshop format, and debrief students on the style and approach of the lessons, highlighting what they had done and why, thereby providing foundations for the students' own instructional experience. The peer teaching provided students with an opportunity to learn through teaching their peers while experiencing standing at the front of the classroom, in presentation mode.

Since each peer lesson was also debriefed regarding the effectiveness of the each student's performance, verbally and nonverbally, including the use of slides and other audio-visuals, the cumulative effect was that by the time students had to present their proposal toward the course end, they were quite thoroughly versed in presentation skills, accustomed to giving classmates open, honest feedback, and had had ample opportunity to practice reflexive skills.

In their reflections, they were asked to critically comment on and evaluate their own attitudes and behaviours (i.e., decision-making, performances) and those of their peers. They did this, firstly, through a reflective blog post that encouraged them to chronicle the degree to which they and their team members contributed to the various stages and completion of the project. In addition, students made qualitative and quantitative assessments of their own and their team members' contributions using the TEAMMATES software. Both of these sources provided essential feedback on students' learning experiences.

8 Learning Through the Pedagogical Blogging for Reflection

Pedagogical blogging has been shown to be an effective means of facilitating learning in communication courses (Blackstone 2009; Jaidev 2014). Student learning in this PCP is clearly exhibited in the positive comments made in the following student posts:

> What I learnt from this group project is that developing self-awareness is the first step to recognizing one's own strengths and weaknesses. Once you have identified what you are good at, the onus is on you to make capital of it. On the other hand, step down and let someone else shine for your weakness/weaknesses. Ultimately, it's all teamwork – one gains, all gain. **Student A**
>
> As a student from Arts and Social Sciences, I had had the experience of writing many different types of proposals and written reports in my four years at NUS, and I didn't think that this proposal would be any different from the rest of them. I found out, however, that the rest of my team members had only had minimal opportunity to write proposals in their field of studies, and therefore struggled quite a bit in knowing how it should be done, or what tone to use when writing etc. As a result, I found myself having to provide suggestions for improvements when proof-reading their contributions in the proposal. Nonetheless, I am fortunate that the rest of my team did not take these suggestions as criticism, but rather, used them as a guide to improve the proposal further. I believe the same should be done in a working environment. Colleagues may not be entirely satisfied with another's work, but it is through effective communication that a team is able to work well together. I also feel that it is important to be humble and accept or listen to another's suggestions in the workplace, be it good or bad, in order for oneself to improve and produce better work as a team. **Student B**
>
> From experience, I know that it is quite possible for text messages and emails to be misinterpreted at times, resulting in misunderstandings and reduced efficiency. To pre-empt these potentially costly mistakes, I decided to hold face-to-face meetings and discussion sessions, and I made it a point to make or ask for clarifications whenever in doubt. Patience was vital, especially since my team mates and I had different working styles, and it was the first time any of us had taken part in such a project. Therefore, the key to the great working alliance that we built was the fact that we took the time and effort to understand each other better, allowing us to reconcile our differing working styles. **Student C**
>
> My team members come from different cultures. This enabled our group to provide various perspectives and pen down interesting comparisons of cross-cultural norms. Moreover, each of my team members had a unique forte. Mohsein was from Pakistan and he was the 'question bank' of the group. His questions enabled us to critically think. Hui Lin explained to us the Singaporean way of life and how feasible certain solutions may or may not be. Jennifer was able to provide insight on the surveying methods, the pros and cons of administering it online or in person, with her background in Communication Studies. Meesha, comes from India. She gave constructive criticism about our ideas to improve our proposal. Each group member understood each other's commitments and so we compensated for one another. Mohsein was in the midst of his Final Year Project. Thus, we were able to be flexible for his parts. Such adaptability is key for a team to work at the workplace, however, it might be difficult to achieve as each person wants to be recognized and applauded for his/her own work. (*Students' names have been changed to protect their identities*) **Student D**

Here is an example of a negative student project experience, though one which the student views in a positive light:

> One of my group mates did not have the same compromising attitude as the rest while working together and was stubborn in her views. Although looking positively, this attitude

was due to her concern of the project but she did not put this across in a positive manner. She needs to reflect on her past experiences working with group members to understand she has to open up her mind to other people's views as well. From proposal communication project, I have to say that although the working experience was negative, I have benefitted positively as I now have an additional way to handle another kind of individual which I can add to my repertoire. **Student E**

Key verb phrases in the reflections that seem to illustrate 'heightening students' awareness of their 'authentic selves" are:

- *developing self-awareness*
- *recognizing one's own strengths and weaknesses*
- *step down and let someone else shine for your weakness/weaknesses*
- *having to provide suggestions for improvements when proof-reading their contributions*
- *be humble and accept or listen to another's suggestions*
- *made it a point to make or ask for clarifications*
- *took the time and effort to understand each other better, allowing us to reconcile our differing working styles*
- *enabled us to critically think*

In addition, there are clear indices of interpersonal and intercultural learning in expressions such as:

- *One gains, all gain*
- *my team did not take these suggestions as criticism, but rather, used them as a guide to improve*
- *reconcile our differing working styles*
- *interesting comparisons of cross-cultural norms*
- *we compensated for one another*
- *adaptability is key for a team*
- *an additional way to handle another kind of individual which I can add to my repertoire.*

9   Further Learning: Using TEAMMATES for Self and Peer Assessment

Using this NUS-developed interactive, web-based software, students were also required to assess their own as well as their teammates' levels of engagement, communication, and contributions to the team project. These assessments were made during the halfway point of project work, and again at the end, after submission of the written proposal. They did this quantitatively, by awarding a percentage value to their own and their team members' contributions to the project, and then qualitatively, by stating how much or little they and their team members' contributed to the project. The qualitative comments on their team members were given in two parts,

one being confidential, which only the teacher could view, and the other visible to the peer. The rationale given by the creators of this software for the fact that there was a section dedicated to confidential comments only accessible to the tutor was that these sorts of comments could be considered when awarding individual grades for team projects. Regardless of this, it is the qualitative comments that provide insights into students' communication styles, describing whether they and/or their team members were perceived as adjusting their communication styles in response to feedback from their teammates and the extent to which they were able to 'make meaning' from the interactions with different people through the weeks using the communication form they had engaged in. A value add of this platform was that the teacher had access and could monitor the group dynamics of every team, in this way being able to identify any problems related to interpersonal communication as the work progressed. One example of a student comment about the participation of a team member on TEAMMATES follows:

> P has a loud personality. This can be a good or a bad characteristic. As she is loud and forthcoming, she tends to facilitate the discussion. However, personally, I find her to be quite rude, inapproachable and domineering at times. She has the bad habit of interrupting people. Sometimes, when I was halfway through my sentence, she would cut me off and express her own thoughts. This makes me feel that my thoughts are unappreciated and makes me less likely to voice my opinions. Although P mentioned several times that everyone was welcome to express their opinions, her actions had made me hesitate. For example, during the second meeting, while we were working on the survey questions, I asked if we should define the term "family members" because I thought it could be subjective. I would take "family members" to mean my immediate family members. However, P brushed me off and said that it was understood that family members included grandparents and relatives. I gave P an "Equal Share" contribution because she facilitated and led the meetings. **Student E**

It can be observed from these qualitative comments that through the PCP the students had an opportunity to become more aware of different communication styles and of how to then adapt their own communication to be effective in professional, collaborative contexts, where specific goals need to be achieved.

10   Conclusion

In this chapter, we have documented an inquiry-based proposal communication project (PCP), which is the central component in a professional communication course offered as an elective at NUS. The pedagogical basis for the project design was the inquiry-based teaching-learning approach, with a focus on problem-solution, oral presenting and proposal writing tasks. The project process was underpinned by the principles of Fink's "Taxonomy of Significant Learning" (2003): 'learning how to learn' and 'learning about oneself and others' as well as the 'integration of different ideas, people and various realms of life' and the 'application of one's practical, creative and critical thinking.'

The PCP itself required students to work in teams and respond to a Request for Proposals by negotiating, developing and communicating a problem solution. It was the PCP's emphasis on 'group assignment' that encouraged students to collaborate and negotiate the best way to complete each project task, including individual activities such as writing emails and preparing text messages, or arranging meetings, constructing survey questionnaires, conducting interviews, and then tabulating the survey results, and finally, writing the proposal document and preparing for the group presentation. Through this extended process, the various teams and their members had to interact closely; each student had to explore and optimise communication strategies in the spoken, written and visual forms, and they were encouraged to employ nonverbal communication cues to strategically persuade their peers to entertain their ideas, opinions, and their component 'products.' More formally, each student had to contribute to his team's cooperative efforts; he had to contribute to a written document that would convince reading audiences of his team proposal's merit, and he or she had to collaborate with his team to create a cohesive, appealing presentation focused on persuading a specific audience of the value of their team's ideas. Within these various tasks, there was broad opportunity for significant learning, both language-wise and in the range of communication skills and competencies essential for the workplace.

During all phases of the project, each student was asked to pay particular attention to his own and his peers' communication style; each was asked to notice the development of his 'self-based authenticity' and attend to a conscious shaping of his self-based authenticity. This was accomplished through multiple modes, including the interactive nature of the in-class debriefings, reflective blog writing and self and peer assessment of the different aspects of project work using the TEAMMATES software. It was in the review of each of these tasks, within the varied 'interactional contexts,' that students were required to extend their individual capabilities and not just collaborate with each other but provide critical feedback to one another. In this way, authentic 'meaning making' was facilitated.

At the same time, within the project teams, students sometimes faced difficulties in reaching a consensus on key decisions and in coordinating the efforts of all the members so that a particular task was completed to each member's satisfaction. Even the ultimate goal of producing a quality written proposal and delivering a persuasive presentation could not always be achieved because team members often had diverging views on 'the best way' to do something. These challenges were reported in various blog reflections and in the feedback in TEAMMATES. However, as students addressed the challenges they had faced, many would express that it was exactly such dissension that had also contributed to their significant learning. In fact, they were able to recognize that they had to adapt their communication styles to suit the people that they had been working with taking into consideration both the latter's English language proficiency and communication style. From this, it can be surmised that in participating in the inquiry-based proposal communication project, students were able to apply their language and communication skills through face-to-face as well as virtual modes to make meaning of their context. Additionally, they felt that they were learning about themselves and others through integrating their

ideas with those of the people around them, which, in turn, helped them in shaping their authentic, personal brands in preparation for their future workplace.

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