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Prácticum 4.2 Examen Complexivo

Guía didáctica



Facultad de Ciencias Sociales, Educación y Humanidades

Departamento de Filosofía, Artes y Humanidades

Prácticum 4.2 Examen Complexivo

Guía didáctica

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Autor:

Ochoa Cueva César Augusto



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Ochoa Cueva César Augusto

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Ediloja Cía. Ltda.

Telefax: 593-7-2611418.

San Cayetano Alto s/n.

www.ediloja.com.ec

edilojacialtda@ediloja.com.ec

Loja-Ecuador

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1. Information data

1.1. Presentation of the subject



1.2. Generic Competencies of the UTPL

Written and oral communication

Communication in the English language

Critical and reflective thinking

1.3. Specific Competencies of the major

Integrates pedagogical, linguistic, didactic and curricular knowledge that allow, interdisciplinary, the updating of models, the use of learning methodologies and the incorporation of knowledge for the teaching of English as a foreign language in a practical and systematic way, based on the development of critical, reflective, creative and experiential thought in relation to the development of the persons and their context.

1.4. Problems addressed by the subject

Limited dialogical communication and lack of involvement between educational actors in the development of effective institutional management and outreach program processes.

Limited knowledge of research approaches, designs, techniques and instruments.



2. Learning methodology

The two approaches, critical-reflective thinking and self-study, will be used as the methodology of this course. The critical-reflective thinking includes a blend of theory and practice through reflective inquiry, which is going to help students examine phenomena or situations critically. Consequently, students will develop rational, reflective, and analytical skills that will contribute to increase their critical thinking and intellect. Furthermore, learners will be presented real-life contexts focused on three main components linguistics, methodologies and research; thus, theory and practice are combined.

On the other hand, the course activities are designed to be carried out using the self-study approach, which enables learners to work autonomously at their own style and pace to acquire knowledge. By means of the methodology described above students will be provided with the tools to reach the goals of their professional profile.

Moreover, this didactic guide includes contents that will help pre-service EFL teachers recall specific topics studied in the English program. The main purpose of this course is to display all the specific competencies and teaching skills acquired throughout the English Major. In addition, explanations on how the complex exam will be structured and how contexts will be used in the exam are going to be delivered.

In this guide, you will find information that is going to help you perform in the examination process successfully. This course belongs to the Unit of Curricular Integration / Complex Exam, which is achieved in two academic periods. Henceforth, it is divided into Prácticum 4.1 and Prácticum 4.2. Since you have taken and passed Prácticum 4.1, in order to obtain the Bachelor's Degree in English, you will need to pass Prácticum 4.2 and the complex exam. Therefore, it is necessary that you get acquainted with all the contents described in this didactic guide and in the [Guidelines of the Unit of Curricular Integration](#).



3. Didactic guidelines per learning outcomes

Learning outcome 1



First term

- Applies research techniques, strategies and procedures in the description, interpretation and analysis of results about problems related to the teaching-learning process of English in different contexts.

Contents, resources and recommended learning activities

The learning outcome 1 will be achieved by providing students with information and real-life contexts that allow them to recall about theory and practice data related to the fields of linguistics, methodology and research in EFL teaching environments. In addition, based on the referred contexts, there will be some questions related to the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO) taxonomy revised in Practicum 4.1, which will allow students to practice and get prepared to take the complex exam.



Week 1

Unit 1. The Linguistic Field in EFL

Dear student, welcome to study the first unit of this course. The purpose of this unit is to provide general information and contexts about linguistics, pronunciation, second language acquisition, and semantics and pragmatics in the EFL teaching and learning environment. Therefore, we will focus on the main characteristics of the above-mentioned topics and there will be some examples of contexts that include the fields of study that form

the linguistic component. In this way, dear student, you will be able to recall what you have studied in previous levels of the English program and internalize the knowledge of the linguistic field so that you succeed when taking the complex exam.

Now, you are going to have a general overview of how important is to know about linguistics in the field of teaching and learning. Thus, let us begin with this first topic.

1.1. The Importance of Linguistics in EFL teaching and learning

In terms of O'Grady and Archibald (2016), language is at the heart of all human aspects. Language is used when we are speaking, listening, reading, writing, and thinking. It supports social relationships and communities; it builds the emotional bond between parent and child; it is the vehicle for literature and poetry. Language is not just a part of all human beings; language defines us. All *normal* human beings have at least one language, and it is difficult to conceive much significant social, intellectual, or artistic activity taking place without the opportunities language provides us for communication. In this regard, the branch that studies a language is called Linguistics, which deals with how language works, how it is used, how it is acquired, how it changes over time, how it is represented in the brain, and so forth. In addition, Linguistics is focused not only on explaining the features of the more than 7000 living languages in the world, but also, it refers to the abilities and adaptations that have made it possible for human beings to create and use language in the first place.

On the other hand, speakers of a language are able to produce and understand an unlimited number of utterances, including many that are novel and unfamiliar. This fact has great significance since EFL teachers need to be able to handle the language appropriately. Furthermore, teachers have to be able to recognize that certain utterances are not acceptable and do not belong in the language they are teaching. Therefore, having knowledge in this regard, which is often called linguistic competence, constitutes the central subject matter of linguistics (O'Grady & Archibald, 2016).

According to O'Grady and Archibald (2016) linguistic competence is conceived by linguists as focusing on the mental system that allows human beings to form and interpret the sounds, words, and sentences of a language. Thus, EFL teachers have to be aware of such system, which

according to linguists is often called grammar and we can represent it by pointing out its components as you can see in the following table.

Table 1.

The components of grammar

Component	Domain
Phonetics	the articulation and perception of speech sounds
Phonology	the patterning of speech sounds
Morphology	word formation
Syntax	sentence formation
Semantics	the interpretation of words and sentences

Note. The table depicts the description of each one of the grammar components.

Dear student, as you observed in the table above, the term grammar is presented in a special way within linguistics. Therefore, as EFL teachers, we need to understand that grammar is not a book, nor is it concerned with just the shape of words and sentences. More than that, grammar is the intricate network of knowledge that underlies our ability to use language. The study of the components described above lies at the core of our attempts to understand what language is and what it means to know a language. Consequently, mastering the 5 components is so important to help us teaching English as a foreign language effectively. Dear students, I invite you to watch the video [what grammar is for a linguist](#). Here, you are going to see how Professor Franco explains about the term grammar.

I hope the information provided in the video helped you understanding the topic. Remember that for a linguist, grammar is far more than how to put sentences together. Hence, to understand the grammar of a language from the ground up, we need to understand the phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics of the language.



REMEMBER: In this first week dear student, it is important that you get acquainted with the contents of the didactic guide and the tasks you have to accomplish.



Recommended learning activity

As you know dear students, in the actual complex exam you are going to take, there will be some context related to the previous subjects you have studied; therefore, we are going to continue with an example of a context.

The answers will be provided by your tutor through the academic posts in this first week of the course. Therefore, if you need further explanations, do not hesitate and ask your tutor.

I suggest you read the whole text and after you have done it, you can begin responding to the questions.

The next context was taken from Meyer, C. F. (2009). [Introducing English linguistics. Cambridge University Press.](#)

Why do languages change

I am sure you were able to respond to all the questions correctly.
Good job!



Now, dear students, it is time to continue with the second week of the course.



Week 2

Dear student, the purpose of this topic in this second week is to provide information on how pronunciation can be taught in English as a foreign language. I am sure you studied and thus, you remember about this subject; however, it is important that you read all the information of this section to internalize the aspects related to teaching pronunciation.

1.2. English pronunciation in EFL learning and teaching

According to Yoshida (2013), there are several aspects that English teachers need to fit into their limited class time; such aspects include teaching grammar and vocabulary, speaking, listening, reading, and writing

skills. Pronunciation is often left behind to the bottom of the list. Many instructors think that there is just not enough time to teach pronunciation. Students often believe that it is not that important; they even think that it will not be evaluated on their courses. Nonetheless, Yoshida (2013) claims that whether students need or want to speak English understandably, pronunciation is important. In the past, we may say that learners only needed reading and writing skills in English, but such belief is over. Many of your students will need to speak and understand English in real life settings to communicate intelligently with both English native people and speakers of other languages. Even if students' grammar and vocabulary are strong, if their pronunciation is difficult to understand, their communication will fail. Therefore, it is our job to provide students the tools they need to be able to communicate successfully in English.

Most teachers believe that they want their learners to be able to speak English with good pronunciation. However, how can we define good pronunciation? One answer might be *sounding like a native speaker*. This answer might be problematic for a couple of reasons. First, it is hard to define what a *native speaker* sounds like. There are many varieties of English and so much variation within each type that it would be almost impossible to define that intangible *ideal kind* of pronunciation. Trying to sound like a native English speaker is like throwing a ball at a moving target, difficult, frustrating, and hard to achieve (Yoshida, 2013).

Another problem is that very few students will ever be able to sound exactly like their preferred pronunciation model, no matter how hard or how long they try. This is especially true for adult learners and for those who live in rural areas or where they are not able to constantly hear English; this happens a lot in our country where most of the times, students hear the target language only during the English lessons. Whatever the definition, the goal of speaking with nativelike pronunciation is hard to accomplish. Instead, a more realistic goal, and one that more and more teachers and researchers suggest, is intelligible pronunciation, which is speaking in a way that most listeners can understand without too much effort. It would not be a bad thing at all to say that a speaker comes from a particular country, as long as the speaker can be easily understood by others (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).

On the other hand, Lane 2010 states that we should also realize that English teachers, both native and non-native speakers, are often not the best judges

of whether someone's pronunciation is intelligible. In this regard, most ESL or EFL teachers can understand their students' speech when people in the wider world cannot; in fact, it is funny to say but, sometimes it seems that we teachers can understand practically anything. Somehow, we are used to inaccurate pronunciation; we are aware of what students are going through and how hard they are trying. In fact, teachers are on the students' side and want to understand them; real-life circumstances are different and a future employer might not try so hard. Hence, non-teachers are a tough audience.

Dear students, what do you think teachers need to know to deliver pronunciation in an EFL context? There are some suggestions that we teachers need to be aware of in order to teach pronunciation effectively. To name some of them, we can say we have to know the facts about pronunciation: How our mouths move to produce the sounds of language and how word stress, rhythm, connected speech, and intonation work. Another aspect is that we need to understand and predict the kinds of problems our students might have with pronunciation and why they happen. Moreover, we must know how to teach pronunciation to our students, adapting our methods to adjust them to their needs, and providing learners with more opportunities to practice effectively to overcome any problems they might have (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).

It is important to keep updated on what methods and strategies we can use to teach pronunciations to our students. Thus, I invite you dear students to watch the following video on [teaching pronunciation in 8 steps](#) since it will help you having more ideas on how to teach this important component of the English language.

After you have watched the video, I am sure you are able to choose from the most appropriate steps presented in order to teach pronunciation in the simplest, most effective way to meet your students' needs. As it is stated in the video, when our students are able to understand other English speakers better and when other speakers understand them better, they will feel more confident and things will run smoother for them.



Recommended learning activity

Now, let us move to the next section of this topic. Thus, I am going to present a context related to teaching pronunciation, please read the complete passage and respond to the questions provided. Remember dear

students that you have to take into account the four levels of the SOLO taxonomy since this will be used in the complex exam you are going to take at the end of this course.

The text below was taken from Yoshida, M. T. (2013). [Understanding and teaching the pronunciation of English](#).

Teaching in an ESL or EFL context.



I do believe you were able to respond to all the questions correctly. Congratulations!

Dear students, the answer for the above questions will be provided by your tutor in one of the academic posts of this second week. Thus, you can ask for any explanation to your tutor in this regard. Now, dear students, let us continue with the third week of the course.



Week 3

Dear students, welcome to week 3. I hope the context above was clear to understand about the types of questions that are going to be included in the complex exam. Now, we are going to remember about the way a second language is acquired. Please, keep in mind that the topics presented in this course were already studied as part of the English Major program and what we are doing in this course is to recall them.

1.3. Second language acquisition

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), since its beginnings, this field has drawn theoretical inspiration from other areas. In fact, its origins lie in a practical orientation to language teaching. Before the field of SLA theory and research was established, concepts of how people acquired nonprimary languages (those not learned as a first language in childhood) were related to pedagogical matters. An extension of the U.S. "Army Method" – the Audio-Lingual Method appeared in the 1950s, based in part on ideas from behavioral psychology and most meaningfully on thoughts from structural linguistics. These two fields of scholarship, though they developed separately, came to be closely associated during this period (VanPatten et al., 2020).

Dear students, there are different theories on SLA; in this regard, we are going to point out the ones that are still valid nowadays. Therefore, we will discuss the structuralist-behaviorist approach and the monitor theory since both of them have an important impact on SLA, mainly on classroom instruction.

According to VanPatten et al. (2020), behaviorism is a theory of animal and human behavior. It attempts to explain behavior without reference to mental events or internal processes. This means, according to this theory, that all behavior is explained exclusively with reference to external factors in the environment. I am sure you have heard about Pavlov's experiments with dogs. In one experiment, a tone sounded whenever the dogs were fed. Thus, when the dogs heard the sound (the stimulus), they anticipated a meal, and they would begin salivating (the response). What this experiment demonstrated was that when the dogs heard the sound, yet no food appeared, they salivated anyway. Because of the repeated association of the sound with food, after a series of trials, the sound alone caused the dogs to salivate. This is called classical conditioning. Specifically, this means that in a given context, two events are naturally connected (eating and salivating), and then a third event (the sound) is introduced. After a series of repetitions, the association of the third event alone can generate the response. Salivating in the presence of food is a natural reply for dogs; it is a reflex action. Behaviorists believed the same to be true for human behavior. In this regard, the behaviorism theory explains that all learning, including language learning, is perceived as the acquisition of a new behavior. In terms of VanPatten et al. (2020), the setting is the most important factor in learning. Learning consists of developing responses to environmental stimuli. If such responses receive positive reinforcement, they will be repeated. If those responses receive punishment (in the case of language learning, error correction), they will be abandoned. Therefore, we as EFL teachers need to see this as a crucial feature of language learning to take into account when teaching the target language. Indeed, a student learns a language by imitating sounds and structures that hears in the environment. If the learner produces an utterance that brings a positive response, he/she is likely to do so again. If, on the contrary, there is no response or a negative response is given, repetition is less probable and learning would not happen. Consequently, language learning is regarded as similar to any other type of learning, which means imitation of models in the input, practice of the new behavior, and the delivery of suitable feedback. What we have recently talked about is presented in the following video and thus, dear students I invite you to watch the [Behaviorist Theory of](#)

[Second Language Acquisition](#) resource. After you have watched the video, it is important to remember this theory of SLA because the stimulus and the reinforcement provided by the teacher are very important stages when teaching the English language. Being aware of the facts described by this theory will allow you dear students to become better prepared to teach the language more effectively.

Now, let us continue with the next approach in SLA, the so called Monitor Theory. We can say that this is one of the most ambitious and influential theories in the area of SLA, and one that is probably the most familiar to language instructors. As stated by VanPatten et al. (2020), this theory was developed by Stephen Krashen in the 1970s and early 1980s. It was the first theory to be established mainly for SLA. It has been a very influential theory among practitioners, and it has also laid the foundation for theorizing important ideas within the SLA field. The Monitor Theory was the first in the field that was broad in scope and tried to relate and clarify a variety of phenomena in language learning, ranging from the influence of age on SLA to the apparently unfair effects of teaching. Somehow, this theory has some resemblances of what Chomsky described since it states that human beings are equipped with a specific faculty for language acquisition. According to this theory, much of what we believe linguistic knowledge is comes because of our biological foundation. This means that a child comes to the task of language already knowing much about it; he/she simply needs the activating data in the input for language acquisition to happen. In this regard, Krashen explains that a similar process takes place in SLA, which is, that the case of the child and SLA processes are essentially alike.

In terms of Krashen, Monitor Theory can clarify the reason why what is taught is not always learned, why what is learned may not have been taught, and how individual variances among students and learning environments is related to the variable outcome of SLA. The Monitor Theory consists of five interrelated hypotheses, which include the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis, the Monitor hypothesis, the Natural Order hypothesis, the Input hypothesis, and the Affective Filter hypothesis. These are based on some important constructs and key concepts that are inferred but are not directly observable (VanPatten et al., 2020). The above-mentioned hypotheses that are part of the Monitor Theory are presented in the next video. Hence, please dear students, take some time and watch the [monitor model hypotheses by Stephen Krashen](#) video because this resource will help you remember what you learned about this theory or acquire the knowledge to understand how this theory works. What is important to mention after

you have watched the video is that this SLA theory explains that the way in which the teaching-learning process is carried out is essential for the learners to acquire the target language. Thus, the teacher's role to create a positive environment, deliver the input accurately, and use the most appropriate language interactions are fundamental processes to consider when teaching in EFL contexts such as the one of our country.



Recommended learning activity

Now, I invite you dear students to read the next context related to SLA and then, please respond to the questions that follow. Remember that the way how the questions are designed will be the one you will have in the complex exam you are going to take.

The following passage was taken from Ortega, L. (2011). [Second language acquisition](#). Routledge.

[Whence language.](#)



I am sure you were able to respond to all the questions correctly.
Great job!

Dear students, the answer for the above questions will be provided by your tutor in one of the academic posts of this third week. Thus, you can ask for any explanation to your tutor in this regard. Now, dear students, let us to continue with the fourth week of the course.



Week 4

1.4. Semantics and Pragmatics

Now, dear students, I am sure you remember about semantics and pragmatics; thus, you know that they are the two main branches of the linguistic study of meaning. Generally speaking, Griffiths (2006) states that *semantics* is the study of the tools for meaning, which involves knowledge encoded in the vocabulary of the language and in its patterns for producing more elaborate meanings, up to the level of sentence meanings.

While, *pragmatics* is concerned with the use of such tools in meaningful communication. Thus, pragmatics is about the relation of semantic knowledge with our knowledge of the world, taking into account contexts of use.

With respect to semantics, Griffiths (2006) adds that this is a descriptive subject, which studies word meaning and sentence meaning, abstracted away from contexts of use. Hence, it is an attempt to describe and understand the nature of the knowledge about meaning in their language that people have from knowing the language. Consequently, it is not a prescriptive endeavor with an interest in advising or compelling speakers or writers into abandoning some meanings and accepting others. Furthermore, semantic description of language knowledge is different from what we can find in an encyclopedia of cataloguing general knowledge. For instance, the words *tangerine* and *clementine* exemplify distinctions that might not be part of our knowledge of English, but rather of an expert on fruits, which some other people also know, but which most users of English do not necessarily have to know. As long as people are aware that those are citrus fruits, they do not need English lessons on this point.

On the other hand, pragmatics is further explained by giving the following situation. When people listen and read, they have the task of guessing what the sender of an utterance intends to communicate. As soon as a satisfactory guess has been made, the sender has succeeded in conveying the meaning. In such situation, pragmatics is about how we interpret utterances and produce interpretable utterances, either way taking account the setting and previous knowledge. Such interpretations are informed guesses, which can be mistaken. Thus, explication is the basic stage of pragmatic interpretation, involving disambiguation and working out what is being referred to. Referring and understanding other people's acts of reference usually involve us to use and interpret pragmatically deictic words; such words have meanings tied to the context of utterance. A further phase of pragmatic elaboration deals with implicatures, guesses as to what the point of an utterance is. All in all, pragmatics is about the use of utterances within a context, about how we deal to convey more than what is literally encoded by the semantics of sentences. The additional and different meanings inferable as conversational implicatures save production effort. Pragmatics builds on what is semantically encoded in the language (Griffiths, 2006).

Before we continue with the next section in this topic, it is important dear students that you watch the following video since it will expand the notions of semantics and pragmatics that we have been discussing so far. Thus, I invite you to watch the video on [Formal semantics and pragmatics: Origins, issues, impact](#), which is a talk delivered by Professor Partee. The speaker reflects on developments in semantics linguistics and philosophy starting in the 1960's and the growth of formal semantics and formal pragmatics.

I am sure you have enjoyed the video; thus, it is important to remark that *semantics* can be seen differently according to the settings. The fields concerned with semantics are as varied as psychology, law, computer science, lexicography, logic, philosophy, and linguistics. On the other hand, *pragmatics* is a similarly wide-ranging term, with uses in politics and ethics as well as in linguistics and philosophy.



Recommended learning activity

Now, I invite you dear students to read the next context related to the field of semantics and pragmatics and then, please respond to the questions that follow. Remember that the way the questions are designed will be the one you will have in the complex exam you are going to take.

The following passage was taken from Kroeger, P. (2018). [Analyzing meaning: An introduction to semantics and pragmatics](#). Language Science Press.

[Indirect speech acts across languages.](#)



I think you were able to respond to all the questions correctly.
Congratulations!

Dear students, the answers for the above questions will be provided by your tutor in one of the academic posts of this fourth week. Thus, you can ask for any explanation to your tutor in this regard.

After you have read the information of unit 1 and have done all the recommended activities, I suggest that you ask questions to your tutor in case you have any so that you are ready to continue with a short quiz, which will verify how much you have understood of the previously discussed topics.



Self-assessment 1

Dear students, after you have studied the contents of unit 1 in this course, it is important that you verify your progress; therefore, I invite you to complete the next quiz.

Part A. Instructions: Respond true or false to the next statements.

1. () Language provides significant social, intellectual, and artistic interactions.
2. () Linguistic competence, according to linguists, is the mental system that allows humans to make relationships when using the sounds, words, and sentences of a language.
3. () Even if students' grammar and vocabulary are strong, pronunciation is important to speak English understandably.
4. () Behaviorism is a theory of second language acquisition that attempts to explain behavior by taking into account mental events or internal processes.
5. () Semantics is the study of the tools or instruments for meaning and the patterns for producing more elaborate meanings.

Part B. Instructions: Choose the best alternative to respond to or complete the following statements.

1. _____ is about how we interpret utterances and produce interpretable utterances, either way taking account the setting and previous knowledge.
 - a. Semantics
 - b. Pragmatics
 - c. Morphology

- 2. Why is it more difficult especially for adult learners to be able to sound exactly like their preferred pronunciation model, no matter how hard or how long they try?**
- a. This happens because of the age of the students since the older the learners the more difficult it is to pronounce correctly.
 - b. It is more difficult for adult learners to grasp the pronunciation of a new language because their vocal cords are already fixed to pronounce the native language.
 - c. This is true for adult learners and for those who live in rural areas or where they are not able to constantly hear English.
- 3. What does it mean when we say that learning a language is similar to any other type of learning?**
- a. It means that by imitating models in the input, practicing new behaviors, and when suitable feedback is delivered, we can learn a language.
 - b. It happens because learning a language requires that the students listen and repeat as many times as possible the new structures that are delivered.
 - c. Language learning is similar to other type of learning since the more you practice something, the better the results.
- 4. The _____ explains that human beings are equipped with a specific faculty for language acquisition.**
- a. Behaviorist Theory
 - b. Monitor Theory
 - c. Army Theory

5. Pragmatics is about the use of _____ within a context, about how we deal to convey more than what is literally encoded by the semantics of sentences.
- a. codes
 - b. topics
 - c. utterances

Answer Key



Remember that you can consult your tutor about the topics of the unit 1 by means of the EVA platform. In addition, you have the answers of the previous self-evaluation task at the end of the guide, so that you can verify your responses. I am sure you did it really well. Good job!



Week 5

Welcome to week 5. Now, you are going to start the unit 2; thus, please focus your attention on the methods or approaches that we will discuss in this unit.

Unit 2. The Methodological Field in EFL Teaching

Now, you are going to start the unit 2; thus, please focus your attention on the language skills that will be covered in this unit. It is important to mention that during the last three decades, the field of teaching EFL has developed into a dynamic global community of language teaching specialists that pursues to improve the quality of language teaching and learning by tackling the most relevant issues that outline the design and delivery of teaching a language. In this view of teaching, EFL practitioners should be able to know the needs and processes students use to learn the language. Teachers also need to understand the nature of language teaching and learning, the methods and materials that are more suitable to facilitate language learning. Dear students, we are going to begin by presenting some general information about methods in EFL teaching in order for you to recall what you have studied in previous courses of the English Major program.

2.1. Teaching Methods, Strategies and Techniques in EFL (Teaching Children – Teaching Adolescents)

Dear students, for some years during the twentieth century, a primary concern of the language teaching profession was to find more effective methods of language teaching. By the twenty-first century, there has been a movement away from a preoccupation with generic teaching methods toward a more complex view of language teaching, which includes a multifaceted understanding of the teaching and learning processes. Thus,

the notion of teaching methods has had a long history in language teaching, as it is witnessed by the rise and fall of a diversity of methods throughout the recent history of language teaching (Richards & Renandya, 2002). In this regard, I invite you to watch the next video, in which you will be able to recall about the different types of methods along the history of language teaching. Please, go ahead, watch [history of ELT methods and approaches](#) and pay special attention to how the methods have been applied to teach the language. After you have watched the video, I am sure that you are able to identify the existence of several methods that have been used to teach the language. Such methods include The Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method with Charles Berlitz, The Series Method with Francois Gouin, The Coleman report, The Audiolingual Method (Audiolingualism) or Army Method, The Chomskyan Revolution, The Designer Methods: Community Language Learning (Charles Curran), Suggestopedia (Lozanov), The Silent Way (Caleb Gattegno), Total Physical Response (Asher), The Natural Approach (Stephen Kashen and Tracy Terrel). Finally, The Communicative Language Teaching.

Dear students, I also invite you to watch the next video called [What's the latest method?](#), in which Professor Thornbury explains what he believes a good teaching method is. It is really important that you get acquainted with the new trends in teaching EFL to students and that is the reason I suggest you watch the video. I encourage that you focus on the various teaching tips Professor Thornbury mentions, especially the ones related to authenticating language teaching by keeping it relevant, using the communicative approach and getting the students to experience the language through immersion. I am sure you have enjoyed watching the video.

Now, we are going to continue with the next topic related to teaching English to children.

Teaching Children

It is very important to say that language as a means of communication plays a very vital role in social relationships among human beings. In the case of our country, the English language is the first foreign language that is taught to children at very early stages of their education. The purpose of teaching English in the early years of schooling is to motivate them and have self-confidence in learning the language at higher levels of education. Thus, teaching English to children will allow them to travel to other

countries to study overseas or to become useful members or citizens of those countries (Hashemi & Azizinezhad, 2011).



Dear students, the next resource attached here is a study that discusses the way to teach children; thereof, I invite you to read the whole research in order to get more ideas on how children are taught: [Teaching English To Children](#).

After you have read the previous study, it is necessary to remark that teaching children is very challenging. If we compare kids with adult learners, they are more energetic, have shorter attention spans, and learn language according to specific stages of development; these and other reasons make the teaching-learning process more complicated on behalf of the teachers who have to be very skillful to plan the lessons.

Furthermore, taking into account most children learn easily and forget quickly, it is important to know how we can teach kids vocabulary so that they are able to retain more new words for longer periods of time. In this regard, working on how to improve their memory skills is crucial. Consequently, as long as the teachers meet the needs of the young brains, it would be easier for the students to remember new vocabulary items. In this sense, I encourage you to watch the next OER video that deals with [Teaching Vocabulary to Young Learners Through Brain-Based Teaching Strategies](#) since it will describe the findings of an English teacher whose areas of expertise are teaching English to young learners and creating new, useful classroom materials and activities. I am sure you will find this video very interesting since you will soon become EFL teachers. Well, it was a different presentation the one given by Professor Setenay from the beginning as you were able to see when she incorporated a warm-up activity she used in her classes. It was also interesting that she was able to share ten practical brain-based activities that she used in her classes and finds really effective. I hope you can incorporate in your classes some of the ideas provided by Professor Setenay.

Now, it is time to continue with the next topic about teaching EFL to young learners.

Teaching Adolescents

Today's teenage generations, just like the previous ones, are a varied and fascinating group of people. They are changing physically, sometimes at very surprising speed, and are often worried about their physical appearance. They are facing new and strange emotions and at the same time, they are learning to think in a more abstract mode, which allows them to discuss subjects and ideas. In addition to all such changes, teenagers are trying to establish their identity and learn who they are (Lesiak, 2015).

In the context of teaching adolescents, there is a study that deals with [Teaching English to adolescents](#), which I invite you to read since it will provide information on the methods that teachers can use to better teach this group of learners. I am sure that after reading the research you were able to remember what you studied in previous courses of the English Major program and thus, you can say that in fact, teaching adolescents is very challenging. We teachers have to know the characteristics of adolescents – who are experimenting psychological and physical transformations – in order to have a correct attitude to them. In addition, it is necessary that we are aware of the different methods, strategies and techniques that best fit the adolescents' needs to effectively teach the target language. In this regard, there is a very interesting webinar delivered by Professor Bran, which I invite you to watch. Dear student, please watch [How to deliver an engaging online lesson to teenage students?](#) because this video will allow you get more information on two updated issues, flipped classroom instruction and distance teaching and learning. As you were able to see, Professor Bran tackled issues that are related to our current teaching situation because of the Covid-19 pandemic. Thus, the pieces of advice he is sharing will be very beneficial for pre-service teachers who are about to deliver their classes using virtual platforms.

After you have read about the methods used to teach children and adolescents, it is necessary that you are able to identify them; that is why, I recommend that you devise a concept map in which you include all the approaches suggested that we could use to teach the two groups of learners. Remember, this activity will be graded as part of this course; if you need any further help, please contact your tutor by means of the virtual platform.



IMPORTANT INFORMATION: I invite you to check the complementary bibliography of this guide in order to get more information on the topics discussed so far.

Dear students, I am sure that you have done a good job. I also invite you check the academic posts in the virtual platform in relation to the contents of the previous week. Now, it is time to continue revising the way adults learn and how English for Specific Purposes is conceived as part of the English language-teaching field. Let us begin.



Week 6

Dear students, welcome to week 6. As part of the methodological field in EFL teaching, we have to continue recalling about teaching adult learners and teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

2.2. Teaching Methods, Strategies and Techniques in EFL (Teaching Adults – Teaching English for Specific Purposes)

Teaching Adults

Well, so far we have covered methods on teaching children and adolescents, now we are moving to remember the way adults learn. According to Shumin, (2002) learning a foreign language requires more than just knowing its grammatical and semantic rules. Students should also acquire the knowledge of how native speakers use the language to exchange information, in which many factors act together. Consequently, it is difficult for EFL learners, especially adults, to deal with the target language appropriately. In order to provide effective guidance in developing communicative competence in English, it is necessary to examine the factors affecting adult learners' communication, components underlying their language proficiency, and specific skills or strategies used in communication. In this regard, I encourage you dear students to read the next research in which you are going to get more information about teaching adult learners and in this way, you are going to remember and relate what you have previously studied in this field in previous courses.



Please, read the next study on "[The Challenge of Teaching English to Adult Learners in Today's World](#)" by Cozma, (2015) and focus your attention on the cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral characteristics of adult students, as well as, on the challenges and suggestions provided when teaching this age group of learners.

After you have read the study, it is important to remark that although teaching adults can sometimes be challenging, it is also very rewarding and interesting. We have to see these learners as people who know what they want and along with their experience in life can bring a wide range of benefits to the context of instruction. Therefore, we teachers need to be more flexible and responsive to create a positive environment where adults can feel safe emotionally. In this way, we would contribute to the success of these students' learning.

Furthermore, I want to share a video that describes how you can teach adults, which includes some tips that make students feel more comfortable with their learning process. Hence, please dear students watch this [Teaching Adults English: How to make your student comfortable](#) video and think about ways you can apply in your classes the suggestions provided. I am sure you enjoyed the video and now that you have watched it, it is important to state that one way to ensure the success of students' learning is by creating a context where they feel confident. Thus, it is the teacher's role to prepare our lesson to meet the learners' needs and expectations.

Dear students, we are going to continue with the next topic in this section, which deals with the study of English for Specific Purposes.

Teaching English for Specific Purposes

As stated by Dudley-Evans (2001), the purpose of the English for Specific Purposes is to determine the needs of a specific group of learners so that we teachers are able to deliver our classes based on those needs. This researcher divides ESP into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP); these are the two big branches of this subject. In addition, a sub-division of EOP includes business English, professional English; for instance, English for architects, economists, doctors, or engineers and vocational English as in the case of English for tourism, nursing, or aviation.

Dudley-Evans (2001) explains that ESP has absolute and defining characteristics. Regarding the absolute characteristics, we can mention that ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners. It also makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the specialism it serves. Finally, it is centered not only on the language (grammar, lexis, register), but also on the skills, discourses and genres appropriate to those activities. On the other hand, in the defining characteristics of ESP,

the teaching and materials are based on the results provided by a needs analysis. Therefore, in the needs analysis, we have to get information on why students need English for, which skills learners need to master and how well, and which genres they need to know for comprehension or production purposes.

It is important to state that traditionally ESP courses are designed for intermediate or advanced adult apprentices. However, many students can start to learn academic or vocational English at an earlier age and at a lower level of proficiency; this is happening currently because of globalization factors mainly.



In the field of teaching and learning ESP, it is important to have different points of view and that is why, I recommend you to read the next chapter "[New developments in ESP teaching and learning research](#)" by Whyte and Sarré, (2017) who explain mainly about the background of ESP research and key terms and concepts in ESP didactics. Those topics will help you dear students to recall what you have studied in previous courses or get acquainted with the field of ESP in case you did not take this subject.

After you have read the previous text, it is important to point out that teaching ESP is an interesting field we teachers need to know since more people are using English in a growing number in occupational and academic contexts, which imply that we have to be prepared to teach those students in different fields.



I am certain that you will find interesting the next YouTube video on [Approaches to ESP course design](#) since I understand you might work with these learners in the future or if it will not be your case, I still think that this video is going to help you know about the main approaches to ESP course design. I hope you enjoy it. I am sure that after watching the video you are clearer on the concepts of English for Specific Purposes and on the meaning of the approaches related to ESP course development. In addition, I think you were able to understand the principles of designing an appropriate ESP course, the processes of teaching and learning ESP and the importance of developing ESP to meet the students' needs in their own field.



Recommended learning activity

Now, I invite you dear students to read the next context related to the methodological field of teaching EFL and then, please respond to the questions that follow. Remember that the way the questions are designed will be the one you will have in the complex exam you are going to take.

The following passage was taken from Harmer, J. (2007). [The practice of English language teaching. Pearson Education.](#)

George's class.

I think you were able to respond to all the questions correctly.

Congratulations!

Dear students, the answer for the above questions will be provided by your tutor in one of the academic posts of this week 6.



IMPORTANT INFORMATION: I suggest you to check the complementary bibliography of this guide in order to get more information on the topics previously discussed.

Dear students, I know that you have done a good job so far. Thus, I invite you check the academic posts in the virtual platform in relation to the contents of the previous week. Now, it is time to continue recalling about the subject of Curricular Adaptations and Inclusive and Sustainable Education. Let us begin week 7.



Week 7

Welcome to week 7. Dear students, as part of this course, you are going to remember about one subject you studied in the English Major program, which was related to inclusive and sustainable education. Let us begin.

2.3. Inclusive and Sustainable Education

With respect to the field of inclusive and sustainable education, as stated by Trachtenberg et al. (2016), sustainable learning deals with the learning

that is retained and may be transferrable after initial contact to it; also, it is related to a process of learning to learn. In addition, sustainable learning is more than retained knowledge and skills; in fact, it is related to ongoing, purposeful, responsive and proactive learning due to the apprentice effectively builds and rebuilds her/his knowledge and skills according to the circumstances (Hays & Reinders, 2020). Moreover, Graham et al. (2015) explain that sustainable learning is an approach to inclusive education whose aim is to assure a fair society by training instructors on how to respond to the varied students' needs. Such type of learning is based on the establishment, development and maintenance of human learning practices. Consequently, it highlights capabilities of individual learners as they contribute and interrelate within society.

Furthermore, Hays and Reinders (2020) claim that sustainable learning in education has been perceived as an emerging philosophy of learning and teaching which is based on principles of sustainability. These scholars add that the objective of sustainable learning is to create and proliferate sustainable curricula and teaching-learning methods. These are aimed to promote the skills and dispositions to be successful in complex, challenging and ever-changing conditions, which constitutes a support to make the world a better place to live. Hence, sustainable learning is conceived as lifelong learning, which involves learning to learn.



In relation to this topic of inclusive and sustainable education, there is a very important study carried out in our country, which I encourage you to read. This research called "[Teaching English Language in Ecuador: A Review from the Inclusive Educational Approach](#)" by Villafuerte and Macías (2020) explores government policy for education with an emphasis on instruction of EFL in students with disabilities for the period 1912 to 2020. In this OER resource, all its sections are important; however, when you read this research, please mainly focus your attention on the four sections of the discussion and implications stage that include Government policy for education, Inclusive education in Ecuador, The EFL curriculum in Ecuador, and Strategies for advancing to the inclusive education.



I am certain that you were able to read the sections recommended so; I also want to remark that the approach to educational inclusion in the EFL learning-teaching context is still at an early stage. In order to improve this condition, it is necessary that we English teachers participate more, apply curricular adaptations, and develop teaching materials that respond more efficiently and effectively to the learners' special educational needs.

After you have read the information of unit 2 so far and have done all the recommended activities, I suggest that you ask questions to your tutor in case you have any so that you are ready to continue with a short quiz, which will verify how much you have understood of the previous topics discussed



Self-assessment 2

Dear students, after you have studied the contents of unit 2 so far in this course, it is important that you verify your progress; therefore, I invite you to complete the next quiz.

Part A. Instructions: Respond true or false to the next statements.

1. () The purpose of teaching English in the early years of schooling is to motivate them and have self-confidence in learning the language at higher levels of education.
2. () Teaching adolescents is challenging since EFL instructors have to be aware that although this group of students are facing new and strange emotions and at the same time, they have established their identity and know who they are.
3. () Students should acquire the knowledge of how native speakers use the language to exchange information; in this regard, it is difficult for EFL learners, especially adults, to deal with the target language appropriately.
4. () The purpose of the English for Specific Purposes is to know different areas of knowledge in order to teach English to the people that are involved in those fields.
5. () Sustainable learning is an approach to inclusive education whose aim is to assure a fair society by training instructors on how to respond to the varied students' needs.

B. Instructions: Choose the best alternative to respond to or complete the following statements.

1. Taking into account that most children learn easily and forget quickly, it is important to know how we instructors can teach _____ so that they are able to retain this knowledge.
 - a. grammar
 - b. listening
 - c. vocabulary

2. In the context of teaching English to adolescents, teachers have to know the characteristics of adolescents – who are experimenting _____ – in order to have a correct attitude to them.
 - a. new ways of learning the target language
 - b. psychological and physical transformations
 - c. on how they can understand the language

3. Learning a foreign language requires more than just knowing its_____. In the case of adult students, they find it more difficult to deal with the target language appropriately.
 - a. grammatical and semantic rules
 - b. communication patterns
 - c. structural behaviors

4. What are the two main branches of study in the case of English for Specific Purposes?
 - a. English for Business and Professional purposes.
 - b. English for Academic and Occupational purposes.
 - c. English for Vocational and Study purposes.

5. The ESP characteristic that explains that the teaching and materials to be used in a course are based on the results provided by a needs analysis deals with the _____.
- a. absolute characteristics
 - b. learning characteristics
 - c. defining characteristics

Answer Key



Remember that you can consult your tutor about the topics of the unit 2 by means of the EVA platform. In addition, you have the answers of the previous self-evaluation task at the end of the guide, so that you can verify your responses. I am sure you did it really well. Good job!



First term final activities



Week 8

Dear students, I know that you have successfully done all the requested activities in this first term. I understand that you have dedicated enough time for each activity and now you should feel confident to demonstrate your knowledge and skills.



Please, continue studying during this week; I suggest that you use the links, resources, and exercises you have in this academic guide. In this regard, go back to the self-assessment sections you have in units 1 and 2. Also, take into account all the recommended learning activities because they will help you recall the most important topics reviewed so far. Finally, I suggest you use your own strategies to get prepared to take the First-Term Evaluation.

Congratulations, you have reached the first learning outcome of this course. I am sure you will continue working hard to achieve the second-term learning outcome. Good luck!



Second term

Learning outcome

2

- Demonstrates interdisciplinary and research knowledge to analyze situations and problems related to professional teaching practice and propose alternative solutions in the pedagogical and innovative methodological field.

Contents, resources and recommended learning activities

In order to achieve the learning outcome 2, students will be provided with information and real-life contexts that allow them to recall about theory and practice data related to the fields of methodology and research in EFL teaching environments. In addition, based on the referred contexts, there will be some questions related to the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO) taxonomy revised in Practicum 4.1, which will allow learners to practice and get prepared to take the complex exam.



Remember that further explanations on the topics you are going to study will be given by your tutor by means of the virtual platform. Therefore, I encourage you to log in into the platform every day if possible or at least every week to ask questions and/or receive feedback.



Week 9

2.4. Technology and Resources in EFL Teaching

Dear students, welcome to week 9. During this week, you will be able to recall what you studied about technology and its use in the EFL context. Well, as suggested by Erben et al. (2008), English teachers who are interested in using technology as a means of supporting language learning through, for example, project-based learning or any other classroom

approach can have a great deal of technological tools at their disposal to select from. In addition, these scholars explain that the teacher's role is on planning and organizing the integration of subject-specific content material; and regarding the use of technology, it is the teacher's responsibility to decide which technology can fit better the pedagogical purposes of an activity.

According to Enkin and Mejías-Bikandi, (2017), the use of technology in online language courses has been increased thanks to a number of developments in computer assisted language learning (CALL), which not only offers the use of more application of course management sites, but also different online tools. In this regard, online teaching and learning has been very beneficial to the students' EFL learning (Oskoz & Gimeno-Sanz, 2020). In this line of talk, Michel and Cappellini, (2019) claim that online EFL courses with synchronous communication in video conference environments have increased their popularity recently. Moreover, Pineda et al. (2021) manifest that such courses can enhance apprentices' foreign language learning when they communicate by means of the video tool.

With respect to the amount of technological tools, Erben et al. (2008) manifest that there are specific tools related to web publishing sites, presentation software, exercise creating tools, and podcasting sites and software. These researchers point out the use of some of the most traditional tools available as follows. *Web Publishing*: Content provided through the use of a website for access by the public in general. Some websites require more technology knowledge than others do but nowadays, it is common to be able to publish on the web without special software.

Presentation Software: Software designed for creating presentations, especially in the area of education or business, such as PowerPoint.

Exercise Creating Tools: This is software that creates different exercises that can be used as assessment tools. It can also be used to have students create exercises for each other. These activities can then be launched on any e-publishing site. *Movie Maker*: This software accompanies the Windows toolkit. It can be used to create movies from still photos or video clips. Mac users can find a similar tool in iMovie. *Podcasting*: This is a tool that enables the distribution of audio files over a syndicated feed that can be replayed on media players or computers. These audio files can be accessed via websites or other locations online.



Dear students, I want to recommend you read the study of "[Evolving Technologies for Language Learning](#)" by Godwin-Jones, (2021). Please, as you read, focus on the evolution of electronic resources for language learning, the arrival and transformation of the World Wide Web, the changes in mobile technologies, and the movement towards commercial and all-in-one solutions to online learning. This information will help you to understand what tools and approaches are still in use and which ones have been left aside.

After you have read the previous study, I want to point out that because of the Covid-19 pandemic we teachers had to move from face-to-face instruction to remote teaching, which made us look for new and updated technological tools to deliver our lessons. This fact is very important to take into account since we continue working as a teaching community to promote the use of technology in the EFL classroom to meet the students' needs and expectations so that they become successful English language learners.

In addition to the information provided in the research you read, there is an interesting video I invite you to watch since, it deals with the use of technology in the EFL classroom. Thus, please dear students, watch the webinar called "[Using Educational Technology in the English as a Foreign Language Classroom](#)" by Doctor Hegelheimer, who explains about the use tech tools in detail. I am sure you enjoyed the webinar; I think this information was important for you as EFL teachers to know different ways to apply technology and it certainly helped you to discover some fun and engaging technology options that you can use in your virtual or traditional EFL classrooms in the near future.



IMPORTANT INFORMATION: I invite you to check the complementary bibliography of this guide in order to get more information on the topics discussed so far.

Dear students, I am sure that you have successfully revised all the information provided. I also invite you check the academic posts in the virtual platform in relation to the contents of this week. Now, it is time to continue recalling about the next topic on assessment in the EFL context.



2.5. Assessment in EFL

Dear students, welcome to week 10; you are going to remember what you studied in the English Major program in relation to assessment. Thus, in terms of Brown (2003), assessment is an ongoing process that encompasses a much wider domain than tests. In fact, he states that whenever a student responds to a question, offers a comment, or tries out a new word or structure, the teachers make an assessment of the student's performance. Therefore, he believes that a good teacher never stops to assess students, whether those assessments are incidental or intended. Moreover, assessment is anything that diagnoses the students' learning, sees their level on comprehension by checking the students' understanding, knowledge, strengths and weaknesses, and evaluates the effectiveness of the teacher's teaching (Thomas and Vincent 2001).

On the other hand, assessment can be classified into formative and summative. As Hughes (2003) points out, formative assessment is aimed to inform and guide adjustments to instruction on an ongoing basis; thus, teachers use it to check on the progress of their students, to see how far they have mastered what they should have learned. As for summative assessment, it deals with monitoring progress and evaluating the overall success of both students and instructional programs on a long-term basis. Therefore, it is used at the end of the term, semester, or year to measure what has been achieved by groups and by individuals.

For classroom assessment, Mihai (2010) categorized it according to intention, purpose, interpretation, and administration. Concerning intention, assessment can be informal when it is a spontaneous comment, or it can be formal when it is carried out in a systematic manner. In terms of purpose, an assessment can be formative if it focuses on the process of learning or it can be summative when it is used to measure student learning outcomes at the end of an education cycle. With respect to interpretation, an assessment may be used to compare students' performance with their peers' performance (norm-referenced) or it may be employed to compare students' performance with the course content (criterion-referenced). Mihai clarified that whereas norm-referenced tests evaluate students in terms

of their ranking to another, criterion-referenced tests evaluate students in terms of their mastery of course content. The last category of assessment Mihai presented is administration which refers to the way an assessment is administered or delivered; an assessment may be classroom-based (small scale) when it is only used in the classroom or it can be delivered statewide or nationwide (large scale). Assessment, moreover, can be conducted by either speaking or writing. Therefore, one more category of assessment may be added to those provided by Mihai: mode (oral or written).

Dear students, since assessment is another important component of the EFL teaching-learning process, there is an interesting *OER* video I recommend you to watch. Please, see the [Assessment Strategies](#) video in which Doctor Bates will talk about different topics that include Continuous vs summative, Assessing group work, Authentic learning and e-portfolios, Cheating and monitoring, Same QA processes for online as face-to-face, Same exams, Micro-credentials, and Alignment with national standards. I am certain that you found the video important and necessary so that you can apply the suggestions provided when assessing your students, especially now that we are delivering our classes by means of virtual environments.



Well, I hope dear students that you have understood the previous topic Good job! I invite you to check the academic posts in the virtual platform in relation to this last week. Now, it is time to continue revising the next topic. Let us begin.



Week 11

2.6. Curriculum Design in EFL

Welcome to week 11, in this part of the subject, you are going to remember about the way courses are designed, which I understand was one of the components you studied in the English Major program. Let us begin by defining what curriculum is. According to Richards (2001), curriculum is a set of processes that involve the planning that is to be taught or learned by implementing and evaluating it. Another point of view is the one of Hall and Hewings (2001) who explain that curriculum implies all the issues related

to the planning, implementation and evaluation of a series of language learning events, which are conceived as a coherent whole with a specified purpose.

On the other hand, Macalister and Nation, (2019) claim that there is a wide range of factors to take into account when designing a course. Such factors include the learners' present knowledge and lacks, the resources available including time, the teachers' skill, the curriculum designer's strengths and limitations, and principles of teaching and learning. If those factors are not considered then the course may be unsuited to the situation and learners for which it is used, and it might be ineffective and inefficient to encourage appropriate learning. In the curriculum design process, the factors mentioned are conceived in three sub-processes, environment analysis, needs analysis and the application of principles. With respect to how Macalister and Nation describe curriculum design, there is video I invite you dear students to watch. It is called [Overview of Language Curriculum Design](#) and it provides information on parts of the design process, preparations, content and sequencing, monitoring and assessing and course evaluation. I am sure you liked the video since it provided information that I know helped you refreshing the contents you studied. Thus, I want to point out that during the process of curriculum design, the result of environment analysis includes a graded list of factors and a consideration of the effects of such factors on the design. As for the result of needs analysis, it is a realistic list of language, ideas or skill items, as a result of taking into account the current proficiency level, future needs and wants of the students. In relation to the application of principles, it firstly involves deciding on the most important principles to apply and monitoring their application through the whole design process. What comes after the applying principles is a course where learning is given the greatest support.



Moreover, I want to share an OER resource with you dear students, this is a study by Dündar and Merç (2017) called "[A critical review of research on curriculum development and evaluation in ELT](#)" which I am sure will help you recalling information you have studied about curriculum.

Thus, please read the sections of curriculum development, curriculum evaluation, and previous studies on curriculum development and evaluation, although it would be great if you could read the whole research. The mentioned three parts of the study I suggest to read include some theory

on curriculum development and evaluation based on the investigation of well-known scholars in the area and the section of previous studies contains ESL/EFL research based on different contexts, which will help you understand what has been done in terms of curriculum development in various settings.

After reading the research I recommended, I know that you would agree that it is necessary to take into account that curriculum design is one essential topic in English language teaching. This matter is important because the designing of a curriculum is not easy as just writing down what to teach and how to teach. Curriculum design is based on policies and it involves the approaches, methods, techniques, and the activities followed to teach the language as well as the content.



Well, I hope dear students that you have remembered and learned more about the previous topic Good job! I invite you to check the academic posts in the virtual platform in relation to this last week. Now, it is time to continue revising the next topic. Let us begin.



Week 12

Unit 3. The Research Field in the EFL Teaching and Learning

Welcome to this last week of the course in terms of recalling the components you have studied in the English Major program; thus, in this week, we will talk about research in the EFL context. When we talk about research, we need to deal with different types of methodologies that are used in this field in order to obtain information that leads to conclusions. Methodology, according to Howell (2013), is defined as a general research paradigm that outlines how a research project is going to be undertaken and, among other aspects, identifies the specific methods to be used. In this regard, the methods are the ones that determine the instruments or strategies for gathering data and how results will be analyzed. Hence, methodology accounts for a system of methods, principles and rules that guide a research project in any discipline. Based on the above mentioned, there is fixed research (quantitative) and flexible research (qualitative). In relation to *qualitative research*, it allows scholars to study human behavior

in depth and the reasons that rule such behavior. In addition, Hennink et al. (2011) explain that qualitative research is used for exploring new topics or understanding complex matters such as explaining people's opinions and behaviors or for identifying the social rules of a society. Consequently, qualitative research is mostly appropriate for addressing *why* questions to enlighten and comprehend issues or *how* questions that describe processes or behaviors.

The most commonly used qualitative research methods include case study, action research and ethnography research. A *case study* for Creswell (2014) is an empirical inquiry that examines a contemporary phenomenon in the real world setting. Moreover, a case study explores a single instance of a limited system, such as a community, a school, a class, a group, a child, and so on. The methods to gather data may include interviews, observations, open-ended questionnaires, diaries and verbal reports, documents and records. On the other hand, *action research* is aimed at exploring and solving a specific issue in the teaching or learning context by systematic data elicitation and analysis. Thus, the purpose of action research is to solve a specific problem and propose guidelines for better practice. In the field of EFL education, this method is used to solve the teaching and learning difficulties within classrooms rather than addressing social issues related to language teaching (Heigham & Croker, 2009). With respect to the next method, *ethnographic research*, according to Heigham and Croker (2009), it deals with describing and interpreting the common patterns of a culture-sharing group (communities, institutions, or programs) by means of extended participant observation and interview processes.

Now, dear students, let us talk about *quantitative research*. Given, (2008) claims that quantitative research involves systematic empirical investigation of social phenomena by using mathematical and statistical techniques. Data (numbers, percentages, scores) is gathered in numerical form and analyzed by means of statistical methods. The purpose of this method is to construct mathematical models, theories or hypotheses about specific social phenomena with the intention of making use of them. Instruments and strategies to collect data can include questionnaires, tests, experiments and so forth. The most frequently methods used in this type of research include survey, experiment and correlational study. In the case of *survey*, Cohen et al. (2011) explain that the purpose of this method is to collect data at a particular point in time with the aim of describing the nature of existing conditions, or determining the relationships that exist

between specific events. Surveys are used with large-sample-size groups and include question-and-answer formats that are conducted in person, on the phone, by internet (Google forms), or through other interactive tools. The instruments to collect data include questionnaires, which are widely used since they can provide structured, often numerical data, which are comparatively straightforward to analyze. Now, let us talk about the next kind of research, experiment. Dunning, (2014) explains that the so-called *experiment* research deals with handling one or more independent variables and observing the effect on a dependent variable. It is important to state that experiment research involves two very different types of investigation, the true experiment and the quasi-experiment. As for the *true experiment*, it is commonly used in natural sciences to prove or refute a theory, or hypothesis; nevertheless, it is difficult to apply the same method to social sciences, such as education. This happens because the subjects in social sciences are often human-related; this fact makes it difficult to control the experiment. In relation to the *quasi-experiment* type of research, the subjects are beyond the control of the researcher and are not randomly selected. This type of research is an empirical inquiry used to evaluate the causal impact of an intervention process on the subjects. Hence, quasi-experiment research is more appropriate for social sciences such as EFL education. The last quantitative method we are going to deal with is the one called *correlational study*. According to Kalla (2011), it examines relationships between variables, specifically; it studies whether or not two variables are correlated and how strong their correlation is. There are cases in which more than two variables are involved. There are three types of correlations between two variables. The first is called positive correlation and it takes place when an increase in one variable gives rise to an increase in the other, and a decrease in one gives rise to a decrease in the other. The next is named negative correlation; it happens when an increase in one variable gives rise to a decrease in the other, and a decrease in one gives rise to an increase in the other. The last one, whose title is no correlation, occurs when a change in one variable does not give rise to a change in the other and vice versa. By means of using SPSS, we will be able to get this sort of data analysis.



Dear students, I want to suggest you read the next *OER* resource, which is study by Nimehchisalem, (2018); the research is called "[Exploring Research Methods in Language Learning-teaching Studies](#)". In this investigation, you will find information that will expand your knowledge on the most common methods that are used in language learning-teaching research.

After you have read the above-mentioned study, it is important to remark that due to latest theories and technological developments, new methods have been developed as part of qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods, which offer authentic ways to elicit useful data in order to make important decisions. Thus, you as teachers have to be able to identify the most appropriate research methods to meet your needs of investigation in the EFL classroom.



Recommended learning activity

Now, I invite you dear students to read the next context related to the research field of teaching EFL and then, please respond to the questions that follow. Remember that the way the questions are designed will be the one you will have in the complex exam you are going to take.

The following passage was adapted from a study written by Diaz, C., Alzarcón, P., & Ortiz, M. (2015).

[**A Case Study on EFL Teachers' Beliefs About the Teaching and Learning of English in Public Education**](#)

I think you were able to respond to all the questions correctly. Congratulations!

Dear students, the answer for the above questions will be provided by your tutor in one of the academic posts of this week.



IMPORTANT INFORMATION: I suggest you to check the complementary bibliography of this guide in order to get more information on the topics previously discussed.



Week 13

Review of Second Term Contents



After you have read the information of unit 3 and have done all the recommended activities, I want to encourage you to check the academic posts that belong to the last weeks because, I will include additional information to support this topic. I also suggest that you ask questions to your tutor in case you have any so that you are ready to continue with a short quiz, which will verify how much you have understood of the previous topics discussed.



Self-evaluation 3

Dear students, after you have studied the contents of unit 2 (second term) and unit 3 in this course, it is important that you verify your progress; therefore, I invite you to complete the next quiz.

Part A. Instructions: Respond true or false to the next statements.

1. () The use of technology in online language courses has been increased thanks to a number of developments in the use of the Zoom platform, which not only offers the use of more application of course management sites, but also different online tools.
2. () Assessing students involves more than responding to a question, offering a comment, or trying out a new word or structure because teachers assess learners using elaborated and well-designed activities.
3. () Formative assessment is aimed to inform and guide adjustments to instruction on an ongoing basis.
4. () Curriculum is a set of processes that involve the planning that is to be taught or learned by implementing and evaluating it.
5. () The techniques in research are defined as general research paradigms that outline how a research project is going to be undertaken and, among other aspects, identify the specific methods to be used.

B. Instructions: Choose the best alternative to respond to or complete the following statements.

1. Online EFL courses with _____ in video conference environments have increased their popularity recently because they enhance apprentices' interaction thanks to the video tool.
 - a. synchronous communication
 - b. virtual platforms
 - c. recording devices

2. In terms of purpose, an assessment can be _____ when it is used to measure students' learning outcomes at the end of an education cycle.
 - a. formative
 - b. partial
 - c. summative

3. When designing a course, some factors have to be taken into account, they include the learners' present knowledge and lacks, the resources available including time, the skill of the teachers, and principles of teaching and learning. Which one is missing?
 - a. The textbooks of the course that is going to be implemented.
 - b. The curriculum designer's strengths and limitations.
 - c. The platform(s) by means of which the course will be delivered.

4. _____ research is used for exploring new topics or understanding complex matters such as explaining people's opinions and behaviors or for identifying the social rules of a society.
 - a. Quantitative
 - b. Qualitative
 - c. Mixed

5. The purpose of this research method is to collect data at a particular point in time with the aim of describing the nature of existing conditions, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events. Which one is that method?
- a. Survey.
 - b. Experimental.
 - c. Correlational study.

Answer Key



Remember that you can consult your tutor about the topics of the unit 2 (second part) and unit 3 by means of the EVA platform. In addition, you have the answers of the previous self-evaluation task at the end of the guide, so that you can verify your responses. I am sure you did it really well. Congratulations!

Now, let us continue with the week 14 in which you are going to actually take the oral examination as part of the complex exam. Good luck!



Week 14

Oral Complex Exam

Dear students, welcome to this week, you are going to take the oral evaluation of the complex exam. As it was explained in Prácticum 4.1, this part of the complex exam has two parts. In the first section, some topics – based on different settings – will be read by the teachers. Based on the topics, the professors will ask you some questions.

The second part contains questions that will be asked based on audio recordings. The teachers will ask questions, mostly information inquiries that you have to respond to base on what you have listened. The audio files will be played only once, but you will be allowed to take notes. I will provide some examples of similar audio resources that will be used in the complex exam during this week in the academic posts of the EVA platform.



Week 15 and 16:

Preparation to take the written section of the complex exam.

Dear students, I am sure that you have successfully done all the requested activities in this course. I understand that you have dedicated enough time for each activity and now you should feel confident to demonstrate your knowledge and skills. During these two weeks of the course, I will include additional contexts related to the fields studied so that you are more prepared to take the written section of the complex test. The new contexts will be included in the academic posts by mean of the EVA platform.



Please, continue studying during these weeks; I suggest that you use the links, resources, and exercises you have in this academic guide. In this regard, go back to the self-assessment sections you have available. Also, consider the recommended learning activities because they will help you recall the most important topics reviewed. Finally, I suggest you use your own strategies to get prepared to take the written section of the complex exam.

Written Complex Exam

Dear students, after the week 16 of this course, once you have finished all the activities, the university will assign certain dates so you can take the written complex exam. Because of the Covid-19 pandemic, the exams have been delivered virtually. However, if the situation changes, you may need to take the test face-to-face as in previous processes.



Congratulations, you have reached the second learning outcome of this course. Good luck in the complex exam you are going to take after you have finished this course.



4. Answer key

Self-evaluation 1		
Parts and Questions	Responses	Feedback
Part A	True	It is difficult to conceive much significant social, intellectual, or artistic activity taking place without the opportunities language provides us for communication.
1	False	Linguistic competence is conceived by linguists as focusing on the mental system that allows human beings to form and interpret the sounds, words, and sentences of a language.
2	True	If students' pronunciation is difficult to understand, their communication will fail.
3	False	Behaviorism is a theory of animal and human behavior. It attempts to explain behavior without reference to mental events or internal processes.
4	True	Semantics is the study of the tools for meaning, which involves knowledge encoded in the vocabulary of the language and in its patterns for producing more elaborate meanings, up to the level of sentence meanings.
Part B	b	Pragmatics is correct since Semantics studies the meanings of word or sentences and Morphology deals with word formation.
1	c	This happens a lot in countries, such as ours where most of the times, students hear the target language only during the English lessons.
2	a	Learning a language is regarded as similar to any other type of learning, which means imitation of models in the input, practice of the new behavior, and the delivery of suitable feedback.
3	b	According to the monitor theory, much of what we believe linguistic knowledge is comes because of our biological foundation. This means that a child comes to the task of language already knowing much about it.
4		

Self-evaluation 1		
Parts and Questions	Responses	Feedback
5	c	This corresponds to the elaboration phase of pragmatics, which deals with implicatures, guesses as to what the point of an utterance is. Then, pragmatics builds on what is semantically encoded in the language.

Self
Assessment

Self-evaluation 2		
Parts and Questions	Responses	Feedback
Part A		
1	True	That is true since teaching English as Foreign Language to children at very early stages of their education will allow them to travel to other countries to study overseas and become useful citizens in the future.
2	False	Teenagers at their age are still trying to establish their identity and learn who they are.
3	True	That is why it is very important to provide effective guidance in developing communicative competence in English and examine the factors affecting adult learners' communication, components underlying their language proficiency, and specific skills or strategies used in communication.
4	False	The purpose of the ESP is to determine the needs of a specific group of learners so that we teachers are able to deliver our classes based on those needs.
5	True	We teachers need to know that the objective of sustainable learning is to create and proliferate sustainable curricula and teaching-learning methods that are in accordance to the needs of the learners.
Part B		
1	c	As long as the teachers meet the needs of children, it would be easier for this group of students to remember new vocabulary items.
2	b	Because of the transformations teenagers face, it is necessary that we teachers are aware of the different methods, strategies and techniques that best fit the adolescents' needs to effectively teach the target language.
3	a	In fact, students should also acquire the knowledge of how native speakers use the language to exchange information; that is why, we teachers have to provide effective guidance in developing communicative competence in English.
4	b	Dudley-Evans (2001) divides ESP into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP); these are the two big branches of this subject.

Self-evaluation 2		
Parts and Questions	Responses	Feedback
5	c	That is why, in the needs analysis, we have to get information on why students need English for, which skills learners need to master and how well, and which genres they need to know for comprehension or production purposes.

Self
Assessment

Self-evaluation 3		
Parts and Questions	Responses	Feedback
Part A		
1	False	The use of technology in online language courses has been increased thanks to a number of developments in computer assisted language learning.
2	False	Whenever a student responds to a question, offers a comment, or tries out a new word or structure, the teachers are able to assess the student's performance.
3	True	Teachers use formative assessment to check on the progress of their students, to see how far they have mastered what they should have learned.
4	True	In fact, curriculum implies all the issues related to the planning, implementation and evaluation of a series of language learning events.
5	False	Methodology in the research context is defined as general research paradigm that outlines how a research project is going to be undertaken and, among other aspects, identifies the specific methods to be used.
Part B		
1	a	The best way to use video tools in a course is when activities are carried out in a synchronous form; otherwise, videos will not be productive to generate interactivity.
2	c	There is not a formal term in assessment that is called partial and the formative assessment focuses on the process of learning.
3	b	The people in charge of actually carrying out the designing process of a course are the curriculum designers whose strengths and limitations have to be considered for the success of the designing.
4	b	In fact, it is the qualitative research the one that allows scholars to study human behavior in depth and the reasons that rule such behavior.
5	a	It is the study method the one that allows us to get structured, often numerical data, which are comparatively straightforward to analyze as part of the quantitative research methods.

Self
Assessment



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6. Annexes

Why do languages change

Meyer, C. F. (2009). *Introducing English linguistics*. Cambridge University Press.

Why do languages change?

As pointed out by Meyer (2009), in addition to describing how languages have changed, many linguists have been interested in the factors that cause languages to change. Why, for instance, did German maintain a system of inflections for case, number, and gender over time, but English, a language in the same language family (Germanic), did not? Many hypotheses have been proposed to explain facts such as this, and this section surveys some of them, beginning with a discussion of whether language change is an evolutionary process and concluding with a description of the most extreme form of language change – language death: the actual extinction of a living language.

Change or evolution?

In their discussions of how languages develop over time, many linguists have used the terms "change" and "evolution" interchangeably. This reflects the fact that in common usage, these two words have become roughly synonymous. When an ad proclaims that "Microsoft Office has evolved," the implication is not that earlier versions of this software program had undergone "natural selection," the notion in Darwinian theories of evolution that over time a species will pass on traits that will insure its survival. Instead, the idea is that as this software has changed, it has been improved in a kind of step-by-step progression. In this context, "evolution" has become a metaphor and its meaning has been extended to cover not just the development of a species but development in general.

In linguistics, there is considerable confusion over the use of the term "evolution" to describe language change. Some linguists use this term

metaphorically, never implying a direct relationship between language and evolutionary theories of biology but instead using the term to describe the gradual changes that any language experiences over time. Other linguists, in contrast, actually maintain that there are direct parallels between how species and languages evolve. Croft (2000) proposes a "Theory of utterance selection" that has its basis in Hull's (1988) "generalized theory of selection," a theory that extends the traditional idea of natural selection to "all evolutionary phenomena," including, Croft (2000: 6) argues, language change. Croft's notion of utterance selection is heavily grounded in linguistic convention, the idea presented in Chapter 1 that an utterance such as the imperative sentence **Leave** is based on convention: a linguistic rule that stipulates how this construction is formed as well as a pragmatic principle governing its use. As speakers of a language communicate, they engage in what Croft (2000: 7) terms "normal replication" and "altered replication." The gradual replacement of *whom* by *who*, a process that is ongoing in English, provides a useful illustration of the two types of replication. Before *whom* started disappearing, speakers would have communicated with one another with an utterance such as *Whom do you trust?* Normal replication would have involved speaker after speaker using this form, passing it down generation after generation to children in the process of language acquisition. At some stage, however, some speakers started saying *Who do you trust?* – an example of altered replication, a deviation from the so-called "normal" way of structuring this utterance. Because this change is currently underway, both forms co-exist, the difference between them being primarily stylistic: *whom* is more formal than *who*. And because both forms are being passed on simultaneously, we even see instances of what Croft (2000: 121) terms **hyperanalysis** (or **hypercorrection**): an attempt to achieve formality even in constructions in which *whom* is used as subject. For instance, many might be tempted to use *whom* in *She's the person whom I believe is in charge*, even though technically *whom* is replacing a subject form, not an object form: *I believe that she [not her] is in charge*. Over time, however, the choice between *who* and *whom* will stop being an issue altogether: *whom* will die out of English, resulting in the passing on of *Who do you trust?* as a type of normal rather than altered replication. This process, Croft argues, parallels the transmission of human genomes from individual to individual.

Metaphorically, the term language evolution has some explanatory value, since languages do change slowly in a step-by-step manner. But to claim that the processes by which species and languages evolve are the same

creates an equivalence that not all linguists accept, particularly because many examples of linguistic change, such as the replacement of *whom* by *who*, have other explanations, such as **internal** and **external influences** on languages that cause them to change. Croft (2000: 6) does not necessarily exclude such influences from his theory, claiming that they are part of a "comprehensive framework for understanding language change." At the same time, the influences can be discussed on their own without recourse to an evolutionary-based theory of language change, and the inevitable controversy and confusion that use of the term 'evolution' raises in discussions of language change.

Teaching in an ESL or EFL context

Yoshida, M. T. (2013). Understanding and teaching the pronunciation of English.

Teaching in an ESL or EFL context

The location of your teaching—in a country where English is a commonly spoken language or one where it's seldom heard—makes a big difference in your teaching. In ESL classes in countries such as the U.S., Canada, Britain, or Australia, students can more easily see the usefulness of having good pronunciation. If they're old enough to need to do things on their own, they've probably had the experience of being misunderstood at work, at school, or while shopping. One international student in our ESL program told this story:

The first day I arrived at my host family's house, I asked my host father, "How can I take a bath?" He answered, "Where are you going?" He thought I said "bus" instead of "bath."

Learners who have lived in an English-speaking country for a while, maybe even for many years, might feel a stronger motivation for improving their English. On the other hand, many people in this situation feel that since they've been able to get by so far with the pronunciation they have, there's no need to improve. Learners in an ESL setting usually have more chances to hear English spoken in daily life than learners in an EFL setting. Even those who speak mostly their native language at home and with friends can't avoid hearing a certain amount of English in the wider world. Assuming they pay attention to what they hear around them, this gives them additional input on what English sounds like.

Learners in an EFL environment have a variety of motivations for learning pronunciation. Some know that they need to speak English for business, education, or other purposes, and they feel motivated to work toward intelligible pronunciation. Others, however, are learning English only because they are required to, and not because they feel any need to master the language.

In particular, students in middle school and high school are often very concerned about their grades and future entrance exams for the next level of their education. These tests often have an English component, but

pronunciation is seldom a part of it. When students start to focus more strongly on these outward measures of success, they're less concerned with their overall ability to use English, and their motivation to achieve good pronunciation is lost. When they think about pronunciation, they might ask themselves, "What's in it for me? Will this be on the standardized tests that I have to take?"

Other students in this age group aren't motivated much at all in studying English, either for its own sake or as a tool for their future. Some may even reject the idea of having "nativelike" pronunciation, feeling that it will make them stand out from their peers and seem "stuck up." If we can teach pronunciation in an interesting and engaging way, we're more likely to keep these students involved, even if they're not interested in the subject matter for its own sake.

Yoshida, M. T. (2013). Understanding and teaching the pronunciation of English.

Whence language

Ortega, L. (2011). *Second language acquisition*. Routledge.

WHENCE LANGUAGE? DESCRIPTION, EVOLUTION AND ACQUISITION

How can language as a human faculty be explained? This fundamental question guides a number of language fields that pursue three kinds of understanding about language: descriptive, evolutionary and developmental.

A number of disciplines within the language sciences aim to provide an accurate and complete description of language at all its levels, such as sounds (phonetics and phonology), minimal grammatical signs (morphology), sentences (syntax), meanings (semantics), texts (discourse analysis) and language in use (sociolinguistics, pragmatics). The overarching question guiding these subfields of linguistics is: What is language made of, and how does it work? Human language manifests itself in spoken, signed and written systems across more than 6,500 languages documented to date (they are catalogued in Ethnologue; see Gordon, 2005). Despite this daunting linguistic variety, however, all languages, no matter how different from each other they may seem (Arabic from American Sign Language from Chinese from English from Spanish from Swahili), share fundamental commonalities, a universal core of very abstract properties. Thus, linguistics and its various subfields aim at generating satisfactory descriptions of each manifestation of human language and they also seek to describe the universal common denominators that all human languages share.

A different approach to explaining language as a human faculty is to ask not what or how, but whence and why questions: Whence in the evolution of the human species did language originate and why? This is the line of inquiry pursued in the study of language evolution, which focuses on the phylogenesis or origins of language. A fundamental area of research for cognitive scientists who study language evolution (and a source of disagreement among them) is whether human language evolved out of animal communication in an evolutionary continuum or whether the two are fundamentally different biological capacities (Bickerton, 2007; Tallerman, 2005). It is well known that other animal species are capable of using elaborate systems of communication to go about collective matters of survival, nutrition and reproduction. The cases of species as different

as bees, dolphins and prairie dogs are well researched. However, none of these species has created a symbolic system of communication that even minimally approaches the complexity and versatility of human language. Chimpanzees, however, possess a genetic structure that overlaps 99 per cent with that of *Homo Sapiens*. Although they do not have a larynx that is fit for human language or hands that could be physically modulated for signing, some of these animals have been taught how to communicate with humans through a rudimentary gesture-based language and through computer keyboards. Bonobos, if reared by humans, as was the case of bonobo celebrity Kanzi, can achieve the comprehension levels of a two-and-a-half-year-old human and develop human-like lexical knowledge (Lyn and Savage-Rumbaugh, 2000). The conclusion that apes can develop true syntactic knowledge remains considerably more controversial, however. As you can guess, language evolution is a fascinating area that has the potential to illuminate the most fundamental questions about language.

For a full understanding of the human language faculty, we also need to engage in a third line of inquiry, namely the study of the ontogenesis of language: How does the human capacity to make meaning through language emerge and deploy in each individual of our species? This is the realm of three fields that focus on language acquisition of different kinds.

Ortega, L. (2011). *Second language acquisition*. Routledge.

Indirect speech acts across languages

Kroeger, P. (2018). *Analyzing meaning: An introduction to semantics and pragmatics*. Language Science Press.

Indirect speech acts across languages

Searle (1975) states that his analysis of indirect speech acts as conventions of usage helps to explain why the intended illocutionary force is sometimes preserved in translation, and sometimes not. (This again is very different from the idiomatic meanings of normal idioms, which generally do not survive in translation.) He points out that literal translations of a question like *Can you help me?* would be understood as requests in French and German, but not in Czech. The reason that the intended force is sometimes preserved in translation is that indirect speech acts are calculable. They are motivated by Gricean principles which are widely believed to apply to all languages, subject to a certain amount of cultural variation.

The reason that the intended force is not always preserved in translation is that indirect speech acts are partly conventionalized, and different languages may choose to conventionalize different specific forms. It is often difficult for non-native speakers to recognize and correctly interpret indirect speech acts in a second language. Wierzbicka (1985: 175), for example, states "Poles learning English must be taught the potential ambiguity of *would you-* sentences, or *why don't you-* sentences, just as they must be taught the polysemy of the word *bank*." This has been a major area of research in second language acquisition studies, and most scholars agree that this is a significant challenge even for advanced learners of another language.

There is less agreement concerning whether the same basic principles govern the formation of indirect speech acts in all languages. Numerous studies have pointed out cross-linguistic differences in the use of specific linguistic features, preferred or conventionalized patterns for specific speech acts, cultural variation in ways of showing politeness, contexts where direct vs. indirect speech acts are preferred, etc.

Wierzbicka (1985) argues that Searle's analysis of indirect speech acts is not universally applicable, but reflects an Anglo-centric bias. She points out for example that English seems to be unusual in its strong tendency

to avoid the use of the imperative verb form. The strategy of expressing indirect commands via questions is so strongly preferred that it is no longer a marker of politeness; it is frequently used (at least in Australian English) in impolite speech laced with profanity, obscenity, or other expressives indicating anger, contempt, etc. Kalisz (1992) agrees with many of Wierzbicka's specific observations concerning differences between English and Polish, but argues that Searle's basic claims about the nature of indirect speech acts are not disproven by these differences.

It is certainly true that there is a wide range of variation across languages in terms of what counts as an apology, promise, etc., and in the specific features that distinguish appropriate from inappropriate ways for performing a particular speech act. For example, Olshtain & Cohen (1989) recount the following incidents to illustrate differences in acceptable apologies between English and Israeli Hebrew:

One morning, Mrs G., a native speaker of English now living in Israel, was doing her daily shopping at the local supermarket. As she was pushing her shopping cart she unintentionally bumped into Mr Y., a native Israeli. Her natural reaction was to say "I'm sorry" (in Hebrew). Mr Y. turned to her and said, "Lady, you could at least apologize". On another occasion, the very same Mr Y. arrived late for a meeting conducted by Mr W. (a native speaker of English) in English. As he walked into the room, he said, "The bus was late", and sat down. Mr W. obviously annoyed, muttered to himself "These Israelis, why don't they ever apologize!" [Olshtain & Cohen 1989: 53]

In a similar vein, Egner (2002) shows that in many African cultures, a promise only counts as a binding commitment when it is repeated. Clearly, there are many significant differences across languages in the conventional features of speech acts; but this does not necessarily mean that the underlying system, which makes it possible to recognize and interpret indirect speech acts is fundamentally different.

Searle's key insights are that indirect speech acts are a type of conversational implicature, and that the felicity conditions for the intended act play a crucial role in the interpretation of these implicatures. Given our current state of knowledge, it seems likely that these basic principles do in fact hold across languages. But like most cross-linguistic generalizations in semantics and pragmatics, this hypothesis needs to be tested across a wider range of languages.

George's class

Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*. Pearson Education.

George's class

General Description:

George is a very experienced middle-aged native speaker teacher from the USA. In his General English class, there are about 15 students, young adults, from different countries, mainly from Latin America and Asia.

Level: intermediate to advance.

Time: 1 hour.

Lesson Purpose: focus on listening / speaking skills.

Technique used: live listening and discussion.

Topic of the class: decision making.

Grammar structure: asking and answering information questions and sentence formation.

Vocabulary: words related to a discussion topic.

George begins his class by encouraging students to work in pairs.

In the first stage, George starts his class by giving a short lecture. He provides some necessary vocabulary and ideas about the topic of the lesson. He focuses on "working on the meaning technique" to elicit students' responses related to the lecture.

George allots some "thinking time" for students to figure out the meaning of "decision making", and decide how people usually make decisions and what factors influence on this process. This stage is completely student-centered. George just observes the discussion process.

In the second stage, George provides some new vocabulary from the lecture, and asks the students to write their own sentences using these new words. This is the "working on the words in a context" process.

During the third stage, George asks students to watch a video from YouTube, in which decision-making conversations are presented. After the students have watched the video, George asks information questions about what they observed in the video. Then he encourages his students to work in pairs to carry on a conversation regarding "best ways to make decisions". The students are asked to use the new vocabulary of the lesson in a conversation related to decision-making supported by the already written sentences and the information shown in the video.

After these three stages, George explains the topic of the best ways to make decisions. Students are allowed to jot down new vocabulary and relevant information.

Then, the students continue pair-work discussion of the topic, using already known information, together with the information based on George's lecture and the video. It can be observed, that the students' vocabulary is significantly expanded.

At the end of the class, the students fill in worksheets with the words from the lecture and the video. George provides immediate personalized feedback. During the whole lesson, students are actively interacting with George.

Closing of the class:

Students are involved in a very lively discussion of the lesson topic and the ways they make decisions. The whole-class discussion provokes a very active exchange of opinions and the new vocabulary is used as well. George just monitors the process.

A Case Study on EFL Teachers' Beliefs About the Teaching and Learning of English in Public Education

Díaz, C., Alzarcón, P., & Ortiz, M. (2015).

Teachers' beliefs have been a fascinating topic for researchers for the amount of input they can provide for reflection and the improvement of the teaching and learning of English. This study aims at identifying the beliefs held by a group of sixteen Chilean EFL teachers who work in public secondary education. A semi-structured interview and a Likert type survey are used to collect data from the participants. Semantic content analysis and the ATLAS.ti qualitative software are used to transcribe, code, and segment data to then establish seven categories and six subcategories that depict what participants believe regarding English teaching and learning. It is a holistic study because it approaches the participants and the settings in which they move.

This research includes sixteen secondary school teachers of English, both female and male. All of them are teachers of English who have gone through five years of formal training at a university level; therefore, their proficiency level in English is at least upper intermediate or above. Their teaching experience varies from 12 to 32 years. They all work in the urban public school sector in Chile, which means that their students' socioeconomic background is working class. As teachers of English of public schools, they teach English from 9th to 12th grades. Their native language is Spanish and their ages range between 35 and 55.

Teachers give personal meaning to what they do inside and outside the classroom. An understanding of what happens in the classroom can come up from teachers' cognition and beliefs. The results of this study show that beliefs are rooted in teachers' semantic memory as cognitive and affective constructs that hold different degrees of fixation depending on the professional, academic or personal experiences that shaped them. These research participants believe for example that English teaching should follow the principles of communicative approaches; however, that same communicative English teaching in some public secondary schools experiences serious difficulties. It is feasible then to claim that for these participants, beliefs have internal levels of organization that are constantly affected by their school context and their learners' academic and social backgrounds.



7. Resources

Guidelines of the Unit of Curricular Integration.



Vicerrectorado Académico

Lineamientos Unidad de Integración Curricular

La unidad de integración curricular (UIC) está conformada por el Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2; y se desarrolla en dos períodos académicos ordinarios; en las licenciaturas se establece en el séptimo y octavo ciclo y en las Ingenierías en el octavo y noveno ciclo.

Prácticum 4

- Valida las competencias profesionales para el abordaje de situaciones, necesidades, problemas, dilemas o desafíos de la profesión y los contextos. (Art. 31 RRA).

La aprobación de la UIC se realizará a través de las opciones:

1. Desarrollo de un trabajo de integración curricular (TIC); o,
2. La aprobación de un examen de carácter complejivo.

Opción Trabajo de integración curricular:

- a) Las carreras deberán garantizar que los estudiantes que van a cursar el Prácticum 4.1 cuenten con el proyecto de Integración curricular aprobado ya que en el mismo se planifica únicamente el desarrollo del TIC.
- b) La planificación del Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 se realizará para el período académico ordinario, no habrá divisiones por bimestre.
- c) No hay división de componentes de aprendizaje (en contacto con el docente, práctico experimental y autónomo).
- d) Todas las actividades de evaluación se valoran sobre 10 puntos con la respectiva ponderación y se registra una sola calificación (gradebook) al final del período académico según lo establecido en calendario.

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- e) La aprobación del Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 será según lo establecido en Reglamento de Régimen Académico Interno; es decir, con el 70% del total de la nota (7/10).
- f) El Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 no contemplan evaluación de recuperación.
- g) Las actividades de evaluación que se planifiquen deberán ajustarse a lo establecido en la siguiente tabla:

Tabla 1. Actividades de evaluación del Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 -Trabajo de integración curricular

ASIGNATURA	EVALUACIÓN ACTIVIDADES	PONDERACIÓN
	Prácticum 4.1	
Prácticum 4.1	Seguimiento-tutoría: Indicar las actividades evaluables desarrolladas en el horario establecido	20%
	Informes-entregables: Desarrollo del 50% del Trabajo de Integración Curricular, cumplir con: tema aprobado por las instancias correspondientes, postulación a tema, elaboración del proyecto, objetivos, introducción, marco teórico (de ser el caso), materiales y métodos, etc.	50%
	Revisión y aprobación del tribunal	30%
Prácticum 4.2	Seguimiento-tutoría: Indicar las actividades evaluables desarrolladas en el horario establecido	10%
	Informes-entregables: Desarrollo y culminación del Trabajo de Integración Curricular, con los apartados de resultados, discusión, conclusiones, recomendaciones y bibliografía, (Los Coordinadores revisarán los Anexos según los casos)	25%
	Revisión y aprobación del tribunal.	25%
	Presentación oral del Trabajo de Integración Curricular ante el tribunal.* (nota mínima 7/10)	40%

* En caso de no contar con la nota mínima en la presentación podrá realizarla en las fechas de recuperación.

- h) Se puede realizar la presentación oral del TIC, cuando haya aprobado el Prácticum 4.1 y el TIC se encuentre culminado, revisado y aprobado con el informe correspondiente.

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- i) Si un estudiante no culmina la malla, puede rendir la presentación oral del TIC.
- j) Para titularse el estudiante debe contar con la malla total aprobada incluida la UIC y cumplir los requisitos académicos, administrativos y financieros establecidos para el efecto.

Opción Examen Complexivo:

- a) La planificación de cada uno de los talleres preparatorios del Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 se realizará en el período académico ordinario con la respectiva división de bimestres, según el formato de plan docente de las materias regulares.
- b) Todas las actividades de evaluación dentro de los talleres se valoran sobre 10 puntos con la respectiva ponderación según lo establecido en el Instructivo Interno de Evaluación Estudiantil (componente de aprendizaje en contacto con el docente 35% componente de aprendizaje práctico experimental 35% componente de aprendizaje autónomo 30%).
- c) La aprobación del Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 – Examen complexivo se ajustará a lo establecido en Reglamento de Régimen Académico Interno; es decir, con el 70% del total de la nota (7/10).
- d) La calificación del Prácticum 4.1 se registra al final de cada bimestre según lo establecido en el calendario académico.
- e) Para el Prácticum 4.2 se registrará una sola nota al final del ciclo académico según lo establecido en el calendario académico.
- f) Las actividades de evaluación que se planifiquen deberán ajustarse a lo establecido en la siguiente tabla:

Tabla 1. Actividades de evaluación del Prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 –Examen Complexivo

EVALUACIÓN		
ASIGNATURA	ACTIVIDADES	PONDERACIÓN
	Talleres: Actividades del componente en contacto con el docente.	35%

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EVALUACIÓN			
PRÁCTICUM 4.1	Talleres: Actividades del componente práctico experimental.	35%	
	Talleres: Actividades del componente autónomo	30%	
PRÁCTICUM 4.2	Talleres: Actividades del componente en contacto con el docente.	35%	30%
	Talleres: Actividades del componente práctico experimental	35%	
	Talleres: Actividades del componente autónomo	30%	
	Examen Complexivo* (nota mínima 7/10)	70%	

*En el caso de no obtener la nota mínima tendrá un examen de gracia en las fechas de recuperación.

Aprobación de la Unidad de integración Curricular: Para aprobar la UIC el estudiante deberá aprobar el prácticum 4.1 y 4.2 y la nota será el promedio de las calificaciones obtenidas en cada uno.

Cambio de opción de titulación dentro de la UIC

Los cambios de opción de titulación serán analizados por las carreras y aprobados por el área académica correspondiente bajo los siguientes parámetros:

- Si un estudiante reprueba el Prácticum 4.1 puede solicitar el cambio de opción de titulación y deberá matricularse nuevamente en el Prácticum 4.1 con la otra opción.
- Si un estudiante reprueba el Prácticum 4.2 y solicita el cambio de opción de titulación, deberá tomar en educación continua el curso preparatorio correspondiente a la 4.1 y luego de aprobar podrá matricularse nuevamente en el Prácticum 4.2 con la otra opción.

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- Si un estudiante aprueba el Prácticum 4.1 y solicita cambio de opción deberá inscribirse y aprobar, en educación continua, el curso preparatorio correspondiente al Prácticum 4.1 con la nueva opción; luego de aprobar deberá matricularse en el Practicum 4.2 con la otra opción de titulación.

Segunda reprobación de la opción de titulación dentro de la UIC

Si un estudiante repreuba por segunda ocasión el Practicum 4.1 o 4.2 deberá inscribirse y aprobar el curso de competencias específicas para luego solicitar la tercera matrícula en el periodo extraordinario correspondiente para el registro de calificaciones.

Elaborado:

Dirección de Planificación y desarrollo del Curriculo

Aprobado



Dra. Rosario de Rivas

VICERRECTORA ACADÉMICA

15 de marzo de 2021
Dirección de Planificación y Desarrollo del Curriculo

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Teaching English To Children:A Unique ,Challenging Experience For Teachers, Effective Teaching Ideas

Masoud Hashemi ^{a*}* Masoud Azizinezhad ^b

^a Department Of English , Toyserkan Branch , Islamic Azad University,Toyserkan , 6581685184,Iran

^b Department Of English , Toyserkan Branch , Islamic Azad University,Toyserkan , 6581685184,Iran

Abstract

It is fundamentally essential for children to learn English from a young age in this rapidly globalizing world. English knowledge will help to open many opportunities for them in the future and it will be invaluable in their future careers. However , teaching English to children is not an easy job. But it is also not difficult, if we already know how to do it. Many teaching positions involve teaching children - a unique experience that is both challenging and fun. Compared to adults, children are more energetic, have shorter attention spans, and learn language according to specific stages of development; these present planning challenges for the teacher. The key to teaching English to children is to understand the principles of language acquisition and apply it in ways that keep children motivated to learn .Children's world is playing and imitating. The present paper deals with the following subjects : what are the principles of teaching English to children , what are the characteristics of a language teacher , why do we teach children a foreign language , teachers social and psychological preparation , the emotional and physical aspects of young learners , the teachers main roles in class , a review of TPR , and finally some practical tips and teaching techniques for beginner teachers of English language.

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Keywords: Language Teaching Methodology, Teaching English To Children, Language Teachers, Teaching Challenges;

1. Introduction

1.1 Why do we teach children a new language ?

Language as a means of communication plays very important role in social relationship among human beings. The English Language is the first foreign language we teach to children at very early stages of schooling . The primary aim of teaching English in the early years of schooling is to motivate young learners to be ready and have self confident in learning English at higher levels of education. Some children are born to parents who polyglots , so they have to acquire two or three different languages. Some others learn second or third language because they are to immigrate to a new country. Nowadays language learning is essential needed for children who want to immigrate to other countries to follow the educational systems and to become useful members or citizens of those countries.

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +98-918-851-2752; fax: +98-852-422-5353.

E-mail address: masoudhashemi38@yahoo.com

1.2 The Characteristics of Children

In learning language, children begin learning simple expressions. Broadly speaking, children learn abstract rules of language from which they listen, and even they also learn expressions that they have never heard before. It is extremely important that teachers not only get children to learn language, but they also encourage them to learn it positively. Teaching of English for Children has been of particular concerns. For this reason, in teaching children English, there are some characteristics of whom presented by Scott and Lisbeth (1992). Children aged 8-10 are mature enough; They have a particular point of view; They are able to describe the difference between facts and fictions; They are curious of asking questions; They believe in what is said and the real world to express and comprehend meaning/message; They have distinct opinions about what they like and what they dislike; They are open to what happens in the classroom and begin asking a teacher's decision; and They can cooperate with each other and learn from others.

Scott and Lisbeth (1992) say that children particularly aged 8-10 are competent mother tongue users. In this regard, they are aware of basic linguistic rules of their mother tongue. At these ages, children can grasp abstracts and symbols, generalize language, and systematize it. Children are also capable of interpreting meaning without understanding Widodo, *Teaching Children* 237 words separately, are competent in using language creatively, are frequently fond of doing exploration and making a certain condition enjoyable; have established imagination; and are fond of communicating (Halliwell, 1992). In the context of teaching, most people assume that children learn a foreign language in the same way that they learn their mother tongue. Basically, children are potential in acquiring and learning a foreign language, and even they learn it more quickly than those who are learning the foreign language after puberty (McLaughlin, 1978). On the contrary, children are less capable of absorbing or acquiring a foreign language optimally (Long, 1990). Hashemi (2008) believes that teaching to children is a delicate and sensitive task for the following reasons:

- Language learning class for them is their first year of schooling
- They are highly motivated and energetic
- They are new sponges to absorb
- They have various language backgrounds
- They are easily frustrated if corrected immediately
- They are ready to imitate and participate
- They love group work
- They love independence
- They need respect and attention
- They easily learn from their environments
- They are great competitors

1.3 Language Teaching to Children

Tell me, I forget. Show me, I remember. Involve me, I understand. (Ancient Chinese Proverb). Children tend to have shorter attention spans and a lot of physical energy. They are very much linked to their surroundings and are more interested in the physical and the tangible phenomena. As Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 2) describe, "Their own understanding comes through hands and eyes and ears. The physical world is dominant at all times." . Teaching English to children is different from teaching English to adults. According to Harmer (2001: 38), young learners learn differently from adult learners. They easily get bored, losing interest after a short period of time. In order to keep them engaged it is necessary to supplement the activities with lots of brightly colored visuals, toys, puppets, or objects. Using these activities, a language teacher can make the language input enjoyable and comprehensible as well. A great teaching idea is to collect useful resources of toys, puppets, pictures, maps, calendars, and other paraphernalia and saving them for use in each other's classes. Using gestures and body language are very effective for young learners to gain understanding of language. Moreover, it is recommended that teachers keep children active and motivated, using a song, story, game, or a teacher-made activity. In James Asher's (1977) method, Total Physical Response (TPR), children listen and physically respond to a series of instructions or commands from the teacher. The more fun the activities, the better they will remember the language materials presented. One way to

make the learning more fun is to involve students in the creation of the visuals or realia. Having children involved in creating the visuals that are related to the lesson helps engage students in the learning process by introducing them to the context as well as to relevant vocabulary items. Language teachers can use language related arts and crafts activities while making or drawing the visuals. Certainly students are more likely to feel interested and invested in the lesson and will probably take better care of the materials (Moon 2000). We can get students to draw different characters or even create puppets. For younger students who can not even draw well, make them copy what you or other learners draw on the board . You may use the puppets to dramatize the dialogues or check their comprehension of the story and have them practice the dialogue using their puppets. If you are not an artist you had better consult an art teacher or a friend to help you draw and color the flash cards. Ask the learners to bring their own toys to English class. Use “show and tell” technique presentation that gives students a chance to introduce their objects in English. Since young learners have short attention spans , it is recommended to move quickly from activity to activity. Do not stay more than 10 minutes on any single activity because children tend to become bored easily. It is a good idea to use thematic unit planning because it builds a larger context within which students can learn language. When teaching English to young learners this way, you can incorporate many activities, songs, and stories that build on students’ knowledge and recycle language throughout the unit.

Haas (2000) supports the use of thematic unit planning for young foreign language learners by pointing out that “Foreign language instruction for children can be enriched when teachers use thematic units that focus on content-area information, engage students in activities in which they must think critically, and provide opportunities for students to use the target language in meaningful contexts and in new and complex ways.” A good way to plan a unit is to explore what content your students are learning in their other classes and develop English lessons using similar content. Since children easily make links to their home cultures, it is has always been a good idea to relate the language and content to students’ home culture to personalize the lesson and provide them with an opportunity to link the new content and language to their own lives and experience. Remember that children enjoy repetition any time and any place . Practice basic routines in the classroom so that you can manage them in the class .

According to Cameron (2001, 10) “...we can see how classroom routines, which happen every day may provide opportunities for language development.” Practice real authentic material in the class from the very beginning . Most of the teachers today are encouraged to teach English through English, especially at the younger ages. One reason is to give students the maximum exposure to the English language. But using their mother tongue as the last choice may make the meaning of some troublesome expression or word clear in a shorter period of time . We are usually given a limited amount of time in many classroom situations, so that time is too precious to waste. To make the meaning of the new words comprehensible , the teacher can use visuals, realia, and gestures.

1 . 4 . What is TPR (Total Physical Response) Method ?

TPR is a method of teaching language developed by James Asher of San Jose State University in California. It is based on the premise that the human brain has a biological program for acquiring any natural language on earth - including the sign language of the deaf. The process is visible when we observe how infants internalize their first language (Asher, 2001; Asher, 2002). It has been used successfully with students who are learning a second language (Asher, 1966). When TPR is used at an English class, the teacher gestures, models, and says the commands to the students, and the students respond by imitating the teacher.

1 . 4 . 1 The theories and principles behind TPR

- *L1 language acquisition theories*

Children are exposed to huge amounts of language input before speaking. Language learners can also benefit from following this “natural” progression from comprehension to production, instead of the more normal situation where learners are asked to produce instantly.

- *Brain Lateralization into right and left hemispheres*

The left brain can be described as logical, one-track, and cynical. It is used when analyzing, talking, discussing, etc. Most classroom activities in Japan are aimed at the left brain. The right brain is used when moving, acting, using metaphor, drawing, pointing, etc. It is targeted by sports and extra-curricular activities in Japanese schools. When language is taught by lecturing or explaining, the cynical left brain is targeted and the information is kept in short term memory (if at all). It is soon forgotten as it never becomes "real" to the student. When language is taught actively through movement, the right brain "believes" the information and retains it, in the same way that skills such as swimming or riding a bicycle are remembered long term.

- *Affective filter and stress reduction*

Students learn better when they are relaxed and stress free. This is because the affective filter, a mental barrier between the students and the information, is raised when students are nervous or uncomfortable. When the affective filter is high, learners find it harder to understand, process, and remember information. TPR helps reduce the affective filter because it is less threatening than traditional language activities. Students do not have to produce language. Mistakes are unimportant and easily (and painlessly) corrected by the teacher. Language is remembered easily and long-term.

1.5 . The characteristics of language teachers who teach to children

Teaching English to children is not an easy job. But it is also not difficult, if we already know how to do it. Many researchers do believe that a successful language teacher of children should possess some characteristics as follows :

- *Must be energetic and patient .*
- *Must love children .*
- *Must pay attention to individual differences.*
- *Must encourage , encourage , and encourage .*
- *Must let children see the beautiful and useful aspects of the language.*
- *Must let them love you as the language teacher and the new language as well .*
- *Must know the techniques of teaching .*
- *Must respect children as human .*
- *Must start teaching to children as soon as possible .*

1.5 Some teaching tips for new teachers

Teachers of adults may need to re-think their approach when teaching children. Carol Read

Nowadays , language teachers of adults are required to teach classes of children most of whom without any specialized training . Teaching English to children, should be enjoyable, interesting, repetitive, and understandable. In doing so, there should be appropriate methods and techniques for teaching English to them. When you become a teacher of children, you are no longer just a language teacher, you are also an educator. There are some helpful ideas to incorporate into the language classroom. These ideas come from the discussions and experience and researches done by teachers and professionals .

- Switch to simple English in the class
- Speak clearly and concisely
- Use the board most of the time
- Use enjoyable language learning games
- Have a sense of humor
- Let them listen to music and watch cartoons in English
- Don't forget background music when teaching or assigning them some tasks
- Use cassettes and CDs for modeling if you are not a native speaker
- Observe successful language classes for teaching tips
- Use pantomime and body language when necessary
- Get your real objects to the class
- Pay attention to seating arrangement of the children

- Call them by their first names or give them some new English names
- Budget your time , don't be in a rush
- Check their home works regularly but not seriously
- Have a video recording of your classroom
- Give them break some times
- Be well dressed

Remember : We Learn Teaching By Teaching .

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The Challenge of Teaching English to Adult Learners in Today's World

Mihaela Cozma^{a*}

^aDepartment of English Language, West University of Timișoara, Bd. V. Pârvan 4, Timișoara 300223, Romania

Abstract

In close connection to the fact that, during the past few decades, globalization has grown significantly, more and more adults of different nationalities seek the help of English instructors because they want to find employment abroad, to communicate more effectively at work, to resort to overseas travels, or just to enjoy various types of social situations. In any of these cases, the English learners are highly motivated to study this particular subject. However, those who teach adults must be aware of the differences between the teaching – learning patterns specific to adults, on the one hand, and those that generally function with children, on the other. The paper will discuss the cognitive, attitudinal, behavioural and methodological characteristics presented by the adult learners of English in today's world, taking into account both theoretical and research data. The ultimate purpose of this paper is to arrive at conclusions that are relevant for the English teachers involved in the process of preparing adults for the different situations which require a good knowledge of this foreign language.

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Keywords: adult learners; challenges; teaching English to adults; methodological implications

1. Introduction

The general perception regarding the traditional target audience of foreign language teaching is that it is normally represented by various types of young learners, ranging from children, to adolescents and, sometimes, to very young adults. Consequently, when the language students' position is occupied by adult learners, the teaching process is considered to be more problematic. Today, maybe more than ever before, this view is supported by parents,

* Mihaela Cozma. Tel.: +4-0256-592-321; fax: +4-0256-592-164.
E-mail address: mihaela.cozma@e-uvt.ro

educators and policymakers, who, in their effort to prepare children for a multilingual future, put forward the concept of “the earlier the better” when it comes to learning a foreign language. But is it really true that the older the students are, the more ineffective they are as language learners? Even if not all methodologists share this opinion, there seems to be a general consensus that the learners’ age is associated with specific needs, competences and cognitive skills, which, in their turn, involve characteristic teaching and learning patterns. This paper will discuss the special features presented by the adult students, will identify the challenges that might occur when working with this category of students, and, then, will consider some methodological implications for the process of teaching English to mature learners.

2. The adults as English learners: specific features

Although the concept of “adult learners” may be given slightly differing definitions, depending on the aspect that each definition is meant to emphasize, in my approach this term refers to persons over the normal age of traditional schooling (more specifically, over 23-25 years old), who freely choose to get involved in a particular form of instruction, in order to serve a professional, social or personal need or interest.

As I have already anticipated, in the field of the teaching methodology, the interest in adult learners emerged from the idea that mature students learn somehow differently from the young ones. Building on this idea, the American educator Malcolm Knowles developed the principle of “andragogy”, which represents the art and science of adult learning. Knowles’ (1984) andragogical model is based on the following assumptions about the adult learners: since adults tend to be self-directed, they can direct their own learning; a rich reservoir of life experiences aid their learning; they are ready to learn when they assume new social or life roles; they have a task-, or problem-centred orientation to learning, being willing to apply new learning immediately; and adults are generally motivated to learn due to internal rather than external factors (Knowles, 1984, p.12).

In spite of the fact that Knowles’ model has been often subject to criticism, it has exerted a great influence on the theories of learning and teaching, and has guided practice in the field of adult education. Starting from the main ideas elaborated by Knowles (1984), as well as by other theorists and researchers interested in the problem of adult learning (e.g. Harmer, 2007, Lightbown and Spada, 2006, Frențu and Cozma, 2013), in what follows, I will briefly discuss the main cognitive, attitudinal and behavioural characteristics presented by the adult students.

2.1. Cognitive characteristics

A common myth in the field of education is that adult students are generally more ineffective as language learners than the traditional students, on the account that the younger people are, the more flexible their brains, and, consequently, the better their cognitive functions. However, research seems to challenge this myth, indicating that, indeed, younger students may be better when it comes to acquiring pronunciation, but, otherwise, adults are perfectly able to reach high levels of proficiency in a foreign language (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 73).

Moreover, methodologists (e.g. Harmer, 2007, p. 81) stress that adult learners have greater cognitive capabilities and conceptual complexity than the younger ones. This means that adults can offer a longer attention span, and they can engage with abstract thought. Additionally, the older students have a more developed understanding of how language works, being familiar with the more advanced elements of grammar, such as how conjugation works, or what an adverb does. They already know what a well-built sentence is, and have a good sense of punctuation and spelling.

All these cognitive characteristics of the adult learners involve the fact that teachers must adjust the instructional materials and the teaching methods in order to accommodate the students’ skill and maturity levels, as it will be illustrated later.

2.2. Attitudinal characteristics

It is widely agreed that motivation represents a factor of central importance for successful learning. Unlike younger learners, the adults almost always have a sound reason why they are studying, and that reason will be their primary motivation. Perceiving education as a way to improve their self-image and reach various personal goals,

adult learners are usually highly motivated from the very beginning of the instruction process, and this makes it much easier for the teacher to perform his/ her task as a motivator. Moreover, as Harmer (2007) points out, "many adults are able to sustain a level of motivation by holding on to a distant goal in a way that teenagers find more difficult" (p. 84).

Adults are certainly more cooperative learners, and, what is more important, their cooperation comes as a natural consequence of their seeing the point of the various instructional situations in which they are involved. In this way, the teacher no longer has to "camouflage" learning by resorting to entertaining activities, such as games or songs, although, if properly selected and used, they may be sometimes appropriate for students of an older age (Frențiu & Cozma, 2013, p. 75).

Additionally, the mature age students have more learning experience behind them, and this aspect can prove to be both beneficial and problematic. Thus, on the one hand, adult students have well-developed learning strategies that have served them well in other settings, and the teacher can help them use these strategies to their advantage in language learning, too. On the other hand, adults come to the English classroom with certain expectations about the learning process, and, in case these expectations are not met, the learners may become critical towards the new context of instruction.

There are also situations when adults are less confident in their intellectual abilities, and this might make them anxious about learning a foreign language. In relation to the anxieties, insecurities, and fears of the adults who return to school, the adult educator Stephen Brookfield (1990) discusses the term "impostor syndrome", denoting a collection of feelings of inadequacy, of chronic self-doubt which make people think that their accomplishments are nowhere near as good as those of the people around them.

2.3. Behavioral characteristics

In comparison to other age groups, adults tend to be more disciplined and more willing to struggle on despite boredom (Harmer, 2007, p. 84). This does not mean that older learners cannot display disruptive behaviour, such as talking to their neighbours when they should pay attention to the teacher, arriving in class late, failing to do any homework, or even disagreeing vocally with what the teacher is saying (Harmer, 2002, p. 11).

However, teachers of adults are less likely to have to deal with the ongoing daily discipline problems that generally occur with younger students. This happens because, in most of the cases, adults adopt a type of behaviour which shows that they take the instructional process seriously: they come to the class with the necessary materials (books, paper, pen, etc.), do not ask questions which are irrelevant for the topic being discussed, let the teacher know in advance if they must miss a class or an exam, and, generally tend to be honest with their teachers. The idea is that, if the adult learners feel that they are treated as equals in the instructional process, they are generally willing to cooperate with the teachers towards the achievement of the educational objectives.

3. Challenges in teaching English to adults: a research perspective

Even if, at a rather cursory glance, the general characteristics presented by the adult learners might make people consider that it is easier to teach English to more mature students than to children, the reality of the instruction process itself often reveals that this is not entirely true. In other words, working with adult students certainly presents its own challenges, and, in this section, I will try to explain what some of these challenges are actually about.

In order to offer an objective perspective in this respect, in addition to the theoretical information available on the topic, I will also make reference to research evidence. The research evidence is based on data gathered by means of a mini-research study that I conducted among twenty experienced English teachers, who have had the opportunity of working both with children and with adult students. Since my intention was not to make statistics, but just to arrive at findings which reflect a certain reality, I used methodology which is characteristic of the qualitative type of research. As data collection instrument, I used the questionnaire. The thorough analysis of the answers gathered in this way pointed to the fact that, when it comes to teaching English to adult learners, my subjects are generally faced with challenges that are related to a series of personal factors, that is, to within-student or teacher characteristics, involving physical, cognitive, and affective variables. A detailed presentation of these challenges will be given in

what follows; relevant insights coming from the theory of the field will also be offered, wherever necessary.

3.1. Physical and cognitive factors

Although my subjects do not consider their students' mature age as being problematic in itself, however, they point to certain aspects of the teaching – learning process which require more attention due to the adult learners' specific physical and cognitive characteristics.

Thus, because of their lower energy level, as well as their multiple responsibilities, the adults generally come to the English classroom with a certain level of fatigue. The teacher should be aware of this aspect, and not misinterpret their students' occasional apathy or lack of involvement as a reaction to the course content or to the teaching methods. Here is what one of my respondents said in this respect:

"Being used to the age-specific enthusiasm displayed by the children I had been teaching for many years, it took me some time to understand that I was not necessarily the one to blame for my adult students' lack of focus or even signs of boredom."

Additionally, even if, as indicated in the previous section, the mature learners are characterized by greater cognitive abilities and conceptual complexity, my subjects note the fact that memory and reaction time is sometimes slower in the case of this type of students. However, in full agreement with some of the methodologists who discussed the same aspect (e.g. Polson, 1993), my subjects stress that the adults may be spending more time on their learning tasks, but they are often more accurate than the younger students, and, therefore, are very likely to acquire solid knowledge.

3.2. Attitudinal factors

As for the adult learners' attitudinal characteristics, my respondents consider them as representing another source of potential challenges. It is true that, as already pointed out, the mature learners' instructional process is generally supported by a high level of motivation, but this motivation is also accompanied by these students' high expectations with regard to their instruction. One subject explains:

"Adults may not be so patient with the results they expect from the English course. In general, they want to gain knowledge as soon as possible, and they need to have the relevance of that knowledge proved in real-life situations."

The results of my research study have also revealed other types of challenges that can be created by the expectations with which the mature students come to the English classroom. It is the expectations that such students might have with regard to the instructional methods employed during the course, expectations which are very much influenced by the methods used by their former teachers. As a result, it often happens that the adults prefer the more traditional teaching methods at the expense of the modern, communicative ones.

Another attitudinal factor which is likely to make the instructional process more difficult is represented by the mature students' lack of confidence in their intellectual abilities, which might make them anxious about learning a foreign language (cf. Brookfield's "impostor syndrome"). As my subjects point out, this feeling of anxiety – which occurs because the learners feel they do not progress fast enough, because they are reluctant to speak during the English classes, or because they are afraid of making mistakes – is closely related to the potential of losing face, which becomes greater with older age.

It must be stressed, however, that it is not only the learners who might experience feelings of anxiety during the process of teaching English to adults. Most of my respondents mention the personal challenge that they, as teachers, are faced with when they are in front of a group of mature students. Thus, they sometimes feel more nervous than they normally are with children, and this happens because the adults are more aware of their learning needs and, at the same time, of the manner in which their needs are met by the course they attend.

4. Some methodological considerations

Starting from the specific features displayed by adult learners in general, as well as from the challenges that are commonly met by the teachers of this type of students, in this section I will discuss some of the implications that the

theoretical and the research data presented so far will have for the process of teaching and learning English to mature learners.

4.1. Task choice and achievement

The adult learners' greater cognitive capabilities and conceptual complexity should represent an advantage for the English teacher. Thus, if in the case of a lesson planned for younger learners, teachers are advised to divide the material into smaller segments and to insert some fun activities in order to keep them focused and engaged, for the adult learners these principles are no longer obligatory. Even if the older students often appreciate the entertaining moments and the short breaks that might occur during the teaching process, these can be definitely shorter and less frequent than in a lesson addressed to children.

Adults come into the English classroom with a rich range of experiences – regarding not only learning, but also life in general. Teachers can take advantage of these experiences, expand upon them whenever possible, and connect them to the new learning. The learning tasks must be practical, must have a clear purpose, and must be relevant to important issues in the adults' lives. Moreover, since adults associate their language knowledge and skills with the ability to function in the world, they need immediate application of what they are learning. Consequently, when designing their lesson plans, teachers should be aware that life or work-related situations present a more appropriate framework for adult learning than all sorts of academic or theoretical principles.

Another methodological characteristic is related to the fact that adults often prefer to be presented with an analytical formal type of grammar and need to have a lot of controlled practice, before they move to more communicative activities. This means that the teacher should be ready to offer more comprehensive grammar presentations and more detailed explanations than in the case of a younger type of audience.

The review methods must be also considered in any approach to adults' learning. It is obvious that both adults and children must review the instructional material in order to remember its content, but the methods of review can be different. If, for children, the classroom teacher-guided review plays an essential role and is often complemented by the parents' contribution at home, adults often need only a quick review or a list of material for individual study.

4.2. Use of modern technology

Technology clearly represents an important part of the process of teaching and learning a foreign language, and English teachers take full advantage of the opportunities that it creates for their classes. The problem is that, for some older students, technology may be another source of anxiety, because they do not have sufficient previous experience in this respect. This is the reason why, an important role for the teacher of adult learners is that of preparing them to use the technology in a non-threatening context meant to foster positive attitudes in adults towards both technology and learning.

As they are made aware of the fact that technology helps them be more self-directed in their instructional context and also in their working environment, the mature learners become more willing to integrate the technological tools within their study, together with other resources like books, worksheets, videos, or listening materials. Additionally, technology allows for the instructor to create lessons and activities which require the adult student to take an active role through experiential learning, and which also addresses the learning style of each learner by allowing the objectives to be delivered in multiple different ways (Conlan, Grabowski & Smith, 2003).

However, as Sharma (2006) points out, the teacher should consider the appropriateness and the extent of the use of technology in the case of each particular group of mature students. He explains:

Consciously or not, the preference for face-to-face communication probably plays a role in making decisions regarding the use of technology in adult learning. We need to reminder ourselves of this preference and question its validity as evaluate possible roles for technology in a given situation. (Sharma, 2006, pp. 330-331)

4.3. The affective climate of the classroom

As it has been repeatedly suggested, adults may experience difficulties adjusting to various elements of the learning context, from the general instructional setting, to the teaching methods, or even the study skills.

Consequently, a teacher who is open, friendly, human, respectful, honest, and authentic will always play an essential role in creating a positive learning environment.

Since adults frequently feel rather insecure in their position as students, teachers should provide support and encouragement when asking them to take risks or try new skills. Moreover, adults tend to take errors personally and are more likely to let them affect their self-esteem. Because of the students' feelings of anxiety, the teacher should pay particular attention to the process of error correction, focusing also on the positive aspects and on the progress that learners are making.

5. Conclusion

It seems that, in spite of the difficulties that might occur, the process of teaching English to adult learners can prove to be very interesting and, at the same time, rewarding. These learners' motivation, determination and life experience can bring a wide range of benefits to the context of instruction. However, it is obvious that instructors must be more flexible and more responsive in adult educational contexts. It is only in this way that teachers can really contribute to the success of their students' learning by creating a positive climate which makes adults feel emotionally safe, and which offers them the type of instruction that they expect.

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New developments in ESP teaching and learning research

Cédric Sarré, Shona Whyte

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1 Introduction to new developments in ESP teaching and learning research

Shona Whyte¹ and Cédric Sarré²

In introducing the studies in this collective volume on research in teaching and learning English for Specific Purposes (ESP), we begin by considering the current context of language education in European universities, then examine key terms and concepts in our own vision of ESP didactics, before previewing the chapters selected for inclusion in the present volume. The book is divided into three sections, beginning with groundwork related to needs analysis and course design in disciplines as diverse as dentistry, musicology, and technical science, continuing with a closer look at particular ESP challenges related to lexico-grammar or genre, and in the final chapters moving on to innovative practice such as exploiting specialised corpora or television drama in the ESP classroom.

1. Background to ESP research

The present volume is one outcome of recent developments in a relatively new field of applied linguistics inquiry, at least as far as traditional European tertiary language education is concerned. In many such contexts, the main approach to language learning and teaching has historically involved cultural studies, particularly the literature, but also the social, economic, and political history of countries where the target language is spoken, generally referred to as Modern Foreign Language (MFL) studies. In the MFL tradition, research and teaching are closely intertwined, with literary scholars treating language and culture as an inseparable whole in both lecture theatres and scholarly journals.

1. Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, BCL, Nice, France; shona.whYTE@unice.fr

2. Université Paris-Sorbonne, ESPE de Paris, Paris, France; cedric.sarre@paris-sorbonne.fr

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In this view, Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) is treated as a pedagogical concern, and one which can be met by changing teaching materials rather than teaching methods. The practical language needs of doctors, lawyers, or engineers, to name but these, are thus generally dealt with by instructors with MFL training, who replace literary texts relating to the target language culture with materials focussing on medical, legal, or engineering topics. More recently, some scholars involved in LSP teaching have also sought to pursue research here too, and the MFL background of these authors has naturally led them to focus on discourse analytic approaches to LSP. This is especially true in the case of ESP, defined as “a ‘variety of English’ that can be observed in a given perimeter of society, delineated by professional or disciplinary boundaries” (Saber, 2016, p. 2). Thus, text and discourse analysis have historically dominated ESP research (Hewings, 2002; Paltridge & Starfield, 2011), perhaps particularly in continental European work, where this domain-centered approach is made even more explicit in a concept termed “Specialised Varieties of English (SVE)” (Resche, 2015, p. 215).

In contrast, another tradition has developed with its roots firmly in teacher and learner needs in ESP. Interestingly, a good deal of the early work in notional-functional and communicative approaches to language teaching, which paved the way for today’s Common European Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR), were motivated by ESP needs (Munby, 1978; Wilkins, 1972). Many have argued that this practical orientation, which characterises much applied research in ESP teaching and learning, has affected the academic standing of research in this “less glamorous” area (Hyland, 2006, p. 34), and ongoing tensions between practitioners and researchers remain a challenge. However, the time seems ripe to revisit the link between research, teaching, and learning in ESP contexts. In many European countries, we are witnessing a renewal of interest in teaching and learning of English which is tied to wider processes in the internationalisation of research and English as a global language, leading to more English Medium Instruction (EMI) and greater attention to English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). At the same time, increased use of technology in everyday and professional spheres is fuelling interest in Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL). Against this backdrop, a

number of epistemological and methodological concerns in ESP have come to the fore (Sarré & Whyte, 2016).

2. Key terms and concepts in ESP didactics

Based on Petit's seminal work on theory-building in ESP leading to his 2002 representation, we have suggested the following definition of our field:

"the branch of English language studies which concerns the language, discourse, and culture of English-language professional communities and specialised groups, as well as the learning and teaching of this object from a didactic perspective" (Sarré & Whyte, 2016, p. 150).

The multiple perspectives on ESP research mentioned in this definition – linguistic, cultural, discourse, and didactic – may suggest a “highly fragmented” field of research (Saber, 2016, p. 3). Yet these different aspects are complementary and can be viewed as dimensions of a “specific purpose language ability” (Douglas, 2001, p. 182), combining knowledge related to both language and content. Specific purpose language ability can be seen as a professional macro-skill comprising knowledge and competencies related to disciplinary, academic, or professional domains, and to particular modes of communication and relationships typical of each (Braud, Millot, Sarré, & Wozniak, 2017, pp. 37-38).

A key distinction in ESP teaching/learning research is between **pedagogy** and **didactics**. In previous work we have shown that, in continental Europe, “didactics is knowledge-oriented, a science which aims to understand how teaching leads to learning” (Sarré & Whyte, 2016, p. 142). This term is commonly used in research which is published in the national languages of mainland European countries, and which involves theorisation and distance from particular teaching contexts. Pedagogy, on the other hand, “is practice-oriented, concerned more with applied aspects of language teaching”, best seen as “an applied component of didactics” (Sarré & Whyte, 2016, p. 142). This contrast is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Didactics and pedagogy (from Sarré & Whyte, 2016)

Didactics	Pedagogy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • knowledge-oriented • a distancing and theorising process • main objective: the analysis of how teaching leads to learning • draws on various contributive sciences • covers both SLA and foreign language education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • practice-oriented • a practical process • main focus: teaching practices and education • draws on didactic research = an applied component of didactics • covers actors, curricula, content, context, and objectives

This distinction does not, however, hold in English-speaking research cultures, where only pedagogy is commonly used and the concept of didactics – covered within the overlapping fields of applied linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research – is not, with important consequences for our field.

As “the general field of learning a non-primary language” (Gass, 1995, p. 3), SLA has provided the main theoretical foundation for language teaching and learning research in the English-speaking world since at least the early 1990’s, both in the classroom (instructed SLA) and outside (naturalistic SLA). Indeed, the focus on learning in isolation from teaching allowed some researchers to sever all links with pedagogy as part of an endeavour to establish SLA as “an academic discipline in its own right” (Bygate, 2005, p. 568). In contrast, applied linguistics covers a broader interest in “language issues in any kind of real-world problem” (Bygate, 2005, p. 569) and involves “the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue” (Brumfit, 1995, p. 27), or even more narrowly, “the pragmatically motivated study of language, where the term ‘pragmatic’ refers to the intention to address and not merely describe the real-world problems” (Bygate, 2005, p. 571). This principle of applicability links research to practice by viewing pedagogy as “an applied component of SLA” (Sarré & Whyte, 2016, p. 145), although the unilateral or unidirectional nature of this relationship has been contested. Arguing that SLA theory and other applied linguistics research has often failed to solve teaching problems, Widdowson (2017) suggests that:

“in applied linguistics we need to reverse the dependency order of this relationship and analyse the problem first. [...] What disciplinary constructs and findings are of use can only be determined by analysing the problem first”.

Instead of theory, or what he calls disciplinarity, being applied to real world issues, he claims real world issues should determine what type of disciplinarity is pertinent. Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001, p. 17) propose criteria to guide our choices concerning the focus, conceptualisation, and application of such research: it should meet the needs of language teachers, make sense to them, and produce results which they can use in their teaching. Here we have an agenda for an emerging academic discipline of ESP didactics drawing on:

- the numerous specificities of the field, identified across a multiplicity of ESP teaching and learning situations which call for a specific research framework (Sarré & Whyte, 2016);
- bilateral and bidirectional interactions between pedagogical practice and didactic theory (Sarré, 2017; Sarré & Whyte, 2016; Whyte, 2016); and
- a rich European tradition of language didactics research within this wider definition of applied linguistics.

The necessary link between didactic research and real-world contexts is perhaps one we more naturally preserve when publishing in our national languages than when writing in English, so it is helpful that this book should arise from a seminar at an English-language conference, the European Society for the Study of English (ESSE) in Galway (Milosevic, Molina, Sarré, & Whyte, 2016).

3. Current volume

Our goal in producing this volume was thus to attempt to bridge gaps between research and practice by offering strong research-based contributions in a wide

range of ESP contexts. We have aimed to offer new theoretical and pedagogical insights for ESP practitioners and researchers alike, going beyond descriptions of ESP situations and/or programmes to involve sound research design and data analysis, anchored in previous ESP teaching and learning research. The nine papers in our collection cover a range of ESP domains: two in medicine (Birch-Bécaas & Hoskins; Franklin-Landi), two in technical science and engineering (Fries; Milosevic), two in social sciences (Johnson; Starkey-Perret, Belan, Lê Ngo, & Rialland), and three in humanities (Beaupoil-Hourdel, Josse, Kosmala, Masuga, & Morgenstern; Schug & Le Cor; Labetoulle). We present the studies in three subsections, beginning with needs analysis and course development, moving on to specific challenges in ESP teaching and learning, and concluding with some examples of innovative practice in our field.

3.1. Laying the groundwork: needs analysis, programme design, and course development

The papers in the first part of the collection address fundamental questions concerning the design of ESP activities and courses, such as learner needs and the design of courses and programmes. In contexts ranging from dental studies through to musicology and technical sciences, the studies report on action research undertaken to improve the quality of English courses offered to students in their various institutions. In each case, the authors are ESP practitioners confronted with particular difficulties and challenges which they have sought to address with reference to research in SLA, educational theory, and ESP research itself. The three papers highlight the importance of needs analysis, as well as the problems of trying to both identify and meet the multiple and often conflicting requirements of students, language instructors, lecturers in content areas, as well as institutions.

Milosevic designed a small pilot test of audiovisual resources for teaching English for technical sciences in Serbia, using an experimental/control design and measuring reading comprehension and translation of key terms. Her students preferred and performed at least as well with teaching materials using video rather than text alone, and the study seems to justify wider trials with

more teaching units and more controlled testing. **Labetoulle**'s research also started from needs analysis, particularly the challenges of a large, heterogeneous student population and a heavy workload for language instructors in musicology at a large French university. In her study, the adaptation of a Complex Dynamic Systems (CDS) framework from the perspective of didactics ergonomics ([Bertin, Gravé, & Narcy-Combes, 2010](#); [Rivens-Mompean, 2013](#)) allowed practitioners to take a number of factors into account in the design and implementation of new ESP courses, though the chapter suggests it may be difficult if not impossible to satisfy all needs involved. In **Birch-Bécaas and Hoskins'** study of a final year dentistry course, the main focus is on the conception of an ESP task which met a number of demands from students, language instructors, and dentistry lecturers, as well as institutional assessment criteria. The study reports high levels of participant satisfaction achieved by integrating needs analysis, second language research, and both teacher and learner perspectives.

3.2. Building confidence: addressing particular difficulties

The second part of the collection takes a closer look at specific problems occurring in ESP teaching. **Schug and Le Cor** follow [Waninge \(2015\)](#) in a CDS approach to the complex question of learner motivation, tracking four individual students in four different ESP and non-ESP classes at different time scales (i.e. over three-hour class periods, and over three-month courses). Their findings suggest a great deal of individual variation, not all related to ESP. **Fries** reports on a pedagogical intervention concerning a particular aspect of lexico-grammar: compound nouns in engineering discourse, drawing on cognitive semantics ([Langacker, 1987](#)). Her analysis of learners' use of the target structure in a writing assignment and on presentation slides suggests little quantitative but a possible qualitative advantage for her experimental approach to teaching compound nouns via cognitive semantics. **Beaupoil-Hourdel and colleagues** addressed the problem of supporting humanities students in reading scientific articles, drawing on classic work in script theory ([Schank & Abelson, 1977](#)) and more recent efforts to improve scientific communication using narrative techniques ([Luna, 2013](#); [Olson, 2015](#)). The paper describes the creation of teaching materials based on devices such as narrative elements and the dramatic arc, and tests their efficacy

with measures of learner performance and attitude. These studies include close analysis of relatively large amounts of data, be these compound nouns in learner writing, classroom observations of learner engagement, or measures of reading proficiency, all with the aim of investigating the effect of ESP instruction.

3.3. Moving ahead: towards new practices

In the third and final section of our collection we look at new practices involving different approaches to materials design and pedagogical support for ESP learning. **Johnson** situates her study of ESP for social work at an Italian university in a wider context which shows how both the Bologna process and the more recent migrant crisis have had far-reaching effects. She advocates a holistic approach to ESP, drawing on corpus tools to constitute and exploit a specific monitor corpus for these students, using a range of tools to identify and raise awareness of patterns of native-speaker usage. **Franklin-Landi** follows a recent tradition in French higher education to exploit fictional representations of specific domains, such as medicine or law in ESP teaching. She charts student perspectives on the medical TV series *Grey's Anatomy* following classroom activities based on a video extract, highlighting advantages and risks in using such material as a pedagogical resource. The final paper in this section by **Starkey-Perret and colleagues** also examines the effects of a particular pedagogical intervention, this time drawing on [Schmidt's \(1990\)](#) notion of noticing to investigate the impact of focus on form activities prior to the main task. Students in this study were enrolled in a business English course and the authors compared frequency and accuracy of lexico-grammatical features in the production of students who chose to complete the pre-task activities with those who did not, as part of a wider research programme into the effectiveness of task-based language teaching with this population. The study was complicated by the high drop-out rate common in certain French undergraduate programmes, as well as the wide range of features included in the intervention. This third section of the volume reminds readers of the sheer variety and complexity of ESP contexts and the correspondingly broad spectrum of dimensions in need of attention, from needs analysis to pedagogical resources and teaching activities.

4. Conclusion

In our view, this collection of studies raises questions of relevance to the field of ESP teaching and learning research with reference to three main areas: (1) the balance of content and language aspects of ESP teaching; (2) factors related to ESP learners and second language learning; and (3) issues of research design and methodology. The debate about how best to coordinate the development of disciplinary knowledge and the linguistic means to express it is far from over, and several language practitioners in this volume offer suggestions in this respect. Birch-Bécaas and Hoskins note their difficulties as language instructors in drawing students' attention away from disciplinary information toward linguistic form, as well as their students' appreciation of content instructors' efforts to 'play the game' and use English to help create a natural context for language practice. Franklin-Landi voices a common concern among language instructors regarding their own legitimacy in a domain where they cannot claim content expertise, and sees specialised fiction as a kind of third space where errors committed by non-specialist writers and actors provide both motivation and resources for fruitful discussion in the target language.

Second, a number of chapters in this book address issues related to learners and language learning which are not specific to ESP. Many of the studies investigate attitudinal questions related to motivation and stress in the language classroom, and several also touch on problems of poor attendance and high drop-out rates. The complexity of these issues has led some to CDS as a suitable framework for accommodating a range of variables in a systematic manner (Labetoulle; Schug & Le Cor). Others have sought to gauge learner views of particular teaching and learning activities via questionnaires and interviews (Beaupoil-Hourdel et al.; Birch-Bécaas & Hoskins; Franklin-Landi; Milosevic) to support students in progressive approaches to new competencies, such as critical reading of research (Beaupoil-Hourdel et al., Birch-Bécaas & Hoskins), awareness-raising of specificities of genre (Johnson), or simply to anticipate absenteeism in research design (Starkey-Perret et al.).

Finally, the studies in this volume have highlighted a number of challenges inherent in classroom research at this level. A number of chapters reported on

research designs based on experimental and control groups and providing quantitative analysis of student performance (Milosevic; Fries; Starkey-Perret et al.). In each case it proved difficult to establish clear-cut statistically significant intergroup differences, once again highlighting the complex teaching and learning situations experienced by many ESP practitioner-researchers. We might expect the way forward to lie with interdisciplinary teams combining linguistic and statistical experience, controlling for more variables and perhaps also sharing instruments. It is no doubt important, too, to measure not only language accuracy but also complexity and fluency as essential components of communicative competence and indicators of interlanguage development.

In conclusion, the chapters in this collection remind us of the inseparable nature of pedagogy and didactics. While ‘researched pedagogy’ (Bygate, 2005; Bygate et al., 2001) might appear at first sight a contradiction in terms, we hope we have made the argument for both more research-informed practice and more practice-driven research. Research in ESP teaching and learning has often been criticised for a lack of theoretical underpinning, making findings difficult to generalise to new contexts (Sarré, 2017), or for lack of applicability to actual language teaching (Master, 2005; Widdowson, 2017). The present volume attempts to address these criticisms by building on previous research, reporting on a variety of contexts, and representing a range of theoretical frameworks and methods. Results are reported with an emphasis on applicability in order to strengthen links between didactics and pedagogy, and to suggest future directions likely to benefit practitioners and researchers alike. In this way, despite the inescapably specific contexts of our studies, and other limitations on their generalisability, this collection encapsulates current trends and new developments in ESP teaching and learning research in Europe and we hope makes a small but valuable contribution to the field of ESP didactics.

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Section 1.

Laying the groundwork: needs analysis, programme design, and course development



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Teaching English Language in Ecuador: A Review from the Inclusive Educational Approach

Karen Yhomaly Macías Mosquera¹, Jhonny Saulo Villafuerte Holguín, PhD.²

ABSTRACT

The inclusive education in Ecuador presents relevant advances during the century XXI. However, the information available regarding English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching-learning process in students with Special Educational Need (SEN) suggest the revision of the government policy from the inclusive approach for contributing to the improvement of the current teaching practice. The research aims analyzing government policy for education with an emphasis on instruction of EFL in students with disabilities for the period 1912 to 2020. This work begins with the identification of the current Ecuadorian inclusive education policy, besides the revision of previous laws regarding to the instruction of English as a Foreign Language in this country. The information obtained through the documental analysis contrasts the data emerging through contextualized observation process and semi-structured interviews applied to stakeholders from two public universities located in the province of Manabí during 2019. As a result it is exposed a chronologically systematization chart regarding the evolution of Ecuadorian education policy in which is possible to identify the key inclusive education advances and setbacks in the area of EFL. The conclusions ratified the necessity to strengthen from the inclusive approach the Ecuadorian government policies for the instruction of English as a Foreign Language of learner's with Special Educational Needs.

Keywords: Ecuador, English as a foreign language, inclusive education, government policies.

JEL Classification: I21, I24, I28, O3, Z13.

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Note: This work subscribes to the ULEAM research Project titled: Los juegos creativos para optimizar el desarrollo del equilibrio de niñas y niños de educación básica 2018-2020. Etapa III: Difusión y transferencia de resultados.

¹Student of the Program PINE at the Universidad Laica Eloy Alfaro de Manabí, Ecuador

²Professor of the Program PINE at the Universidad Laica Eloy Alfaro de Manabí, Ecuador

Contact: jhonny.villafuerte@uleam.edu.ec - Facultad Ciencias de la Educación. Carrera PINE. Universidad Laica Eloy Alfaro de Manabí. Av. Circunvalación s/n. Manta-Ecuador.

1. Introduction

The presence of students with physical and sensory disabilities in the regular educational system has been increased around the world as a result of promoting the principle "school for all". Actions aimed at the work of inclusion mark a milestone on a global level in 2008, the year when UNESCO presented the definition of the term "educational inclusion" to refer to the strategy for responding to the needs that any student could have (UNESCO, 2008a). It refers to a process that promotes the participation of all people as an active part of a culture and community, free of any kind of restrictions, prejudices, and forms of exclusion. However, Varela (2010) sustains, the implementation of educational standards for improving the quality and equality of education in Latin American and Caribbean countries have demanded high exigencies to public and private educational institutions, teachers, parents, and students.

At the beginning of the 21st century, educational processes in Ecuador were characterized by the function of "integration" and the priority was increasing the access to educational services to the greatest number of people (Bravo, Villafuerte, and Ormaza (2013)). However, there were no exact figures regarding the number of students with disabilities in this country until 2006, because parents preferred to hide their family members with a disability as a form of protection.

The Constitution of the Republic self-recognized to Ecuador as a multicultural and inclusive nation in 2008. Thus, the Organic Law for Higher Education (LOES), the Organic Law for Intercultural Education (LOEI), and the Organic Law of disabilities (CONADIS) are the most important laws related to social and economic inclusion in this country. The net of national institutions in charge of the administration of these government policies are the Ministry of Economic and Social Inclusion (MIES) and the Ministry of Education (ME). However, researchers as Villafuerte, Bravo, and Corral (2015); and Andrews, Walton, and Osman (2019), agree government policies have allowed the improvement of the access of students with special educational needs (SEN) from elementary to university classrooms around the world. However, teaching practices and local inclusive culture still require the support of the educational research for analyzing the advances and implications of the inclusive education in this context (Corral, Bravo, Villafuerte, 2015; Villafuerte, Luzardo, Bravo, and Romero, 2017).

It is extremely important to study in depth the teaching-learning process of English as a foreign language in students who have special educational needs (SEN) linked to the visual or the auditory disability besides, those who have special educational needs not linked to disability such as Dyslectic, Asperger, autism, etc. Thus, foreign language centers and institutes have not enough experience in the administration of adaptations for teaching to learners with SEN but, the first step for the improvement begins at the revision of the government policy for education but, from the inclusive approach.

The motivations of the authors are: (1) To contribute on the improvement of the quality of education system in Ecuador; and (2) To propose the revision of the governmental policies related to the instruction of English as a foreign language to students with SEN.

This research manages documentary research techniques to analyze the evolution of government policy in concern to the education in Ecuador. As a result, this work presents the main aspects that characterize the educational policies respect to English as a foreign language teaching and learning for the period 1900 to 2020. The results confirm that it is necessary to review the government policy to advance in the construction of a more equality, inclusive and progressive society.

2. Methodology

This study articulates the critical and the right approaches to the analysis of the Ecuadorian laws related to EFL instruction of students in a condition of disability. This research applies the documentary review techniques and the qualitative research approach to determine the current situation of EFL teaching and the learning of students in disability conditions in Manabí-Ecuador in 2020.

2.1 The participants

Participants are the director of a university Foreign Language center, three Manabi university professors, five elementary and five secondary EFL teachers. All of them accepted voluntarily the invitation to participate in this research. They are key informants because of their work experience and their present and past knowledge about EFL teaching in Ecuador.

2.2 Instruments and process applied

- The documentary review: It includes the review of (a) Ecuadorian organic laws; and (b) academic articles specialized in EFL teaching, in which the evolution of government policy is a key factor. This information is analyzed with the informatics program Atlas.ti. Version 07.
- The observation procedure: The observation includes five public and three private schools, and a private and two public universities, located in Manabí, Ecuador. The instrument administrated belongs to Aguado and Real (2011). This instrument collects information about physical, didactic and social factors for inclusive education in higher education.
- The interview: A semi-structured interview format was designed by the research team ad hoc., to collect the perceptions of EFL center directors and university teachers about the progress and limitation of the application of the governmental policies for EFL teaching and learning since the educational inclusion.

The original version of the interview instrument consisted of 12 questions. After the experts' judgment, the final version of the questionnaire included 10 questions to aboard the categories (i) Access to the EFL instruction; (ii) Governmental policies applied in the centers; (iii) Teaching methodologies; and (iv) adaptations. The experts invited to this instrument validation work in the Faculty of Education of the ULEAM university in Manta, Ecuador. They are researchers in EFL instruction, curriculum design, and educational inclusion.

2.3 Study phases

Phase 1. Documentary analysis of the Ecuadorian current governmental policy for inclusive education.

Phase 2. Revision of the governmental policy for EFL evolution applying the inclusive approach for the period 1912 to 2020.

Phase 3. The description of the current situation of EFL teaching and learning process for the inclusive education in higher education in Manabí, Ecuador.

3. Results

3.1 Phase 1. The documentary analysis of the Ecuadorian current governmental policy for inclusive education

The documents considered in the analysis of the Ecuadorian government policy for the Education with inclusive approach are: (a) The constitution of the Republic of Ecuador (CRE, 2008); (b) The Organic Law of Higher Education (LOES) (2010); (c) The Organic Law of Intercultural Education (LOEI) (2011); and (d) The academic regime of higher education in Ecuador (reformulation 2019).

(a) The constitution of the Republic of Ecuador (CRE, 2008): In 2008, it is writing the new Constitution of the Republic of Ecuador. The chapters 47, 48 and 49 indicate regulations aimed at the protection of persons with disabilities. These laws propose the promotion of an inclusive society that facilitates access to development opportunities, especially to populations considered vulnerable. The main issues to attend are access to health, education, and employment as basic aspects of human development (Pinoargote, 2019).

From the Constitution of Ecuador (2008), the title II. Citizenship rights, the article 11th. is considered essential to be translated to the English language for this analysis:

Art. 11th. All people are equal and will enjoy the same rights and opportunities. No one may be discriminated against because their ethnicity, place of birth, age, sex, gender identity, cultural identity, marital status, language, religion, ideology, political affiliation, judicial past, socio-economic status, immigration status, sexual orientation, status health, carrying HIV, disability, physical difference, or any other distinction, personal or collective, temporary or permanent, whose purpose or result is to impair or cancel the recognition or exercise of rights. (translation of the authors, 2020).

(b) The Organic Law of Higher Education (2010)

Regarding access to higher education, the LOES determines the obligation to facilitate access for students with disabilities to strengthen professional skills and promote their successful entry into the labor market (Pinoargote, 2019). It insists on responding to the need to improve equipment,

infrastructure, and quality in educational services and extend these conditions to learning and work environments.

In the Organic Law of Higher Education (2010) is established every university student must credit level B2 of the CEFR before completing higher studies. However, in the LOES reform of 2019, the level to accredit at the end of higher studies should be minimum B1 according to CEFR. At this point, Villafuerte, Pérez, Boyes, Mena, Pinoargote, Riera, Soledispa, and Delgado (2018) sustain that, adaptations are still a challenge to improve in the whole educational system in Ecuador.

(c) The Organic Law of Intercultural Education (2011): In 2011, it is approved the Organic Law of Intercultural Education (LOEI). This law seeks integration and educational inclusion, and it is centered on the right of access to quality education (Pinoargote, 2019). Article 47th. is considered essential to be translated to the English language for this analysis:

In the reforms submitted to the LOEI in 2015, to guarantee the quality of elementary and secondary education in Ecuador, among the current requirements for entering as a teacher of EFL appear: the presentation of an international certification that guarantees mastery of English language communication skills at level B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference of the Language (CEFR, 2002).

Other requirements according to article 94 and literals a, b, c, d, e, f of the LOEI appear: teacher must (a) Be an Ecuadorian citizen or foreigner legally resident in the Republic of Ecuador; (b) Have citizenship rights, possess one of the titles indicated in the LOEI; (c) Have completed the year of rural service compulsory teacher, in the pertinent cases; (d) Be in the registry of eligible candidates; (e) Participate and win in the corresponding merits and opposition contests to fill the vacancies of the tax system.

(d) The academic regime of higher education in Ecuador (2019).

It was reformulated in 2019. In the article 5th., The focus on rights in higher education is the foundation that guides the policies, programs, and plans in the process of specific and preferential affirmative actions towards the priority attention of vulnerable groups of the students' population.

Article 5th., The rights with equity approach prioritizes such care for vulnerable people and groups: women, peoples and nationalities, children and youth, older adults, people with disabilities, diverse people due to identity by sex, gender, and sexual orientation, the approach of populations at risk of health, among others (Translated by the authors, 2020).

In the article number 85th. about the evaluation of the learning in students with disabilities and/or special educational needs, norm:

Article No. 85th. The Higher Education Institutions should develop affirmative actions, programs, and plans for educational inclusion; in which methodologies, teaching-learning environments must be considered; evaluation methods and instruments that favor universal access. (Translated by the authors, 2020).

In the event be necessary to make non-significant curricular adaptations to meet the requirements of students with special educational needs, associated or not with disabilities, the mechanisms of adaptation of the teaching-learning and evaluation processes must be: (i) Scheduled before starting the corresponding academic period; (ii) Timely communicated to students; and, (iii) Pedagogical monitoring of students regarding their progress during the training process.

3.2 Phase 2. Revision of the governmental policy for EFL evolution applying the inclusive approach for the period 1912 to 2020

From the revision of the Ecuadorian government policies are extracted the key elements that characterizes the evolution of the instruction of English as a foreign language during the period 1912-2020. The analysis is developed applying the inclusive approach. See table 1.

Table 1.

Government policies evolution for English Language Teaching in Ecuador 2012-2020

Periods	Outstanding elements about EFL teaching and learning
1912-1929.	English language teaching was introduced in Ecuador in 1912. The training of English teachers begins with the first University Program in languages founded at the Central University of Ecuador in 1928, in Quito city. However, Aurelia Palmieri became the first woman authorized to study Medicine at

the University of Guayaquil, through a presidential decree, dated July 1, 1895. The main problem detected for EFL instruction during this period was the lack of qualified teachers. It means teachers with the domain of the English language, and didactics for the properly administrating the teaching process. Other problems for EFL instruction were related to the book and didactic material availability, laboratories, and specialized libraries.

1930-1969. In the 1930s, laws regarding the administration of education launched a curriculum focused on urban education of a religious nature, even the Laica movement (promotion of the freedom of belief). The expected results for education had a Catholic cessation, and that did not cover the development needs of that time (British Council, 2015).

In this period, many laws for the improvement of education were passed, but the English language became an official subject in the national secondary school curriculum after 1950. Reforms to the education system focused on mathematics and reading in the Spanish language began. The government signed many agreements for improving national education that were not finally implemented. However, new language programs were opened in Guayaquil, Cuenca and Portoviejo universities. None of these programs was approved, which caused the graduates of the various universities to have very different professional profiles. Besides, those programs were not articulated (Villafuerte, 2019).

1970-1980. Educational programs improved access to public education in Ecuador between the 1970s and 1980s. The expectation in the population regarding education increased. Illiteracy was reduced through adult literacy programs financed by coffee and oil exportation.

In the late 1980s, due to the change in the economic model, the government declined the investment in education. The quality of education fell. Dropout rates increased and enrollment stagnated. Rural education was almost eliminated. Teachers in rural areas were scarce, and urban areas often lacked didactic training. However, teachers were protected by the National Union of Educators (UNE). This became the greatest political force of the 80s, which demanded higher salaries and greater job security for teachers.

1981-1990 During the early 1980s with the emergence of the Communicative Teaching Approach, EFL in universities throughout the world focused on the development of the four language skills and gave to students the possibility of using the language in different contexts (Richards, 2006). However, EFL teaching in Ecuador ratified the Grammar Focus Methodology or Traditional teaching centered on the grammar and translation process in public education. Such a situation contrasts with the EFL instruction in private schools where 20 hours were taught in English, while public education school used only one or two hours per week. English teaching became one of the prominent elements for the trade of educational services during the 80s in private schools. That circumstance generated important social gaps around the access and knowledge of EFL in this country. In 1990 EFL program was not a mandatory subject in Ecuador. Therefore, the education program in which it is inserted was assumed as a project in the test stage (British council, 2015).

1991-2000. The free market economy in the 1990s showed that graduates were not adequate to respond to the industrial and commercial progress of that time. One of the government policies was to improve access to quality education. Educational reforms that again focused on language, mathematics, and technical secondary education were funded and implemented at the beginning of these ten years. However, Bruns and Luque (2015) sustain that the education system in Ecuador reduced the spending dropping from close to 3 percent of GDP to around 1 percent of GDP between 1999 to 2000. Besides, Ecuador declined to participate in the first UNESCO regional learning assessment (LLECE) in 1999.

From 1993 was executed the project called Curricular Reform for the Development of the Learning English or Curriculum Reform and Development for the Learning of English (CRADLE), promoted for the Ecuadorian Ministry of Education and the British Council. This project's general purposes were: the implementation of a new English curriculum that responds to the guidelines established in the Common European Framework of Reference for Teaching, Learning, and Evaluation of Foreign Languages (CEFR); The national distribution of English free text aligned to the new curriculum. Besides, it included the creation of a six-texts-collection called "Our World Through English". The innovation of those texts was the introduction of social studies centered on Ecuador reality but through the English language (Calle, Argudo, Cabrera, Calle, and Leon, 2015).

In this project participated 1,200,000 students and their teachers from school periods 1993-1994 to 1998-1999 (Villafuerte, 2019). Despite the innovations introduced for the CRADLE project, the performance of English language learners was still poor. However, Calle et al. (2012) argue that the CRADLE project was the first relevant attempt to improve the process of English language learning in Ecuador, during the period 1993-2000.

2000-2010. EFL learning gave people access to different cultures, value systems, and businesses through educational technology. Ecuador had problems to sustain the educational system during this period. 14% of teachers were absent from school on an average day. Besides, teachers were present in schools only 62% of the expected time in early 2003 (Bruns and Luque 2015).

In 2005, it was already possible to carry out post-degree studies in the field of EFL in private universities in Ecuador, but there were still few opportunities for practicing with native-speaking people. Also, the absence of underutilization of language laboratories in some universities was evident, while in other centers there were no specialized libraries or classrooms to receive the entire student body. Ecuador reported some of the lowest scores in Latin America in the second regional assessment (SERCE) in 2006 (Cevallos and Bramwell 2015). The Plan Decenal de Educación (PDE) The Ten-year Educational Plan was approved by referendum in November 2006 (Araujo and Bramwell 2015). The main policy goals tent to expand the equalitarian access to education: (1) Universal early childhood education; (2) Universal basic education; (3) Increasing upper secondary enrollment to 75 percent; and (4) Eradicating illiteracy and improving adult education. Besides. Three measures focused on quality: (5) improve infrastructure and equipment; (6) Improve education quality and equity, and (7) Enhance the prestige of the teaching career and the quality of teacher training. The final goal was (8) commitment to raise spending on K-12 education by 0.5 percent of GDP annually until it reached 6 percent of GDP" (Ross, Cevallos, & Bruns, 2017, p.7). In 2006, more than 1 billion people around the world were employed for the business that uses the English language in their communication is a reason to include EFL command as a factor to increase the population competitiveness. The English language is officially taught in private and public educational establishments in Ecuadorian nationwide (Tuiran and Avila, 2012). The teaching methodologies differ from one country to another, and even within the same country, depending on the learners' interests. UNESCO (2008b) warn that learning a foreign language is part of an intercultural education promoting the understanding between worldwide communities and nations. According to Agreement No. 00001504 of the Ecuadorian Ministry of Culture and Education, Article 2nd., in 2000 the EFL instruction became an elective subject from the first to seventh years of primary school having the facilities and staff to teach the language. However, the national curricular framework of primary schools was not modified immediately (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2000).

In December 2009, the Ministry of Education launched a new curricular framework for primary schools. Its structure included the aforementioned elective subject (UNESCO, 2011).

In conclusion, during the period 2000 and 2010, EFL was an elective subject and, based on the available resources, school authorities decided whether to include English in their schools or not (Soto, Intrriago, Vargas, Cajamarca, Cardenas, Fabre, Bravo, Morales, Villafuerte, 2017).

Public schools increase EFL teaching from 3 to 5 hours/week. During this period the educational system has been largely privatized however, teachers qualification remains as a problem (Calle, Argudo, Cabrera, Calle, and Leon, 2015). The government implements the quality controls of education and the private educational institution reporting problems are closed; the same process is implemented for higher education institutions that not meet accreditation standards (Ramirez, 2013).

2011-2020.

In August 2011 the Ministry of Education of Ecuador presented the Agreement 306-11. This agreement added to the 3 hours week for EFL classes, two more periods to the elective subject in primary schools. As complementary subjects, teachers could choose among EFL instruction and Computer use (Ministry of Education, 2011).

These new regulations demanded to incorporate qualified teachers that were not available in the public primary education system (Soto et al., 2017).

In March 2014 the Ministry of Education of Ecuador presented the Agreement 0041-14. This agreement caused a national controversy because it established a new curricular framework for elementary education which did not include EFL teaching in primary schools.

Those academic hours/classes assigned for complementary subjects included EFL were excluded from second to the seventh grade of Elementary education. Thus, the academic hours for Clubs were included. Students could use those extracurricular activities concerning cultural, artistic, sporting, scientific, and social interaction matters (Ministry of education, 2014a).

In the same year 2014, the Ministry of Education presented the Agreement 0052-14. This agreement attended the Regulations Exploitation of the Transitory Disposition Included which stated that EFL teaching would be mandatory for public, religion-driven, and private institutions from the second grade of primary school to the last year of high school (Ministry of education, 2014b).

This agreement was implemented from the 2016-2017 school year for the Sierra and Amazon regions, and from 2017-2018 school year for the coast region (Ministry of education, 2014c) Principals of public elementary schools appealed to their district administrators to assign qualified English teachers, but they were not available (Ramírez, 2013).

To cover the qualifies teacher demand was run the project “It is time to teach in Ecuador”. This project recruited volunteer professionals who hold a B2 accreditation to teach in public schools (Ministry of education, 2016).

The university programs for training EFL teachers have been submitted to the process of evaluation and accreditation of universities and polytechnic schools implemented by CEAACES in 2011 and after 2019 by CACES in Ecuador.

Between 2014-2016 the students had competed for the scarce quotas in four emblematic national universities: JACHAY University, University of the Arts, National University of Education UNAE and IKIAM University (Ramirez, 2016).

The teacher training programs in foreign languages at the rest of national and private universities in Ecuador restarted the opening of the courses in 2017 with the new curriculum design and with the homologated name: Pedagogy of National and Foreign Languages (PINE).

EFL teaching in public primary schools was not a priority. Economic, social, political, and educational forces (Villafuerte, 2019). Thus, EFL has passed from being an elective subject, as it was first introduced in 2000, to become a complementary activity after 2012 and compulsory after 2016.

The Ecuadorian ministry of Education developed proficiency and assessment requirements, training for EFL teachers, the design of a new curriculum, the establishment of learning and teaching standards, among other things. They would occur after a language proficiency evaluation administered to both students and teachers in 2009 (Soto et al., 2017)

The Ministry of Education runs a project for strengthening of the EFL teaching. The aim to improve the language skills of English teachers as well as their teaching practice. Among the general objectives of the project, we can mention the following: the implementation of a new English curriculum that responds to the guidelines established in the Common European Framework of Reference for Teaching, Learning, and Evaluation of Foreign Languages (CEFR, 2002), distribution English free text aligned to the new curriculum, the creation and implementation of a new evaluation system based on evidence standardized for English teachers in teaching practice and, also, for those who wish to enter the public education sector, and the organization of a permanent professional development system, which included training abroad called Go Teacher program (Ministry of Education, 2016b).

Standard of English Teaching in Ecuador

Ecuador sets the standards of EFL teaching in 2014. These should be worked mainly by the authorities of the schools and teachers of the subject. (1) Language proficiency involves the development of the communicative skills of English teachers at the level of reading, writing, listening and speaking in the target language (2) Mastery of the Anglo-Saxon culture to ensure that teachers know, understand and use in the lessons. (3) Mastery of the curriculum demonstrates that teachers know, understand and use practices and strategies for planning, implementation, and management of standards-based on English and its instructional content. (4) Mastery of the evaluation procedures and the application of the measurement of students' communication skills in English. (5) Mastery and ethical commitment, updating of knowledge for the management of teaching techniques, research results, advances in the field of English as a foreign language and educational policy issues around the teaching of foreign languages (Páez, 2013).

Program:

Go teacher. 2016-2018

Program Go Teacher:

This governmental program aims to improve to B2 the teachers' current English language level through an intensive training program; and the organization of a permanent professional development system, which included training at English speaking countries (Ministry of education, 2016).

The Ecuadorian Secretary for Science and Technology (SENESCYT) executed this program in anglo speaking countries, but also teachers learned teaching methodologies in one the best universities of the United States and Jamaica.

To Ramírez (2010; 2013) this program intends to improve the English language teaching and learning in Ecuadorian public and private schools and colleges, as a national project to improve the educational quality, but also the social inclusion in Ecuador.

They are 112 Ecuadorian teachers already benefited from this program.

English Language Teacher's Standards

The Ecuadorian In-Service English Language Teacher Standards are based on the document developed by the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) as the organization's K-12 ESL Teacher Standards (2009) which is widely used in countries such as Albania, Paraguay, and the United States. This document

is organized into five domains that fit with those stated for the general curriculum and of some which are related to English language teaching and learning.

Language domain: It includes specific domains for language structure and communication, language acquisition, and development and language fluency.

Multicultural domain: Ecuador is a multicultural country (Republic of Ecuador, 2008). Ecuadorean students speak Spanish, and a certain number speak Kichwa. Therefore, Ecuadorean English teachers should know about different cultures and the possible impact learning a third language can cause.

Curriculum Development domain: Aspects related to planning for standards-based English, implementing and managing standards, and using resources and technology effectively for improving and innovating their classes.

Assessment domain: The gathering and evaluation of information related to English language learning includes the issues involved for learners as well as those related to language proficiency and classroom-based assessment.

Professionalism and Ethical commitment: This intend Teachers keep updated on the new instructional techniques, research results, and advances in the English teaching field for professional development.

New curriculum
of EFL teaching
2016.

The English Teaching Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2016) recommends implementing the communicative approach. It proposes to develop the communicative skills (a) listening, (b) speaking, (c) reading, and (d) writing, and the evaluation according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Thus, the EFL teaching begins in the second grade of basic education of the public education system and continues progressively to the university, where learners should reach at least level B1 of the CEFR.

The Ministry of Education of Ecuador and the teacher training institutions work to strengthen the capacities of current teachers to obtain the level of knowledge of English required. From the academy, they work on the design of training processes that expose students as much as possible to the EFL practice.

The curriculum proposal includes the instruction for students in 2nd to 10th grade of Basic General Education and 1st to 3rd of Unified General Baccalaureate or high school. This curriculum considers that the Ecuadorean population is made up of groups of different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Thus, there are varying degrees of bilingualism in the Ecuadorean communities.

In this curriculum, EFL teaching focus in real-world contexts. It is expected that high school students be independent users of the English language at the end of their studies. The curriculum applies the internationally recognized levels and teaching processes for language learning (CEFR)

It is expected students reach level B1 of the CEFR in English and have developed the 4 language skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing in 400 hours.

The curricular proposal is flexible and includes 5 blocks aligned with the output profile and the values of justice, innovation and solidarity that it promotes, as well as with the Common Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

Students must have at least level A2 when entering to graduate after 4 years with a level B1. Those who want to become English teachers must graduate from the university at least with the B2 level.

Develop students' understanding of the world, of other cultures and of their own and their ability to communicate their views through the foreign language.

Develop the personal, social and intellectual skills necessary to reach their potential and participate productively in an increasingly globalized world that operates in other languages.

Create a love for language learning from an early age, through interesting and positive learning experiences, to foster student motivation to continue learning.

Source: authors (2020).

The efforts for introducing EFL as a formal subject in the secondary started in 1992-1993 with the implementation of CRADLE, and later on with the Project Advance (the EFL teaching project that replaced CRADLE in 2012). However, it was not the case for EFL in elementary schools. The previous periods included EFL only in private because, they had the resources and qualified teachers. However the first program for training EFL Teachers was in 1930 in Central University in Quito city and soon other programs were opened in Guayaquil city, Cuenca, and Manabí.

In the past, there was not much support from education stakeholders to include English in public elementary schools. As shown in the curriculum approved in 1996. EFL was not taught in the kindergarten and Elementary school (UNESCO, 2011). During the decade of the 1990s, the educational system in Ecuador collapsed and it was very difficult to sustain the educational programs. Rural schools were abandoned, reopening the differences between urban and rural education, and reducing the access to the opportunities with equality in this country. How to expect EFL teaching to be considered as a priority when even teachers do not attend to schools?

The reform of 2006 established a path to recover the educational institutions, improving the investing in education, and innovation of the Ecuadorian education system. Teachers were supported to be updated, training and accredited for EFL teaching. Besides, the program “Go Teacher” helped EFL teachers from public and private institutions to obtain the EFL teachers certification.

The current EFL curriculum in Ecuador recognizes that not all students in this country are Spanish language speakers, and there are varying degrees of bilingualism because the population linguistic and culturally diversity. This curriculum presents a justification and a framework for learning English while recognizing and facilitating the educational inclusion of students, regardless of their mother tongue.

These are five domains that include the teachers' standards as English language, curriculum, target language culture, evaluation, and professional ethics; therefore, the training of the English language teachers in Manabí must make adjustments to achieve the required professional profile. This challenge must be accompanied by socio-educational research projects to propose specific and innovative teaching. The application of standardized tests used to assess levels of knowledge of the English language generates anxiety and other forms of stress in students and teachers who must pass them.

3.3 Phase 3. The description of the current situation of EFL teaching and learning process for the inclusive education in higher education in Manabí, Ecuador

The stakeholders' voices in concern to the inclusive education for the instruction of English as a foreign language in Ecuador are exposed in the table 2.

Table 2.

Government policies evolution for English Language Teaching in Ecuador 2012-2020

Categories	Questions	Evidences
Government policy	What public policies influence the procedures in your language institute or center?	E1: 0:11. Regarding the English teaching standards, we apply what the Common European Framework of Reference of the language dictates in the English teaching process.
Teaching methodologies	1.2. What teaching methodologies do teachers apply?	E1: 0:39. Methodologies as CLIL, TBP, TBL, are applied by all teachers in this center. It is not considered as public policy, but teachers use the methodology according to the topic to study, groups characteristic with which they work.
English levels knowledge of university students	1.3. What are the levels of English proficiency that university students must reach in your center before completing their	E1: 1:13 “novel B2 was previously required, but, it was changed to level B1 because it was almost utopian to think that it would reach that level, but now there are 5 levels of English with 6 hours per week for 16 weeks gives us 350 hours that empower level B1”

Policies on inclusive education	studies? 2.1. What policies on inclusive education does your center have?	EI 2:04. "At least in the group we are in the idea of creating such policies. We take into account when students have a disability and participate in classes. What was done before was that if the student had a disability, it was approved directly. But now they are talking about taking another kind of preparation for them".
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Source: authors (2020).

Interview to stakeholders from two public Ecuadorian universities.

4. Discussion and implications

In concern to the current knowledge of English language of the Ecuadorian population, the Education First agency published in 2019 that, the Ecuadorian citizens' coverage has a poor level of English language knowledge and very poor attitudes for learning it. Thus, Ecuador is on position 81 of the 100 countries evaluated in 2019 (EF, 2019). Besides, other EFL evaluations applied in 2012 to high schools students in Cuenca city (Calle, Calle, Argudo, Moscoso, Smith, and Cabrera, 2012), besides, the results showed in the exams applied in the University of Guayaquil in 2019 (Intriago, Villafuerte, Bello, and Cevallos, 2019), All those tests ratify Ecuadorian students reached the average level A1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) even the expectation according to the national curriculum which sets B1 at the end of the higher education (Ministry of Education, 2016).

To Education First (2018) inequalities in access to educational services is perhaps the main challenge to overcome in Latin American countries where foreign language instruction is not equal for all. In consequence, most of the Ecuadorian students at the beginning of their higher education do not have the required level of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Thus, this research is centered in the review of the Ecuadorian policies related to the instruction of English as a foreign language but, applying the inclusive approach because, the current normative has no any adaptation to work with students having special educational needs.

The review of the governmental policy for EFL instruction with an inclusive approach allows to sustain that:

The inclusive educational approach involves a process of systemic reforms on the building, institutional organization, communicative principles, content adaptations, teaching methodologies, etc. (Corral et al., 2015). The purpose of inclusive education is to provide all students with the best learning environment which offers equitable and participatory learning experiences (Alcívar and Rodríguez-Hidalgo, 2019). Thus, educational institutions are still the main spaces to promote the attitudes for the creation of the wished, nondiscriminatory, and equitable society in the present and future citizenship (Villafuerte et al, 2017).

Government policy for EFL teaching and learning set new challenges around accessibility to quality education services at all educational levels (Intriago et al., 2019). However, Rodríguez-Hidalgo, Pantaleón, and Calmaestra (2019) sustain the appropriate learning environments should achieve the feeling of attachment and belonging in every student. Thus, Information about the ESL performance of Ecuadorian students with sensorial disabilities conditions such as visual and auditive deficits is not visible.

This is the circumstance that motivates this research authors for contributing to the study of the government policies for ESL evolution in Ecuador since the inclusive approach.

4.1 Government policy for education

Between the years 1912-1950 is almost absent the inclusive approach in the educational system in Ecuador. During that period to study in any institution of the public system was a privilege of the urban aristocratic population. The teaching of English as a foreign language was scarce during this period due to the lack of qualified teachers; a situation that had been maintained during the period 1951-1970 when the expansion of educational services to rural communities was arranged. This is

perhaps the second more important evidence of inclusive education in Ecuador, after the right of education for women around 1815.

The decade 1981-1990 was a period in which progress was made in improving the quality of education, especially in the teaching of national language Spanish. and mathematical language. The first level of inclusion appears when the government policy emphasizing access to education in rural sectors. Here, however, there is no talk about the inclusion of students with physical, sensory or intellectual disabilities. Nor is the sexual diversity of students addressed.

The period 1991-2000 was a stage of regression in Ecuadorian education, having reduced the investment directed towards education that caused the abandonment of rural education, and the growth of the teachers' union demanding salary improvements and working conditions. However, it is during this decade that the CRADLE project is executed, considered as the main effort made to improve EFL learning teaching. Here, however, it is no clear attention to learners with the condition of disability.

At the beginning of the century and after a popular consultation, the educational reform in Ecuador has begun, which has allowed, from the new Constitution of the Republic of Ecuador (CRE, 2008), to generate a legal framework that contemplates the fulfillment of national commitments regarding the care of students with disabilities in Ecuador.

4.2 Inclusive education in Ecuador

A chronological fact related to the inclusive education in Ecuador reveals that:

Before the decade 1990-2000, the presence of students in a condition of disability in primary and secondary schools was nil. At the beginning of the century XXI, the presence of students with any disability in elementary school was a minority, and almost non-existent at the higher education.

In 2005, the population with disabilities in Ecuador exceeded one million six hundred thousand inhabitants. 23.8% of this group attended to any of the public or private schools of the Ecuadorian educational system, but 37.9% failed to complete the elementary education; and the illiteracy rate reached 56.8% of the population (the Republic of Ecuador, 2005).

In 2010, the Manuela Espejo Foundation presents the results of the census of the population with disabilities in Ecuador. It reported more than 2 million people under any disability conditions. In 2011, the National Disability Council (CONADIS) is created, having a mission to improve the attention of people with disabilities in Ecuador. The Organic Law of Intercultural Education (LOEI) is quoted as art. 47th which establish that every person without any kind of reason cannot be segregated from the educational services because education is a right. See as follows:

Art. 47th. All establishments are obliged to receive all persons with disabilities and to create the physical, curricular and promotional support and adaptations appropriate to their SEN Special Educational needs.

At this point, scholars as Corral et al., (2015) argue, the relevant changes also require the commitment of the population to assume the challenges that link educational inclusion to communities.

In 2020 students with disabilities and their families are present in almost every public and private educational institution in Ecuador. However, the educational system requires the investment to develop didactics and equipment to improve their attention.

4.3 The EFL curriculum in Ecuador

In 2010-2016 relevant elements that contribute to the improvement of EFL instruction had been run. The Ecuadorian EFL curriculum establishes the fulfillment of the English language levels according to the common European framework of reference of the language that must be fulfilled at the end of the basic, secondary and university education; but, there is no an adaptation of these levels for students who have sensory disabilities: auditory, visual, or intellectual. Those Standardized tests in their traditional formats are written in which one of the response options that the evaluated considers as correct is marked on a form. In the first versions of standardized tests applied by a computer, the keyboard was required to enter the answer to the question. In more updated versions, a tutorial is presented that explains with images and sounds the steps to answer the questions. Digital forms are presented in which high accuracy is required to activate the selected response, sometimes it is used in a mouse to drag a locker and place it in the exact place where the response should go.

Disabilities cause many problems in learners who suffer from it and in their family, school, community. It is a pathology of multiple causes, heterogeneous, diagnosis and complex management. In Ecuador school students with disabilities face controversies, misdiagnosis, improper prescription, bulling, even the risk of excessive use of medications.

4.4 Strategies for advancing to the inclusive education

To improve the inclusive approach in the EFL classes, some routes in the teaching practices could be applied from Elementary to higher education in Ecuador:

To increase the integration and inclusion of students with Special Educational Needs (SEN) for the development of their social language skills in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) having as purpose improve their professional and citizenship competencies as productive members of the society.

Strengthen children's education to overcome SEN for improving their learning and concentration abilities. Applying the most appropriate means for more individualized training during daily classes with the support of a teacher, established in the classroom the most suitable planning, organization and conditions to ensure individuals with SEN do develop their comprehension.

To minimize the adverse effects that certain behaviors can have of the children with SEN, derived from their conditions. Impulsivity, self-control, or disruptive behaviors for being exposed to extended periods of discomfort and inappropriate learning environments and develop their self-confidence. Some children have excessive movement or hyperactivity, which directly affects problems to maintain attention. At school, the typical behaviors are: constantly getting up from the chair, squirming or moving when they should be sitting, playing with small toys brought from home, talking out of turn and humming or singing when others are silent.

The introduction of ICT as a teaching tool for teaching to children and young people in a condition of sensorial disabilities (visual, auditory, etc.), improving the learning process using support material available on the Internet like videos, applications, etc.

The ICTs have intrinsic flexibility to adapt the educational activity to different learning rhythms and concentration in students with diverse kinds of deficits as using the screens (digital whiteboard, tablets, computer, etc.) to favor learner's performance. To stimuli learners and getting their attention. TIC also favors the educational development and socio-emotional skills that predispose personal autonomy for the motivation of the student, during the performance of tasks because, they associate it with games. Games help learners to have more security reducing the fear of making mistakes developing their potential.

5. Conclusion

This research achieved the purposed objective by identifying the inclusive approach in government policy for English as a foreign language teaching in Ecuador.

The results allow concluding that the framework of the current government policy for education in Ecuador presents important advances. However, the dimensions of inclusive teaching practices and inclusive culture still challenge to overcome.

Therefore, the approach to educational inclusion in the field of EFL learning teaching is still at an early stage. To improve this condition is necessary greater participation of English teachers, the application of curricular adaptations, and develop teaching materials that respond more efficiently and effectively to the learners' special educational needs.

Besides, the inclusion of people with disabilities in daily school activities implies the government policy but also, necessary teaching practice to identify and eliminate physical barriers that persist in educational institutions' buildings. It is necessary to avoid in the population those negative prejudices regarding the work with students with disabilities and promote in Teachers and professors the change in attitude to assume their leading role in the inclusive education because, all students with or without disabilities must: (1) Receive fair treatment and have access to opportunities without any kind of discrimination; (2) Have the communication facilities, didactics and physical environments designed for universal education; (3) Be accepted as active part for construction of a more inclusive, fair and progressive society.

This work authors analyze the government policy for education in Ecuador because the current rule requires that all students achieve at least B1 level of English as a foreign language without considering the implications of the sensory disability (visual and auditory) and intellectual disability among other special educational needs. Teacher and students require the didactic material, adaptations and clear procedures to apply efficiently the inclusive education; in this concern, this work is centered on the area of English as a foreign language. However, similar situations still persist in other areas as mathematics, computer science, etc.

There is a general acceptance that a high number of SEN are involved in motor difficulties. Careful evaluation of the learners' basic motor functions may reveal minor deficits, called mild neurological signs, which include: overflowing movements, involuntary movements, dysrhythmias, motor persistence, a deficit in inhibition of responses, dyspraxia or apraxia's, disco ordination or ataxia, among others. They require specific treatments that every teacher can be involved in. All the needed is the teachers' willingness for being part of this process.

The best strategy is the access to early stimulation and initial education because it is in this contact where the identification of learners disabilities makes possible the comprehensive and timely way to overcome the ESN conditions. It is still necessary to face the complex interaction and negotiation processes that involve parents, teachers, and other community members to promote inclusive communities in collective and participative construction.

Finally, EFL Teaching is an opportunity for children with any disability for developing the practice and fluency through daily training. This can become a motivation for strengthening their knowledge to access and enjoy other social, educational and cultural realities around the world reached through the educational technology for universal education.

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This article authors:

Karen Yhomaly Macias Mosquera. He was born in Ecuador in 1994. She is a students in Facultad Ciencias de la Educación at the Universidad Laica Eloy Alfaro de Manabí. Her lines of research are: Foreign Language, Innovation and Development.



Jhonny Saulo Villafuerte Holguín, PhD. He was born in Ecuador in 1969. He is a professor in Facultad Ciencias de la Educación at the Universidad Laica Eloy Alfaro de Manabí. His lines of research are: Inclusive education and learning environment; Technological education; Sustainable and human development. He had published works about English Language acquisition, environmental education, and Entrepreneurship. He is an active member of the research project: Los juegos recreativos para optimizar el desarrollo del equilibrio de niñas y niños de educación básica 2018-2020.



Evolving technologies for language learning

Robert Godwin-Jones, Virginia Commonwealth University

Abstract

This column traces the evolution of electronic resources for language learning over the past 25 years, focusing on the arrival and transformation of the “world wide web”, the dramatic changes in mobile technologies, and the movement towards commercial and all-in-one solutions to online learning. In the choice and use of learning materials and approaches, I argue for the consideration of current research in second language acquisition (SLA), with particular importance being studies on sociocultural/pragmatic and multilingual practices, the application of usage-based and complex dynamic models of language learning, and the evidence of the viability of informal language learning. Those developments inform an ecological approach to computer-assisted language learning (CALL), which stresses the openness and unpredictability of the process through the organic interplay between learner and environment. The column concludes with a plea for a greater role for second language development as a vital contribution to the development of global citizenry.

Keywords: CALL, SLA, Ecological Theories, Mobile Language Learning, Language Learning Materials

Language(s) Learned in This Study: English

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Introduction

Five years ago, in the 20th anniversary issue of this journal, I provided a retrospective of the columns I had written on [emerging technologies](#) (Godwin-Jones, 2016c). Looking back at those columns provided a perspective on developments in computer assisted language learning (CALL) since 1997. This time around, I will focus more specifically on the evolution of technologies used in language learning, with my take on what tools and approaches have proven to be enduring and which have faded. Although my overview will be guided by evidence in terms of published research, this will not be a formal meta-analysis or systematic survey. There will be a good dose of subjectivity on display, shaped by my own experiences as a teacher, scholar, and member of the CALL community. That perspective is also determined by my long-term service at a public university in the United States, making it likely that there will be an evident North American slant. While my primary focus is on the evolution of technology over the last 25 years, I necessarily will be considering approaches as well to second language acquisition (SLA) that have played a role in technology adoption and utilization. I begin with a look at specific tools and environments for CALL—especially the web and mobile devices—then discuss more specifically the evolving interface between CALL and SLA. I conclude with a look at metaphors for characterizing CALL and at possible future directions.

CALL Tools and Environments

In the first issue of *LLT*, I wrote about streaming audio and video, innovations in 1997. The movement away from physical media has continued since then, with streaming audio services such as Spotify and streaming video companies like Netflix dominating the market. In the trash have gone CDs and DVDs.

The battle over digitizing standards and media formats seems quaint today, with once widely promoted standards such as HD-DVD now a footnote in Wikipedia. For that matter, some of the format winners, Blu-ray video, for example, have declined to near irrelevance. Media streaming will serve here as an example of several general trends evident in the evolution of technology tools in general and in CALL specifically over the last 25 years. I will focus principally on two blockbuster developments in that time period, the world wide web and mobile phones, but will discuss others along the way. The trends I highlight are: (a) the rise of networks and of multimodal communication, (b) the commercialization and commodification of the Internet, and (c) the movement away from hands-on CALL development.

Networks and Multimedia

The rise of streaming video in the latter 1990s, integrated into web pages (through plug-ins), heralded the arrival of networked multimedia. That has been accelerated in the last decade through mobile devices. The early web seemed to promise the situation we have today in mobile technology, with multiple tools and services integrated into a single platform. That was the promise of Java, embedded into webpages as applets. Performance problems, incompatibilities, and security concerns doomed Java as a client-side web technology (similarly with Flash), although Java still has a strong server-side presence. Other transformative promises of the web have fallen by the wayside as well. At one point, we were headed towards a 3-D web (Panichi et al., 2010). The dream of a "semantic web" (Berners-Lee et al., 2001) turned into a fantasy as well, the tagging and taxonomies necessary turned out to be incompatible with quick and dirty web authoring, which emerged as the de facto standard. The main culprit, however, as discussed below, was different: as tech companies gained ever more users and power, an orderly, organized web promised to provide fewer monetary gains.

In 1996, networks were wired, wireless alternatives were expensive, slow, and unreliable. Wi-Fi and fast, ubiquitous cellular service have enabled the mobile revolution we continue to experience. That connectivity to the world (and social media, email, chat, etc.) along with incredibly useful mobile app/services (maps, streaming media, news, etc.) have created a new, intimate, and indispensable relationship with technology through our phones (Eilola & Lilja, 2021). The smartphone ecosystem has accelerated and cemented the multimodality of the incipient web through easier playback, capture, and editing of audio and video. Apps today seamlessly and transparently combine text, sound, and images in a handheld device with more processing power than desktop computers of the 1990s. Those of us who recall the jerky, stamp-sized digital media of early QuickTime continue to marvel at where we are today. From a language learning perspective, smartphones have brought additional benefits: easy text entry in multiple script systems, ability to combine different languages in a single text, the anytime-anywhere access to authentic L2 materials, the availability of L2 support services (dictionaries, translators, flashcards, etc.) and more.

Of course, today, we see those language learning features of smartphones as a given and look to more innovative uses of the mobile space, such as augmented reality (AR; Godwin-Jones, 2016a). Two of [the most downloaded articles](#) in *LLT* over the last quarter century are columns on mobile apps (Godwin-Jones, 2011) and on smartphones (Godwin-Jones, 2017), testimony to the continued importance of the mobile space (see Guillén, 2021). The apps column, surprisingly to me, is in fact the number one downloaded *LLT* article, despite the fact that it advocates for a direction in app development contrary to subsequent mainline practice. I argued for web-based rather than proprietary apps, allowing for access on multiple operating systems (and on web browsers) and using open standards. Few apps today are hybrid in that way, although Ovide (2020) points to recent developments in mobile gaming that enable use on smartphone web browsers as a possible general trend. I have argued frequently in *LLT* columns for the use of technology standards, accessibility, interchangeable formats, and open resources. As Colpaert (2016) argues, using open formats is important in technology sustainability, a key consideration in a field in which there is a long history of projects and products suddenly disappearing.

Commercialization and Commodification

The early web for language learning was all about access to L2 materials (Godwin-Jones, 1996). No longer did language instructors need to be sure to leave room in their suitcases from trips abroad to include newspaper clippings, advertising supplements, restaurant menus, or printed train schedules. All that and more became available electronically. Moreover, those *realia* did not come artificially packaged and out of date in textbooks, but were culturally and linguistically authentic, written for local or national populations. In that way, they offered the additional benefit of insights into regional cultural differences. It took little time for language instructors to send their students online to conduct webquests (Godwin-Jones, 2004) or to gather knowledge (and local contacts) in preparation for study abroad (Godwin-Jones, 2016b).

It was not long before a different kind of resource became available online, principally on the web, which proved to be linguistically and culturally valuable. These were personal writing through blogs, travel diaries, reviews, recipes – the kind of individual contribution initially labeled as the read-and-write web and subsequently Web 2.0 (Godwin-Jones, 2003). As more people and more countries gained online access, individuals and class-based exchanges became possible, opening what has proven to be one of the most pedagogically effective uses of online access, namely virtual exchange or telecollaboration (Godwin-Jones, 2019d). Exchanges started out as email and chat, often using the tandem model. The Cultura project (Furstenberg et al., 2001) stands out as an outstanding model of telecollaboration, often still used as an inspiration and model (Chun, 2014). Today, lingua franca, often multilateral exchanges have proliferated through organizations such as Soliya or Erasmus+ pre-mobility (Dooly & O'Dowd, 2018). The wide use of virtual exchange has been enabled by access to free videoconferencing tools like Skype and Zoom, available on mobile devices. Those services have become invaluable in a world in which physical displacement and contact have eroded as a consequence of a global pandemic. Although sometimes outsourced to commercial services (using, for example, [TalkAbroad](#) or [Conversifi](#)), virtual exchange is one area in which open partnerships and initiatives among educators (through [UNICollaboration](#) or other services) have predominated. The new [Journal of Virtual Exchange](#) is testimony to the importance and wide use of this powerful learning activity.

While the web continues to be a tremendous boon to citizens, consumers, and educators, the original vision of what the web could offer the world has faded. That utopian view was of a universally available platform for free exchange of all voices and views and therefore an enabler of democracy and equality. A [recent series](#) in the *New York Times Magazine* explores the many ways the Internet has evolved in a different direction (So the Internet didn't turn out the way we hoped, 2019). One of the unfortunate developments ironically has been through the devices which have brought online access to more and more individuals, namely mobile phones. The popularity of apps has splintered online content and exchanges into proprietary silos, which tend to perpetuate echo chambers. That movement is clearly present through social media, with Facebook and Twitter as poster children. Smartphones have accelerated that tendency, as they build distance between individuals fixated on their screens and physically present others, as well as create walls between themselves and users of different apps. That has led to a situation described by Turkle (2011) as “alone together” and by others as “networked individualism” (Rainie & Wellman, 2019).

The early web promise of an enlightened citizenry through universal access to information online has withered as well in the face of ever more instantly shareable online misinformation, resulting in widespread belief in conspiracy theories and outright lies. Unfortunately, the barriers to reliable information from mainstream media have grown through the rise of paywalls. At the same time, intrusive online advertising has made many websites and media almost unusable. That is the case, for example, for YouTube, a resource that otherwise offers many opportunities for language learning (Terantino, 2011). There is a significant further downside to the openness of the web, especially evident in social media, namely the proliferation of hate speech and harassment. Companies whose existence depends on advertising revenue (Facebook, Google) have been reluctant to risk losing users (and money) through closer monitoring of content. This has led to the need for extreme caution in online access in educational

settings. Large language models, such as GPT-3 (Godwin-Jones, 2021), built on crawling the Internet indiscriminately and collecting massive sets of data, inevitably contain biased, false, and harmful speech (see Bender et al., 2021). Much of the negative language is aimed at black and brown populations and at women. Gee (2021) suggests that a feminist orientation to the Internet would benefit not only women, but everyone. That might take the form of new social media platforms, such as the recently released [Herd](#), which is much more customizable than Facebook, allowing, for example, for adjustments to feed parameters and supplying additional privacy options. Berners-Lee, the originator of the web, has recently begun an initiative through an open-source software project, [Solid](#), to counter online hegemony and personal tracking (Lohr, 2021). Another approach might be the application of non-Western frameworks to the ethics of data use and collection. Williams et al. (2020) advocate for the integration of Confucian life ethics for language models used in robotics. Ethical issues in data collection and use have come to the fore in recent years among the general public, commercial technology firms, and AI developers (see D'Ignazio & Klein, 2020). Privacy and ethics concerns are critical in CALL as well and need to be a major topic in teacher education (Hubbard, 2017).

From Do It Yourself to Do It For Me

The movement towards the commercialization of online spaces occurred at a time when ever more people have the opportunity to be not just consumers, but producers of content. In fact, this has created new pathways to wealth through online "influencers" and YouTube stars. In contrast to content creation in the early web, today few technical skills are needed to post content online. There is no need to learn the scripting language of the web, HTML, just as there is no need for dedicated desktop applications for audio or video recording/editing. Everything can be done easily on a phone. This has led to an overflow of online content, so that separating the wheat from the chaff has become increasingly more difficult and time-consuming. This represents a big shift in what today constitutes digital literacy. The emphasis has moved from how to use online tools and services, to how to find and consume trustworthy and personally appropriate content. That may involve the ability to find an individually effective way to organize and retrieve information on one's phone and in the cloud, as demonstrated in the migrant learner of Finnish profiled in Eilola and Lilja (2021), who finds unique but effective ways to record and quickly retrieve notes on vocabulary encountered in the wild.

A parallel shift has occurred for language teachers. By the 1990's we were already far removed from the earliest days of CALL. In the 1970s and 1980s, it was expected that one be proficient at programming. The landmark CALL book by Higgins and Johns (1984) consisted largely of a set of subroutines in BASIC. The web originally was similar. To post content you not only needed to learn HTML, but also how to transfer files to a server using FTP, and possibly even how to set up and run a web server of your own. To add interactivity to your web page you would have needed to learn Perl or Java to create server-side scripts. Browser-based interactivity through JavaScript arrived in 1995 and required as well a basic knowledge of programming concepts. While of course it is still possible to create one's own webpages, the process has become more involved, largely because the contemporary web of HTML5 offers so much more in terms of user interface, element positioning, and interactivity (Godwin-Jones, 2014). As a result, web code has become much more complex, with web creators using widely distributed scripting libraries such as JQuery, combined with data formatted in JSON (JavaScript Object Notation). At the same time, form-based pages with text entry options have yielded to easier (and more flexible) contributions to websites and social media. That includes easy ways to embed images or videos.

For instructors using the web in classroom settings, another development has removed the need to know how to create webpages, namely the rise of learning management systems (LMS) such as Blackboard, Canvas, or Moodle. Such services are now widely used, especially at the tertiary level, and allow instructors to create shells for their classes which handle efficiently posting assignments, collecting and grading homework, maintaining a gradebook, setting up discussion forums or journals, and sharing content. The benefits of using an LMS are sometimes seen as offset by the limitations inherent in their use, leading professors to assume that the sum total of what is possible to do online is represented by that

proprietary system. Critics point as well to the fact that content created by both instructors and students is trapped within the system and that achieving a comfort level in using an LMS is hardly a useful skill for life and work after graduation (Godwin-Jones, 2012). For language instructors, another widely adopted option provides a resource for learning materials not needed to be created locally, namely publisher sites that most often accompany commercial textbooks. While these electronic workbooks are widely used, the design and functionality has been criticized, shown to be one of the main reasons students dislike hybrid language classes (Anderson, 2018; Lomicka & Lord, 2019). In fact, most publisher sites revert to a behaviorist model of language learning, with mechanical practice and little emphasis on meaningful communicative tasks (Sharma, 2017).

The wide use of commercial materials may be one of the principal reasons that open educational resources (OER) has not lived up to the promise many of us saw in that movement, although recent evidence suggests perhaps new impetus arising for open resources (Blyth & Thoms, 2021; Comas-Quinn et al., 2019), as well as for student-generated resources (Narwood, 2021). The Boise State [Pathways Repository](#) for OER provides a useful model for locally developed but nationally distributed open learning materials. Bañados (2006) and Garza (2016) provide models for hybrid and online learning that go beyond the LMS and publisher sites, integrating a wide variety of open tools and services that are designed to complement each other. Combining learning resources, as determined by contextual appropriateness, departs from an all-in-one content strategy, moving towards the concept of “atomized CALL,” as outlined in Gimeno-Sanz (2016). To counter the possibility that selected tools or services will become unavailable or obsolete by the time they are ready to be deployed, Sykes and González-Lloret (2020) argue for possible partnerships with commercial developers. An alternative is to seek out open, sustainable resources or to develop pedagogical materials with colleagues and/or students (Mathieu et al., 2019). Partnerships with nonprofits or government-funded initiatives is another route. That has long been possible within the EU, although many projects remain prototypes rather than ongoing tools or services. In the US, federally funded national language centers offer avenues for funding and expertise. That is the model, in fact, that has allowed *LLT* to exist for 25 years. Given the wave of newly online or hybrid L2 courses arising out of the pandemic, we can hope that new approaches can supply alternative models for online learning integrating open resources (Godwin-Jones, 2020a). As discussed below, new models ideally will be based on lessons learned from recent research in SLA.

CALL Development from an SLA Perspective

Electronic workbooks from publishers and online language learning services, such as Duolingo or Babble, generally use an approach to SLA aligned to a cognitive model of language, with a traditional division into separate skills and a separation of lexis, syntax, and morphology (Guillén et al., 2018). Language is presented as a discrete set of knowledge to be learned, with right or wrong choices and with the end goal of native-like fluency and correctness. While contextual language use through interactions with peers or tutors is often an available feature in commercial language services, it is not the core of the approach, and sometimes is available only through a premium upgrade. I will argue here that, despite the popularity of commercial publishers and online language learning products and services, CALL approaches that are more oriented towards developments in SLA theory and research findings point in quite different directions. Those include: (a) the centrality of socio-cultural learning in SLA, (b) a model of language based on usage-based theories, (c) the evidence of the effectiveness in the use of leisure-oriented informal language learning resources, and (d) the reality of widespread multilingualism.

Socio-Cultural Learning

It has been increasingly recognized in SLA theory that more than cognitive processes are involved in learning a second language (L2; Atkinson, 2014; Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Human language is a social phenomenon and socialization plays a major role in learning our first language; this too is true in subsequent languages (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995). We learn language by using it (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). In CALL, social learning has underpinned the rise of computer-mediated communication (CMC),

the use of email exchanges, text chat, and discussion forums to provide opportunities for real use of language by learners (Thorne, 2008). Today, virtual exchange, most often involving videoconferencing, has become an important addition to instructed SLA. While they do not duplicate the process of in-person communication (Kern, 2014), video exchanges do represent embodied communication, allowing for affect displays, gestures, and physical surroundings to be part of the messaging. Recent research in SLA has highlighted the reality of embodied and distributed cognition (Guerrettaz et al., 2021; Thorne et al., 2021).

A major benefit of having learners engage in online exchanges is the potential for gaining insight into the importance of language pragmatics, the use of language in culturally and contextually appropriate ways (Culpeper et al., 2018). Learners gain experience in culturally determined practices, such as turn-taking, topic switching, politeness conventions, and forms of address; in linguistic phenomena like intonation and register; and in meta-linguistic factors such as backchanneling or asking for help/clarification. These are areas rarely included in classroom instruction or covered in textbooks. They are slippery concepts in contrast to grammar and vocabulary learning. As there are no hard and fast rules, but rather patterns of usage established by convention, pragmatic language is best learned in actual language use. Explicit instruction can be helpful (Sykes & Cohen, 2018). Communication breakdowns resulting from faulty pragmatic transfer or pragmatic ignorance may be embarrassing, but can represent "rich points" (Agar, 1994), likely to be a memorable learning experiences through emotional resonance (Helm, 2013). The development of self-awareness through encounters with disorienting dilemmas (linguistic or cultural) can be a transformative learning experience (see Leaver, 2021).

Although mostly neglected in commercial language learning services, the importance of pragmatics has become much more recognized today than it was 25 years ago. There is substantial evidence of its more frequent appearance in L2 instruction, both in the classroom (Taguchi, 2015) and as an independent online resource (Yeh & Swinehart, 2020). Still, SLA research continues to focus predominantly on language complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF), rather than on adequacy and appropriateness (González-Lloret, 2019). CALL research has dealt with pragmatics mostly in the context of CMC and telecollaboration (González-Lloret, 2019). Promising new directions in pragmatics and CALL are studies examining conventions and practices in different online communities (Yeh & Swinehart, 2020, on Reddit), on specific tool use (Sykes, 2019, on hashtags), or on recreational activities (Sykes & Dubreil, 2019, on gaming). Of particular usefulness are [online resources](#) for help in the difficult task of assessing pragmatics learning (Sykes et al., in press).

The Usage-Based Language Model

The increased recognition of the importance of pragmatics in SLA parallels a movement away from a model of language built on rules to one based on patterns. A usage-based perspective highlights the importance of word groupings, chunks of language conventionally used together (Ellis, 2017). Those groupings combine lexis and grammar and can range from collocations to frequent syntactical structures. This model of language has been supported by studies in corpus linguistics and by the practice of conversation analysis (CA; Seedhouse, 2005). González-Lloret (2015) provides a useful overview of the use of CA in CALL. Multimodal CA, integrating transcripts with images from video recordings, has become an effective means to analyze exchanges, demonstrating the important role played by physical surroundings, objects, and body language/gesture/gaze (Eilola & Lilja, 2021; Thorne et al., 2021).

Patterns of language are learned through frequency and saliency. Language learning from this perspective is a statistical process (Ellis, 2017), based on exposure to patterns in context. As with pragmatics, explicit instruction has shown to be helpful (Ellis, 2008). Data-informed approaches to SLA leverage the large collections of actual language usage available in corpora to point to patterns prominent in a given language. Studies have shown how corpus-based instruction can be helpful in students learning constructions that are important, but quite different in nature from students' native language (Boulton & Cobb, 2017). An inductive approach to data-based learning involves students being given a set of data (sample sentences) drawn from a corpus and tasked with analyzing and finding regularities and commonalities in order to uncover and learn patterns. For many learners this active, discovery-based

learning can be quite effective (Flowerdew, 2015). Similar insights into specific use of constructions as well as into metalinguistic knowledge of how language works can be gained through CA, a technique mostly associated with research, but which is useful in instructional settings as well (see McConachy, 2017).

I first wrote about corpora in *LLT* 20 years ago (Godwin-Jones, 2001) and have since written repeatedly on data-informed language learning. It has been argued that corpus use has gone mainstream (Boulton & Cobb, 2017). That may be the case among researchers in applied linguistics, but I am skeptical to what extent hands-on corpus access is widely used in instruction (see also Chambers, 2019). On the other hand, corpora have positively influenced textbook authoring, dictionary compilation, and other language tools/services. Although data collection and analysis play a central role in CALL, a [recent issue](#) of *LLT* on big data generated fewer submissions than usual and only two accepted papers (Reinders & Lan, 2021), perhaps a sign that the topic is not seen today as being as promising in its usefulness as I and others (Kessler, 2018) have thought. The explanation could be related as well to the technical requirements of dealing with big data and artificial intelligence (Godwin-Jones, 2021). It reflects perhaps as well a decline in research activity in iCALL (i.e. intelligent L2 tutors), as that direction necessarily involves both sophisticated data collection/analysis and natural language processing (Lu, 2018; see, however, Chinkina and Meurers, 2017, for an example of innovative AI-based iCALL). Advanced techniques in learning analysis have shown that the use of AI tools in data analysis is worthwhile. That is demonstrated, for example, in the use of clustering techniques to identify salient patterns in small groups, as seen in Lee et al. (2019) or Peng et al. (2020). Similarly, AI-based tools for social network analysis are being used to uncover usage and learning patterns (Butler & Liu, 2019), with visualization tools being helpful in illustrating trends and models (Youngs et al., 2018). Such approaches can provide informative results that move beyond whole group results or averages to reveal important variations in outcomes.

Although a usage-based understanding of language, with its emphasis on the importance of examining words in context, is today widely accepted in applied linguistics, its impact on practices and products for learning grammar and vocabulary has been minimal. Commercial language learning services and publisher sites emphasize discrete grammar knowledge, separate from vocabulary. Dedicated vocabulary learning, although today improved through tools like [Memrise](#) that feature sophisticated spacing algorithms and crowdsourcing of mnemonic devices, continues to focus on individual words, rather than on phrasal integration or collocations (Godwin-Jones, 2018).

Informal Language Learning

In recent years, a number of studies have highlighted an approach to SLA which draws on usage-based theory, namely the use of leisure-oriented informal language learning resources online. Much of that research has focused on learners of English, for whom there are particularly rich resources available online (Kusyk, 2017; Sockett, 2014; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2016). This phenomenon has been made possible through the growing availability in many countries of streaming audio and video services that provide free or low-cost access to popular music, television series, or movies. Particularly effective is video programming which features characters in repeating roles and in similar situations from one episode to the next. Those include situation comedies, soap operas, or blockbuster movie franchises. Incidental language learning comes through both the entertainment value – leading to frequent viewing – and the exposure to characters' idiolects and recurring language patterns. This has its theoretical basis in usage-based linguistics.

It is not only media consumption that has been studied as a source of SLA, but social media and participation in affinity groups as well. These are activities in which L2 learner users engage for enjoyment or socialization, but which have a potential byproduct of SLA. Fanfiction has come to the fore in recent years as an activity that can represent a powerful combination of agentic action, identity exploration, extensive L2 writing, and community building/mentoring (Sauero, 2017). Studies of the role of Facebook in language learning have shown as well the complex intertwining of identity construction, socialization, and creative language use on that platform (Baker & Sangiamchit, 2019). That has been

shown to be the case in online gaming as well (Scholz & Schulze, 2017). In fact, gaming — in its many different iterations — is one of the success stories in CALL in recent years, even if not a universally appealing activity (Chun, 2019). The combination of entertainment/competition (emotional investment), identity exploration (through avatars), group interactions, and pragmatic language use make multiplayer online games an ideal vehicle for second language learning (Reinhardt, 2019). Widely popular gaming platforms such as Fortnite, Roblox, or Minecraft have evolved beyond simply gaming, becoming more akin to social networks. Indeed, some are foreseeing a metaverse (a universally shared, always on virtual space, as in Stevenson's *Snow Crash*, 1982) built around a platform such as Fortnite (Park, 2020).

On the other hand, the recreational use of immersive technology platforms, which seemed to hold such promise for language learning, have faded, with the rise and fall of Second Life (see Hubbard, 2019). On the other hand, more recent products such as *ImmerseMe* or *Mondly* offer interesting immersive opportunities for language learning (Fryer et al., 2020). Makransky and Petersen (2021) offer a promising theoretical framework for integrating immersive VR into educational practice. As is the case with Second Life, other once promising technologies and consumer products have morphed into different forms. Electronic whiteboards, for example, have been replaced with handheld tablets, Microsoft Kinect by personal robots. Smartphones have disposed of a whole range of consumer products, including cameras (still and video), personal digital assistants (Newton, Palm), GPS devices, dedicated music players (iPods), and voice recorders. Meanwhile, new consumer devices (smart glasses, home speakers, car consoles) seem poised to offer new avenues for informal language learning (Godwin-Jones, 2019a).

Translanguaging

A characteristic increasingly recognized as salient in online language use, such as in social media or multiplayer gaming, is its multilingual nature (Ortega, 2017, 2019). Researchers have demonstrated, for example, how many Facebook exchanges involve multiple languages (Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2018). This reflects current understanding of L2 development: that a learner's L1 does not simply go away while the L2 is practiced, but rather is constantly in the background, influencing L2 use (Blommaert & Rampton , 2015). The intertwining of languages cognitively and socially has been characterized with the term *translanguaging* (García & Li, 2014). The reality of that phenomenon—perhaps more evident today than ever before, especially in online environments—calls into question the historical approach to instructed SLA of striving to create a monolingual native speaker equivalent in the learner. Instead, learners can be thought of as developing a set of "mobile symbiotic resources" (Blommaert , 2010, p. 43), with an awareness of how they are used appropriately in different contexts. Mixing languages can be natural and accepted in some situations but not in others. Multilingual awareness and meta-linguistic knowledge are recognized today as important goals in instructed SLA (Ortega, 2019). That movement translates into classroom practice in terms of the use of the target language only as well as in a recognition of the value of translation activities (Kramsch, 2020).

Exposure to L2 communities online provides a rich demonstration of translanguaging. It also is increasingly evident that there is the potential in such activities for significant intercultural learning and enhanced global awareness. That has led to greater emphasis being placed in SLA on leading students towards more awareness and experience with cross-cultural communication, so as to develop "critical intercultural awareness" (Byram, 1997, p. 19). SLA researchers in recent years have raised the idea that language learning has a socio-political significance and that therefore language learning should be viewed as an instrument for advocating social justice and developing in students a sense of global citizenship (Lenkaitis & Loranc-Paszylk, 2019) or "critical cosmopolitanism" (Jackson, 2018). That has been the case in CALL as well (Anwaruddin, 2019; Hellmich, 2019). Studies such as Kukulska-Hulme et al. (2015) and Eilola and Lilja (2021) demonstrate how smartphone use among communities of learners can become a resource for joint social action.

Multilingualism has been slow to gain a foothold in CALL (Buendgens -Kosten, 2020; Ortega, 2017). Few CALL projects or products support plurilingual skill development. In addition to incorporating multiple languages in interfaces and content, desirable as well is the possible integration of language

variants, such as demonstrated in Papin (2018), which discusses an immersive learning tool featuring variations on continental French. The perspective on languages in CALL tends to be even more restricted, in that the overwhelming focus has been on English language instruction (Sauro, 2016). At the same time, the ubiquity of English language instruction has led to many more opportunities for exchanges among English learners. Research in this area has provided interesting insights into English as a lingua franca (Baker & Sangiamchit, 2019) and English use in international contact zones (Canagarajah, 2014). Findings from research in these areas can be informative for CALL research (Godwin-Jones, 2020b), given that the Internet today provides a multilingual contact zone as never experienced before (Thorne et al., 2015).

CALL Metaphors and Future Directions

In a recent monograph in the *Modern Language Journal*, Levine (2020) outlines a "human ecological approach to language pedagogy" (p. 9) in which he presents SLA as a transformative process, both for the individual and potentially for society as a whole. He argues for facilitating learner agency through choice, fostering the capability for critical examination, and highlighting the crucial role of the narrative imagination. Basing his pedagogical model on sociocultural theory and complex dynamic systems theory, Levine argues that given the complexity, multilingualism, and politically volatile world of the 21st century, a new language pedagogy is needed that takes into consideration both issues of social justice and the multiplicity of opportunities for SLA today beyond the classroom. Repeatedly in the monograph, Levine uses the same metaphor for emphasizing the variability of language learning trajectories, the impact of initial conditions for SLA, and the crucial role of the learning environments encountered, namely that of a surfer riding ocean waves:

The complex system that is the surfer, the board, the wave (itself an entity in a complex ecological system), and other elements and processes less relevant to our illustration, come into being the moment the surfer steps onto the board to ride the wave. For those exciting seconds (exciting for the surfer as the only sentient agent in this particular system, or perhaps for us as spectators), all the entities that make up the system are interconnected and in fact interdependent. The nature of the ride will depend on factors such as the skill of the surfer, the shape of the wave at any given instant, the wind, and so forth (p. 22).

Levine (2020) goes on to explain how that dynamic of the surfer corresponds to a classroom language learner:

While one certainly can draw metaphorical parallels between a surfer riding a wave and a language learner learning a new language, the point here is indeed that the nature of dynamic, interconnectedness in a language classroom is akin to that of the surfer riding the wave. The initial conditions of the system are crucial, that is, the sorts of knowledge, abilities, and traits of each individual, the dynamics of the classroom community, the experience, knowledge, and skills of the teacher, features of the physical and social context, and so forth, all impact the developmental and language-use paths individuals follow in whatever period of time the system exists (p. 23).

Interestingly, that metaphor of the surfer is what I used as well in a recent *LLT* column on learner autonomy (Godwin-Jones, 2019c). I argued that the complex ecological system of the ocean surfer—with its interdependent dynamic of body and environment—parallels the contemporary language learner, especially through reliance on online informal language learning:

Successful outcomes are not assured and are dependent on both the individual's background, initiative, and competence, as well as on local conditions. The surfer's trajectory, like that of the language learner, is susceptible to the kind of initial conditions at hand (of the individual and of the environment), both of which are subject to constant change. Second language (L2) development is a dynamic process, often nonlinear and episodic, making static or linear metaphors of mastery or programmatic progression invalid (Godwin-Jones, 2019c, p. 9).

Language learning trajectories depend on an ever-changing array of affordances that derive from interactions of learner agency with the resources available at a given time and space. As Levine comments, "To stretch the surfer metaphor just a bit more, from a pedagogical perspective, it is not about trying to predict a particular outcome but rather smoothing the way for the learner" (p. 24). That in a nutshell is our task as language educators and CALL practitioners, to help steer the learner, living "at the edge of chaos" (Finch, 2010, p. 423), to find the pathways over time likely to be most beneficial. That translates into rejecting a one-size-fits-all pedagogy and focusing on individual trajectories, in line with increasing calls in SLA theory for a person-centered approach (Benson, 2017; Larsen-Freeman, 2018). One of the most noticeable trends in CALL research reflects this direction, namely the proliferation of qualitative studies which examine individual learners or small groups (Chun, 2019). Analysis of learners' language diaries or learning histories can be revelatory (Benson & Nunan, 2005).

Reinhardt (2020) has written recently that CALL from its earliest days has used metaphors to characterize how computers can be helpful in language learning. Those include the frequently encountered images of the computer as "tool" or as "tutor":

Though the first CALL programs were tutors, mobile language apps like DuoLingo incorporate activities that reflect this metaphor still today. As a result, many users still think of technology as an L2 teacher, rather than as a tool used by the learner or teacher constructively. In contrast to a tutor, a computer that is understood as a tool is not the sole source of knowledge, but rather it serves as a means to develop or access knowledge, aligning with cognitive-constructivist understandings of language and learner-centered approaches to instruction (p. 235)

Reinhardt points out that through the rise of social and collaborative learning in conjunction with the contemporary web, a "new metaphor of technology as community or ecology emerged, a derivative of the tool metaphor but going a step further and recognizing the socially networked and interconnected nature of the use of tools" (p. 235). Reinhardt asserts that the tool metaphor does not adequately describe the reciprocal relationship of user and environment in social media, namely that the user contributes to an online environment (blog, forum, fansite, for example) and in the process changes that environment.

This aligns with recent assessments of the relationship between learner and the environment. Levine (2020) calls for new views on context, not viewing it as background, but as a vital, fully participating, and dynamic actor in the learning process. This echoes the "material turn" in language education (Guerrettaz et al., 2021, p. 4) as demonstrated in studies by Canagarajah (2018) and Pennycook (2018). Sociomaterialism, as discussed in Guerrettaz et al. (2021), has a particular appeal for CALL research, as it proposes to break down barriers between learning materials and the social world. Exploring the complex relationship between humans and objects is becoming recognized in CALL research as an important area of study, as seen in studies associated with the "maker" movement (Dubreil & Lord, 2020). The view of materials as "emergent assemblages" (Guerrettaz et al., 2021, p. 11), whose use and usefulness may vary widely depending on user conditions, helps to illuminate the complexity and variability in SLA today. Researchers have invented new terminology to characterize the intertwined relationship of individual, language learning, and environment, such as *mindbodyworld* (Atkinson, 2014), *structured unpredictability* (Little & Thorne, 2017), or *rewilding* (Thorne et al., 2021). These formulations strive to integrate scientific studies examining organisms in their environments, such as the concept of *Umwelt* in biosemiotics (Von Uexküll, 1909) or that of *organism-environment system* from psychology (Järvilehto, 2009). Such concepts postulate an expanded, dynamic, and distributed sense of cognition and agency, shared between the individual and the environment.

Recognizing the limitations in the view of CALL materials as tools, Reinhardt (2020) proposes a new set of metaphors:

I propose an additional set of metaphors that construe social media apps, sites, and services not only as tutor, tool, or communities, but as windows, mirrors, doorways, and playgrounds. These metaphors capture user action, perception, and reflection, which are key to understanding them as part of ecologies of language learning and use (p. 236).

I believe these metaphors are helpful in pointing out how online media today makes two-way communication and actions possible (windows, doors), but also can lead to self-reflection and self-knowledge (mirrors), as well as allowing for entertainment and gaming (playgrounds). I would add an additional metaphor which I believe is helpful in envisioning the dynamic relationship of the learner, instructed SLA, and informal online resources, namely the *porous classroom* (Breen, 1999). The emphasis in this metaphor is on opening up instruction to what lies beyond classroom walls, such as local communities and constituencies, as well as further afield through technology, remote resources and communities (Godwin-Jones, 2020a). A similar image is that of the *invisible classroom*, associated with the concept of transformative language learning and teaching which stresses the use of local resources, learner autonomy, and open learning materials (Leaver, 2021).

The image of a porous classroom and Levine's concept of a *human ecological* approach to SLA point to the dynamism and unpredictability of modern SLA. I argue that this should inform CALL research today (Godwin-Jones, 2019b). From a CALL research perspective, another useful metaphor for understanding the process of SLA, brought over from science, is chaos theory, emphasizing the complexity of the emergent nature of learning trajectories (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). In that sense, CALL, I believe, has transitioned away from being accurately described using comparisons with engineering. We are certainly able to look back at successful language learning and try to understand the processes, but being able to predict reliably based on needs analyses and rational design will carry our understanding of such a dynamic and individualized process only so far. From that perspective, unexpected outcomes are not failures, but should be expected, seen as natural results of complex interactions among humans and non-humans. According to Guerrettaz et al. (2021), that situation should inform teacher education, with "training that emphasizes recognition and responsiveness over controlled planning" (p. 17). An understanding of the ecological nature of language learning (Chun, 2016)—the crucial role that the learning environment plays in dynamic interaction with individual learners—can help teachers expect diverse student learning outcomes and cope with the reality that instruction does not universally or automatically result in learning. For researchers in applied linguistics, ecological frameworks, such as complex dynamic systems, sociomaterialism, or actor-network theory (Latour, 2005), help move us beyond problematic theories such as the accumulation metaphor for learning grammar, the assumed linearity of SLA, and the division between implicit and explicit learning (Chapelle, 2009; Larsen-Freeman, 2015). In CALL, the application of these frameworks points to the ecological invalidity of a determinist orientation to cause and effect studies, particularly those based exclusively on results from pre- and post-testing (Godwin-Jones, 2019b).

The last decades have demonstrated how variable the pathways to learning have become. Future developments are likely to make that even more the case. Mobile devices will continue to be constant companions and are likely to be joined by wearable devices. The emerging Internet of Things will be present as well in homes and cars, enabled through fast 5G networks. We have already seen the widespread use of virtual assistants (Apple's Siri, Google Assistant, Amazon's Alexa) in smart speakers, automobile dashboards, and earbuds (Dizon, 2020). The services supplied by these virtual assistants, powered by advances in artificial intelligence and the collection of huge datasets, will continue to expand and improve (Godwin-Jones, 2021). Improvements in natural language processing through neural networks have made big strides, as evident in the dramatic improvement in the quality of Google Translate (Johnson et al., 2017). Automatic speech recognition and voice synthesis, as seen in Google Duplex, come close to being able to replicate human to human conversations (González-Lloret, 2019).

Periodically, VR appears to be on the verge of going mainstream, but has been hampered by the cost of the hardware, mixed user experiences, and the difficulty in customizing applications to specific environments (Blyth, 2018). AR, on the other hand, seems likely to take off in the near future, with the launch of smart glasses by companies like Apple and Google (Pamaxi & Demetriou, 2020). They are likely to be paired with mobile phone apps and to offer not just tourist-level language help and translation, but exciting opportunities for in-place language learning. The future is already evident in AR apps such as *Mentira* (Holden & Sykes, 2012) or *Chrono-Ops* (Thorne, 2013) which integrate collaborative learning, gamification, and both virtual and local human resources. *Mentira* is exemplary in that it targets pragmatic language use in Spanish, with users linguistically successful in encounters not due to grammatical correctness, but rather through contextual appropriateness. A recent study using *Chrono-Ops* demonstrates how the dynamic relationship of human and non-human actors can carry over to language learning in the wild (Thorne et al., 2021). A water fountain becomes a focal point for *noticing* (Schmidt, 2012), both from a linguistic and from a sociomaterialist perspective, with “[the] physicality of the water fountain – its visibility, size, and the sound of the flowing water in the fountain — prompted the noticing of the fountain by a participant, and subsequently the fountain became a resource to list and discuss as part of completing the task” (Thorne et al., 2021, p. 111). Another striking example of this phenomenon of assemblage (of resources) and entanglement (of people and objects) is the role that a tree plays in an Ojibwe lesson, taught in the woods (Engman & Hermes, 2021).

While AR represents the high end on the technology scale, there has been growing recognition in recent years within the CALL community that we need to keep in mind communities of learners who do not have access to the latest and greatest technology resources (Joshi et al., 2019). Those include underserved populations in developing nations, as well as disenfranchised groups in the developed world (rural and urban poor, communities of color). We should be aware that the much-ballyhooed rise of informal language learning through leisure time, extensive film/TV viewing is not available to wide swaths of the world due to lack of funds, time, or space. While autonomous, self-directed English language learning is often viewed as an avenue of socio-economic advancement, that opportunity in reality is denied to those who lack basic necessities such as reliable power, affordable Internet, or sufficient time, space, and leisure to binge watch episodes of *Friends*.

More attention is being paid to the language needs of migrants and refugee populations (Charitonos & Kukulska-Hulme, 2017). Their language learning situation is quite different from that of university students in the West completing a language requirement or learning for leisure and travel. Studies continue to explore how under-resourced communities can use resources available on inexpensive phones such as chat or the popular WhatsApp for language learning (Kartal, 2019). One of the language learning activities that is low resource but creative in its potential is interactive fiction. This text-based activity has been around since the pre-multimedia days but has seen increased interest recently (Pereira, 2018), often in the context of fanfiction (Cornillie et al., 2021). [Twine](#), an open-source tool for telling interactive stories, has become quite popular (Buendgens -Kosten, 2021).

Conclusion

In the United States, language learning in schools and universities is on the decline. There is a growing emphasis on practical job skills and preparing students for life after graduation. That has led to increased enrollment in STEM fields and away from the liberal arts. At the same time there is a growing recognition that despite widespread concerns over globalization, held responsible for the growth of socio-economic inequality, and the rise of nationalist politics, global interconnectivity is here to stay. Global crises, from pandemics to global warming to mass migrations can only be solved globally. If that is the case, language learning should be widely promoted, being, as it is, at the core of international understanding. The CALL community can play an important role in enabling and encouraging more language learning. Twenty years ago, a colleague from down the road from me, Rachel Saury, at the University of Virginia, wrote a piece in *Change* entitled "A day in the life of Thomas Baggett: Technology and the making of an international

intellectual community in the year 2020" (2001). It is in many ways a remarkably foresighted vision of language learning and technology. She envisions a student at UVA double majoring in Francophone African studies and public policy. He is learning both French and an indigenous west African language in a hybrid learning environment, with extensive use of video conferencing, collaborative writing software, jointly annotated websites, and recorded digital video lectures. On the other hand, Saury (2001) did not anticipate the mobile revolution: Thomas has to go to the language lab to complete some assignments.

What I find most impressive about the article is the role she lays out for how technology can be leveraged in the future to facilitate international cooperation and cultural understanding:

Given the realities and challenges of a growing international community, what would happen if we concentrated the emerging benefits of technology on creating future peacemakers? Would further violence be prevented? Would the health and welfare of more people be improved? Would the importance of human rights, and of reaching for and maintaining equality among human beings, become more commonly accepted? (p. 23)

Saury visualizes an "international intellectual community", largely built on advanced technologies, but the goals of which go well beyond language learning:

To me, four things define international intellectual community both as a field of inquiry and as an object of study for our students. First, it entails a keen sense of interconnectedness with all beings worldwide, fostered and supported by the knowledge of multiple languages, cultures, and/or cultural practices. Second, it requires the ability to make cross-cultural connections as a matter of regular practice, both in person and electronically. Third, it implies an imperative to choose a profession through which a positive impact can be made on human suffering and/or the health of the environment on a global scale. Fourth and last, it demands development of critical thinking skills grounded in the liberal arts (p. 23).

Saury's comments at the end are even more true today than when written 20 years ago: "We are truly rich in hardware and software. But how willing are we to take on the global responsibility that our riches afford us? How rich are we in practice and in vision?" (p. 23). Technology in and of itself, no matter how powerful the advances, cannot solve the world's problems, but if we find ways to harness its help in language learning, cultural understanding, and interconnections, that can be a boon to both individuals and society as a whole.

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A critical review of research on curriculum development and evaluation in ELT



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A CRITICAL REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION IN ELT

Esin Dündar, Ali Merç

Anadolu University, Turkey

Abstract:

This study was designed to compile the studies conducted on curriculum development and evaluation in ESL/EFL contexts and to specify their general characteristics through content analysis. The studies were chosen in line with the inclusion criteria through which online articles and dissertations were included. No specific timeline, context or research design was set for the literature search. As a result of the review of the related literature, 86 studies were reached and analyzed in terms of their contexts, sample type and size, data collection tools, data analysis techniques. All the studies were coded through a protocol and the results were tabulated. As well as the characteristics of the studies, their findings were also analyzed through content analysis and common points were presented and interpreted. As a result of the analysis, it was revealed that the curriculum evaluation studies were more popular than the curriculum development studies. It was also found that the studies were mainly about primary and secondary levels; they mostly employed Likert-type scales; semi-structured interviews were more common; descriptive statistics were applied more frequently. Finally, common findings were detected among the studies conducted in different contexts with different grades of study. By taking the findings as the basis, some suggestions are provided for further studies.

Keywords: curriculum development, curriculum evaluation, ESL, EFL, ELT

Introduction

In order to see the tendencies of the studies in a specific field, to organize the findings, and to see the points that have not been researched yet, researchers can make critical reviews on the general characteristics and findings of the studies on the same topic. This helps the researcher to examine the big picture of the field and see the tendencies

of the studies in a specific field. Understanding the content of the studies of a specific topic in the field can guide researchers and accelerate the further studies.

Curriculum development and evaluation is one of the core topics in English language teaching. This issue is important and getting the attention of the researchers as it is directly related to the presentation of the language in a systematic way and teaching learning situations. Although the metaphor of manual can be used to describe the curriculum, designing a curriculum is not easy as just writing down what to teach and how to teach. Curriculum design and evaluation, as a part of the development process, is at the center of English teaching and other matters as it contains the approaches, methods, techniques, activities followed to teach the language as well as the content and it is based on a policy (Brown, 1995).

1. Significance of the study

First of all, considering the fact that no critical analysis study has been encountered in English language teaching literature on curriculum design and evaluation, this study is supposed to be an important source of information. Second, the present study has a substantial value as it combines and evaluates both quantitative and qualitative findings in one analysis in order to support the statistical data driven from the findings of the quantitative studies with qualitative data to draw a clear picture of the issue. Finally, the study reveals the tendency of the research on English language curriculum development and evaluation in ESL/EFL context by not only documenting the general characteristics of the studies, presenting statistical information about the most frequently used data collection tools, sample types and research designs, but also by summarizing the common findings of the related studies.

1.1. Curriculum Development

The number of the children and adults laboring over second or foreign language learning, which has been one of the biggest educational enterprise worldwide, has reached over millions (Richards, 2001, p.1). Not only the learners but also the teachers as components of the educational system put a lot of effort into this educational attempt through organizing the lessons, selecting or adapting the teaching materials and applying their plans in the classroom (Richards, 2001). No matter what approach the teachers follow, there is something universal in deciding on what to teach the learners and in every single approach it is kind of a rule to put the subjects to be taught in an order (Brown, 1995). At this point, it is crucial to mention an umbrella term, which contains approach, method, technique, syllabus, activity, and exercise within itself: curriculum. Curriculum means much more than subjects to be taught, transmitted or

delivered (Kelly, 2004, p. 1). An effective definition of the curriculum should provide the information on why we are teaching, what could be the possible effects of the transmission of the information, what are the outcomes (Kelly, 2004). Curriculum can be seen as a detailed manual for teaching and learning process:

Curriculum refers to the specific blueprint for learning that is derived from desired results—that is, content and performance standards (be they state-determined or locally developed). Curriculum takes content (from external standards and local goals) and shapes it into a plan for how to conduct effective teaching and learning. It is thus more than a list of topics and lists of key facts and skills (the “input”). It is a map of how to achieve the “outputs” of desired student performance, in which appropriate learning activities and assessments are suggested to make it more likely that students achieve the desired results (Wiggins & McTighe, 2006, pp. 5-6).

Drawing a distinction between education and curriculum, Null (2011) states that curriculum has a crucial place if how effective an institution is the question. The curriculum contains many questions within itself and Null (2011) lists the questions that curriculum holds within itself: *“What should be taught, to whom, under what circumstances, how, and with what end in mind? Put more concretely, what should be taught to these students, in this school, at this time, how, and to what end? What process should we use to decide what our curriculum ought to be within a particular school, college, or university context?”* (p. 5). Eisner (1994) classifies the curriculum as: (a) explicit curriculum which has the publicly explicit goals or opportunities provided by the schools and they are stated in curriculum guides of the schools or in the materials provided, (b) implicit or hidden curriculum, which stands for the intentional and unintentional functions of the school and these are not advertised contrary to the explicit curriculum, they just arise in the context through learning opportunities, and (c) null curriculum, which deals with intellectual processes and content neglected by the schools. Null curriculum is related to what is not taught in the school or not provided. From a different point of view, Kelly (2004, pp. 2-7) classifies curriculum as *“educational, total, hidden, the planned and the received, the formal and the informal”*.

The main focus of curriculum development is on deciding which knowledge, skills and values to be taught, how to reach the intended outcomes, and the learning and teaching processes (Richards, 2001). An effective language curriculum is not just related to the pure action of teaching; it also includes the procedures of planning, designing and implementation (Richards, 1990). Constructed on the main principles of development, conducting and evaluation, curriculum development has six main steps: “needs analysis, goal setting, syllabus design, methodology, testing and evaluation” (Richards, 1990, p. 1).

Philosophical, theoretical and practical constructions give shape to the curriculum development; in other words, “*science, society, moral doctrine, knowledge, and the learner*” are the sources of the curriculum (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Similar to Richards (1990), Brown (1995, p. 20) suggests that “*needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, teaching and evaluation*” are the basic components of curriculum design.

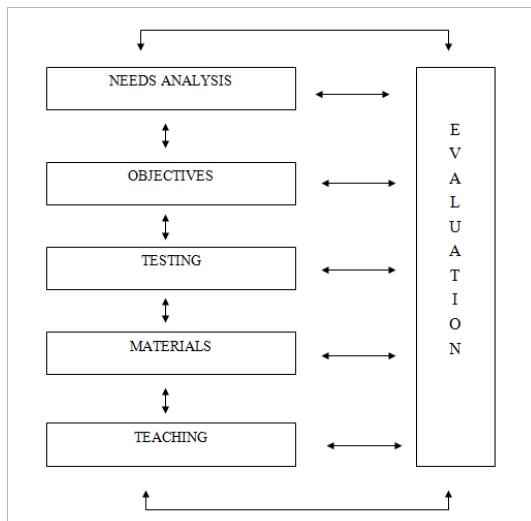


Figure 1: Systematic Approach to Designing and Maintaining Language Curriculum
(Brown, 1995, p. 20)

As presented in Figure 1, the first step is needs analysis, the concept which focuses on the learners and concerns with the language structures which are likely to be needed (Brown, 1995). In language curriculum development needs analysis helps; (1) providing a systematic approach for the selection of the input, constructing the content of the program by taking the opinions of members of designing process, (2) specifying the language needs, (3) providing a base for the assessment of the present program (Richards, 1990). When it comes to the goals and objectives, we should make a clear distinction between these two terms. Goal is a more general term defining what should we do to meet the expectations of the learners and objective is a more specific term related to the structures that learners should know to reach a specific goal (Brown, 1995). The objectives can be behavior, content, proficiency or skill based (Richards, 1990). Goals and objectives, the second step rings the need for the third step language testing. In a language program, tests can be applied in the need for placement of the students, identifying the levels of the students through diagnostic tests, or testing the

achievements of the learners (Brown, 1995). Then it comes to the last step before the classroom implementation of the language curriculum, material design.

Another model of curriculum design is suggested by Macalister and Nation (2011). The model, which is shown in Figure 2, is constructed with three outer and one inner circle, which is also divided into three sub-circles.

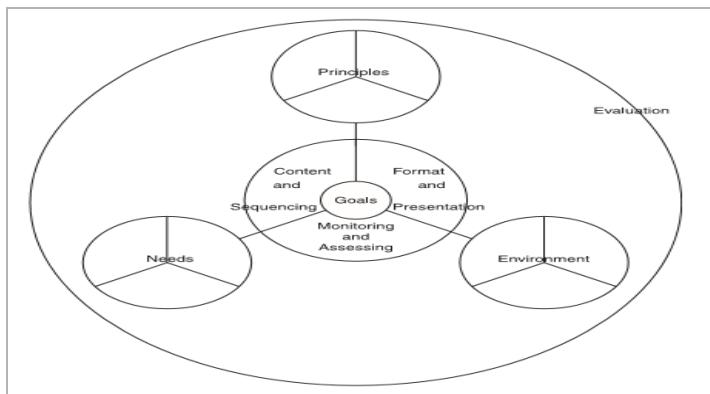


Figure 2: A Model of the Parts of the Curriculum Design Process
(Macalister & Nation, 2011, p. 2)

Starting from the inner circle, the model puts the goals into the center of the curriculum design in order to emphasize their crucial role in a course and here the sequence and content represents what and in which order to teach, the part, format and presentation, is generally deals with how to present the language structures to the learners, the part we plan the lesson which includes the techniques and activities and the last component of the inner circle is monitoring and assessing in which we check the outcomes and evaluate the learning activity and the success of the teaching (Macalister & Nation, 2011).

Before giving information about the outer circles and what they stand for, it is important to mention that they all have sub-factors. Environment analysis can reveal the factors related to the “*learners, teachers and teaching-learning situations*”, needs analysis has tree sub-factors “*lacks, wants and necessities*” and the last one, principles, is divided into “*content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessment*” (Macalister & Nation, 2011, pp. 3-4).

The last component of the model is evaluation, which encircles the whole model, and it can provide detailed information about every piece and component of the model and can show the lacks and necessities or the parts to be developed, and generally this component is neglected in curriculum development (Macalister & Nation, 2011).

1.2. Curriculum Evaluation

After designing the curriculum, conducting the needs analysis and the actual implementation of the designed curriculum, the development is not totally over as there are still lots of things to be considered. We need to deal with some questions like whether the curriculum really meets the expectations of the people affected by it, or we can reach our objectives through this curriculum, what is the situation in the class in which we carry out the curriculum we designed, compared to the other examples, whether we achieve to design a better curriculum (Richards, 2001). In order to find an answer to all these questions or the concerns we have, we need to evaluate the whole process of our curriculum design.

Compared to needs analysis, evaluation is a broader notion dealing with every process in the curriculum development from the specification of the objectives, to the design or adaptation of the materials and in-class implementation, and processing all the information gathered during the stages of development and application (Brown, 1995). The concern of evaluation is not just the results. Weir and Roberts (1994) approach evaluation with some basic questions such as why, what, how long. There are so many aspects we can evaluate in a curriculum such as the needs of the curriculum as a whole or of the learners, sources, the system including curriculum, in-class implementation, the achievement and motivation of the learners, the success of the school staff including teachers and principal, and the conditions under which learning-teaching situation is carried out (Weir & Roberts, 1994).

The main reason behind conducting an evaluation is to provide beneficial information to a larger audience and a theoretical base and a context based information on particular implementations (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Literature provides some approaches to evaluate the curriculum. For example, Brown (1995, p. 219) summarize them under four main categories: 'product oriented approaches', which focus on the extent of reaching the objectives, static characteristic approaches, conducted by an outsider to evaluate the efficacy of the program, and 'process oriented approaches', which answer the questions of how to improve or revise the current curriculum, and decision facilitation approaches, based on collecting information before making decisions. When it comes to the types of evaluation there are two main types: formative and summative (Weir & Roberts, 1994; Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001; Nation & Macalister, 2010). Formative evaluation is conducted throughout the process and the main purpose of using formative evaluation is to gather data to improve the curriculum during the development and implementation of it (Weir & Roberts, 1994; Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001; Nation & Macalister, 2010). The data collected through a formative evaluation is mostly detailed, related to the process itself, and used for the improvement of the staff or the material and specifying the goals (Nation & Macalister,

2010). Formative evaluation is in a way checking the quality in each stage of curriculum development and getting the feedback regularly and thus, it provides justification for the changes made by the staff during the process (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Summative evaluation is conducted at the end of the process and it helps to determine to what extent the curriculum or the course is successful, it deal with how effective the curriculum is (Weir & Roberts, 1994; Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001; Nation & Macalister, 2010). Brown (1995) criticizes summative evaluation as it ignores the fact of language program's being a continuing structure and suggests that the administrators of the program can stop the process and ask the questions related to summative evaluation while the program is being applied. However, summative evaluation still has a crucial place as it helps to see the bigger picture, and gives information on what has been accomplished in a period of time. Together with formative evaluation, summative evaluation can save the school staff from the troubles and stress of being evaluated by an outsider (Brown, 1995).

Another crucial aspect is how to conduct the evaluation. Post-modernity resulted in a paradigm shift and this has caused the redefinition of achievement and this shift puts more responsibility on the evaluation process in terms of giving effective feedback on the best choice under the policy based conditions (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005). With this shift, the emphasis on basing the curriculum on an ideology has changed into an understanding of bearing the values, other dimensions and factors putting a great responsibility on the stakeholders, participants of the curriculum (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005). The determination of the criteria for the evaluation is another challenge. According to Kiely and Rea-Dickins (2005, p. 13), there are three approaches to decide on criteria: "*theory based, policy based and constructivist or ethnographic approach*" and as well as providing benefits, these approaches also make it hard to specify such a criteria that is covering both the experience of the participants in the program and its rationale. The other two challenges are dealing with a big amount of data, knowing what to do and where to use it, and as the results of the evaluation are expected to support or construct a theory or provide information for the other programs in a broader sense, it is also challenging for the stakeholders how to deal with results and report them (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005).

According to Nation and Macalister (2010, pp. 123-4) the steps of the evaluation are as follows:

- 1) specify the audience of the evaluation and what they expect from this,
- 2) specify the field in which the findings will be used,
- 3) decide whether there is really a need for the evaluation,
- 4) find out the time span and sources necessary for conducting the evaluation,
- 5) specify the aspects to be evaluated in the program,

- 6) create connections to get the help of the people in the system,
- 7) specify the participants and data gathering tools,
- 8) decide on how to report the evaluation results,
- 9) check whether a follow up evaluation is appointed.

There are numbers of tools for gathering information, presented in Table 1, which a scholar can choose in line with the focus of aim such as interviews, checklists and tests, observations, meetings, and self-reports (Weir & Roberts, 1994; Brown, 1995; Nation & Macalister, 2010).

Table 1: Focus and Tools for Evaluation of Teaching and Learning
(Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 129)

Focus	Tools
Amount of learning	Achievement and proficiency tests Learner self-report scales Analysis of course book content Interviewing learners
Quality of learning	Achievement and proficiency assessment Lesson observation Interviewing learners Teacher diaries Study of research reports
Quality of teaching	Systematic lesson observation Interviewing teachers-retrospective accounts Learner self-report scales Teacher self-report scales Study of research reports Achievement tasks Listing of staff qualifications
Quality of course book	Systematic coursebook evaluation checklist Teacher and learner questionnaire
Quality of curriculum design	Systematic course evaluation checklist Analysis of the syllabus Evaluation of the course materials
Degree of later success of graduates of the course	Interviewing employers or questionnaires Interviewing graduates or questionnaires Later achievement records such as GPA
Teacher, learner or sponsor satisfaction	Self-report scales Questionnaires Interviews Learner re-enrolment statistics

1.3. Previous Studies on Curriculum Development and Evaluation

Studies conducted on the issue of curriculum development and evaluation in different contexts has provided variety into the field. Some examples are in-class curriculum application in Taiwan elementary schools (Lai, 2007), the effect of learner driven motives on the development and implementation of the curriculum (Shawer, Gilmore, & Banks-Joseph, 2009), designation of a curriculum with art based medium for kindergarten level in Puerto Rico (Perez, 2009), the design of kindergarten English curriculum based on DAP assumptions (Sowers, 1996), the analysis of backward design process in foreign language curriculum (Korotchenko, Matveenko, Strelnikova, & Phillips, 2015), the investigation of English curriculum in Asia Pacific Region (Nunan, 2003) as well as some curriculum evaluation studies (Abu-Ghararah, 1986; Alwan, 2006; Burgos, 2012; Harris, 2010; Hillberry, 2008; Hu, 2007; Krekeller, 1993; Powell, 2008; Sun, 2007; Wang, 1996).

In Turkey, the tendency is to evaluate the curriculum of English language courses from different levels along with the perspectives of teachers and students, and quite rarely the parents and inspectors. These are mainly about the evaluation of 2nd grade English curriculum (Kandemir, 2016; Küçüktepe, Küçüktepe, & Baykin, 2014; Maviş & Bedir, 2014; Aybek, 2015; Özüdoğru & Adıgüzel, 2015; Yıldırın & Tanrıseven, 2015), the evaluation of 3rd grade curriculum (Çankaya, 2015), the evaluation of 4th and 5th grade English curriculum (Er, 2006; Erkan, 2009; Güneş, 2009; Mersinligil, 2002; Seçkin, 2010), 6th, 7th, 8th grades (Çelen, 2011; Demirlier, 2010; Orakçı, 2012; Özer, 2012; Yanık, 2008; Yiğit, 2010; Yörü, 2012), the difficulties experienced by the teachers during the application of English curriculum (Ari, 2014), the evaluation of 9th grade curriculum (Karci, 2012), CEFR-related curriculum (Zorba & Arikhan, 2016), and development of English curriculum in GÜlhane Military Medical Academy (Sarı, 2003). Although there are several studies on the issue of curriculum development and evaluation in English language teaching, no critical analysis has been encountered in the literature.

As the reviewed literature suggests, there is a need to have a better understanding of the current studies and their findings to be able to conduct more effective studies in future. In revealing the neglected parts of the issue, this study has a significant role. Instead of evaluating a curriculum through a Likert-type scale form the perspectives of the teachers and students, which is the general tendency of the studies especially in Turkey, drawing a general picture of the related literature will help us to make sense of the findings and meet the needs of the field.

1.4. Research Questions

The main objective of the present study is to conduct a critical review of the studies on curriculum development and evaluation conducted in ESL/EFL contexts, to

find out the general characteristics of the studies and to present a synthesis of the qualitative studies based on the same issues. In line with this aim, the study is an attempt to answer these research questions;

1. What are the general characteristics of the studies on curriculum development and evaluation in ESL/EFL context?
2. What is the general pattern of the findings of the studies on curriculum development and evaluation in ESL/EFL context?

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

Many independent studies providing lots of different findings on any specific issue can sometimes be misleading; therefore, there is a need for a further, comprehensive and reliable research in order to interpret fund of knowledge (Demirel, 2005; Özcan, 2008). Card (2012) claimed that the need for organizing the existing studies is more urgent than conducting further studies in social sciences. This need has resulted in the combining the findings on the same issue and analyzing them within a one single study. In order to analyze the studies on curriculum development and evaluation in ELT, this study adapted document analysis, which involves the analysis of written documents presenting information on the phenomena to be investigated (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008).

2.2. Data Collection Procedure

The study was conducted through the following steps; (1) specification of the topic, (2) defining selection criteria, (3) searching for the studies, (4) specifying the final set of data, (5) coding the studies, (6) calculating descriptive statistics (7) tabulating and reporting the findings (8) interpreting the findings and making conclusions.

2.2.1. Inclusion and exclusion criteria.

When the researcher specifies the topic of the study, the second step before searching for the primary studies to be analyzed, is setting the inclusion/exclusion criteria. For this present study, these criteria were set;

Timeline

Not a specific period of time has been set for the present study.

Publication type

Articles and dissertations that are available online have been included in the study.

Research design

The studies with both quantitative and qualitative research design are included.

Context

This study utilized the studies conducted in Turkey and in any country where English is taught as a second or foreign language.

2.3. Data Collection

The process of searching the literature conducted following the steps offered by Card (2012). The steps are given in Figure 3.

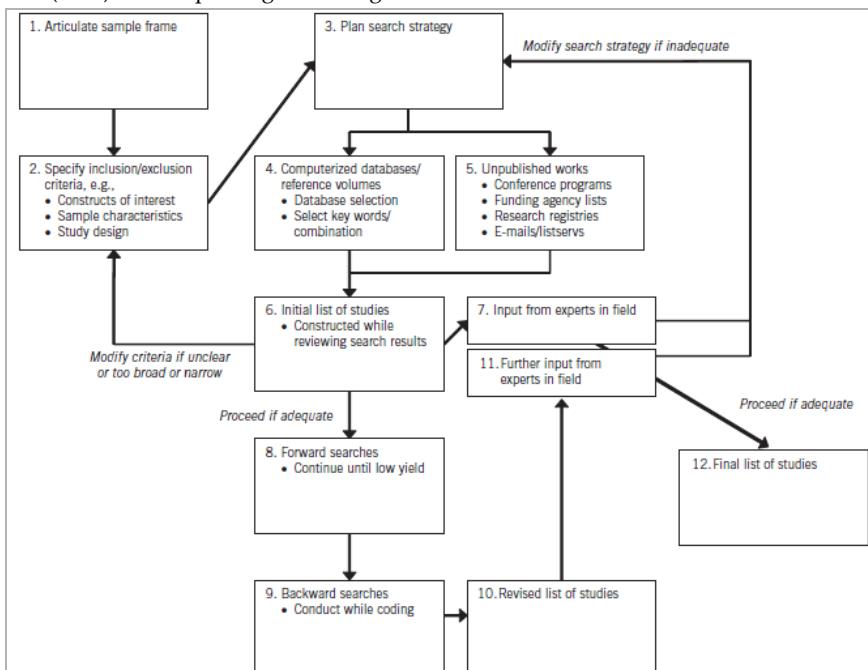


Figure 3: Basic Steps for Searching the Literature (Card, 2012, p. 35)

As the first step, an overall literature search was conducted in order to construct the frame of the study. The second step was to specify the inclusion/exclusion criteria. At this point, the timeline, publication type, research design, statistical value and context were determined as inclusion/exclusion criteria. After the third step, which was organization of the search, the literature search was conducted through online databases. In this step, in order to specify the studies to include for the analysis, certain keywords were determined. According to Card (2012), the selection of the key words can be specified through the knowledge of the researcher either by investigating the key words of the studies on the issue to be analyzed or taking thesauri as a base. The key words used for the search were “curriculum development ($f=11$), curriculum evaluation

($f=10$), English language curriculum ($f=13$), curriculum ($f=10$)". As the studies in Turkey might have been written in the native language, the key words in Turkish were defined as "program geliştirme ($f=6$), program değerlendirme ($f=7$), İngilizce dersi öğretim programı ($f=6$)". All these key words were determined based on the frequency among the key words of the studies found out during the overall search of the literature and they were checked through UNESCO IBE Glossary of curriculum terminology (2013). Next, online research databases were scanned to obtain the studies. In order to find the articles, Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) was used as the search engine as it is one of the rich databases for educational journals. For the dissertations, YÖK theses and dissertations database and Proquest were searched. After writing down the initial list of the studies, backward and forward searches were followed as the sixth and seventh steps. During these steps, the reference lists of the studies and the ones citing the studies reached were analyzed to find out more studies as well as to be certain that not all but most of the possible studies were reached. At the end, the initial list was revised and a final list of studies was prepared. As a result of the whole process, 86 studies were included for the present study (See Appendix): 24 articles (28%) and 62 theses and dissertations (72%).

2.4. Coding the Studies

After searching for the studies and specifying the ones to be analyzed in line with the inclusion/exclusion criteria, a coding protocol was designed based on the article classification form developed by Tatar, Kağızmanlı, and Akkaya (2013). This coding protocol consists of two parts: the identity and the content of the study. The identity of the study describes the author, publication date, and the title of the studies while the content mainly deals with the sample types and size, research design, data collection tools, and data analysis.

2.5. Data Analysis

In order to reveal the general characteristics of the studies, the quantitative data were coded using the protocol form adapted from Tatar et al. (2013). The qualitative data, on the other hand, were analyzed through content analysis, which enables to summarize the data in a categorical and systematic way (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, & Demirel, 2011). The steps of the content analysis were as follows:

1. The findings of the studies were listed down.
2. All the findings were reviewed.
3. The common answers were determined and grouped.
4. The semantically identical ones were coded and categorized.
5. All categories were given a theme.

3. Results and Discussion

This critical review investigated the studies on curriculum development and evaluation in ESL/EFL for their context, grade, publication date, research design, sample type and size, data collection tools, and data analysis techniques. The first finding is the distribution of the studies based on the context that they had been conducted. As a result of the analysis, 19 different contexts were identified and their frequencies are presented in Table 2. As two different contexts were compared in some studies, the total number was found to be more than the number of the studies analyzed. It was revealed that nearly more than half of the studies analyzed were conducted in Turkey (51%) followed by Taiwan and USA (8%) and China (7%). It would not be correct to interpret the high frequency of the studies of Turkey as a sign of leading the literature of curriculum development and evaluation. The present study mainly focused on the context of Turkey and Turkish key words were used during the literature search; therefore, the frequency of the studies conducted in Turkey outnumbered the ones in other contexts.

Table 2: The Distribution of the Studies Based on Their Contexts

Contexts	f	%
Turkey	46	51
Taiwan	7	8
USA	7	8
China	6	7
Korea	4	4
Saudi Arabia	4	4
Japan	3	3
Puerto Rico	3	3
Thailand	2	2
Vietnam	1	1
Hong Kong	1	1
Nigeria	1	1
Kuwait	1	1
Malaysia	1	1
Canada	1	1
United Arab Emirates	1	1
Libya	1	1
Djibouti	1	1
Brazil	1	1
TOTAL	89	100

As mentioned before, not a specific timeline was determined for the present study. The results of the analysis showed that the studies analyzed were published between 1985 and 2016. Comparing the number of the publications according to their publication period, 67 studies were published the years between 2006 and 2016 (78%). There were

14 studies conducted during the period of 1995-2005 (16%), and there were only five (6%) studies in the years between 1985 and 1994.

Table 3: Distribution of the Studies Based on Their Publication Date

Publication Date	f	%
1985-1994	5	6
1995-2005	14	16
2006-2016	67	78
TOTAL	86	100

The increase of the studies starting from the beginning of the 21st century can be explained with the curriculum innovations of the countries, especially in Turkey (Dönmez, 2010), China (Lee, 2007), and Taiwan (Chen, 2013). With the policy changes in Turkey, in 2006-2007 academic year English, was decided to be given starting from the 4th grade. In 2012, it was taken to the 2nd grade (Yıldırı & Tanrısever, 2015). From the second half of the 19th century to 21st century, China has also made changes in its English language policy and started to give more importance to English language teaching day by day (Liu, 2015). Hence, there can be a correlation between the time of policy changes of the countries and the number of the studies conducted in the field of education.

In Table 4, the sample types used in the studies are presented. According to results, the researchers mainly investigated the opinions of the teachers/instructors about the curriculum they were applying both in Turkey and in other ESL/EFL contexts. Table 4 also shows us that other stakeholders affected by the curriculum have been neglected in studies, especially parents. There is only one study in Turkey and two studies in other contexts including parents to the curriculum development and evaluation. As a part of the system, parents should be more involved in giving feedback and sharing opinions about curriculum development and evaluation processes. None of the analyzed studies in Turkey dealt with the officials, policy makers, or the program directors, the studies including these stakeholders in other contexts are quite rare. It is also evident that there are fewer studies conducted with students compared to the ones with teachers both in Turkey (31%) and other contexts (22%).

Table 4: Distribution of the Sample Types

Sample Types	Turkey		Others	
	f	%	f	%
Teachers/Instructors	38	62	31	47
Administrators	2	3	5	7
Parents	1	2	2	3
Inspectors	1	2	0	0
Supervisors	0	0	3	4

Program facilitators	0	0	1	2
Program directors	0	0	2	3
Officials	0	0	4	6
Policy makers	0	0	1	2
Coordinators	0	0	1	2
Publishers	0	0	1	2
Students	19	31	15	22
TOTAL	61	100	66	100

Listening to the voice of the teachers is important as they are the ones who are applying the curriculum in a real classroom environment. They are good feedback sources for the policy makers. Here, the factor affecting the sample choice of the researchers can be that reaching a sample group especially the parents, inspectors or officials is not as easy as reaching the teachers or students. Thus, many researchers may have a tendency to use convenient sampling to conduct their studies.

As it is presented in Table 5, more than half of the studies conducted in Turkey mainly dealt with 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 5th grades (51%). Because more than one grade was evaluated in some studies, total number of the grades is different from the number of the studies. 28% of the studies investigated the curriculum of 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. In other words, the studies mostly focused on the primary and secondary school contexts in Turkey. High school (15%) and college (6%) are the least covered levels in Turkish context. For the other contexts, the studies covering the grades from kindergarten to 5th grade and high school level have an equal percentage (26%) while 38% of the studies were dealing with 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. There were 11 studies about the curriculum of college level in other contexts (10%).

Table 5: The Distribution of the Grades Investigated

Grades	Turkey		Others	
	f	%	f	%
Kindergarten	0	0	3	3
1	0	0	4	4
2	10	14	5	5
3	1	1	6	5
4	12	18	4	4
5	12	18	6	5
6	7	10	10	9
7	6	9	15	14
8	6	9	16	15
9	4	6	12	11
10	2	3	5	5
11	2	3	5	5
12	2	3	6	5
College	4	6	11	10
TOTAL	68	100	108	100

The important point to be highlighted is that there is no study related to the kindergarten curriculum in Turkey. This can be explained within the fact that English is not an official course for kindergarten in Turkey yet although some private schools have been giving English courses at this level. We can state that curriculum design and evaluation for kindergarten level is a neglected issue both in Turkey and other contexts as a result of the educational policies of the countries.

The distribution of sample sizes is presented in Table 6. The analysis showed that among 86 studies, 75 of them had a sample group and 11 of the studies conducted document analysis. According to Table 5, among the studies with a sample group, 19% of them have a sample size from 0 to 10, 17% of them have between 11-30, 11% of them have between 31-60, 9% of them have between 61-100, 31% of them have between 101-500, and 13% of them have a sample size more than 500. Although no certain number is given for the sample size of the studies in the literature, it is "ideal" to have a sample size of 300-400 as it is "advantageous" to have a sample size more than 100 (Karasar, 2012). We can state that 44% percent of the studies have an 'advantageous' or 'ideal' condition in terms of their sample size.

Table 6: The Frequencies of the Sample Size

Sample size	f	%
0-10	14	19
11-30	13	17
31-60	8	11
61-100	7	9
101-500	23	31
501-<	10	13
TOTAL	75	100

Classifying the studies in terms of their research design, the analysis revealed that 46% of the studies have qualitative research design, 41% of them have quantitative methods, and 13% of the studies have mixed method design.

Table 7: The Frequencies of Research Design

Research Design	f	%
Qualitative	40	46
Quantitative	35	41
Mixed	11	13
TOTAL	86	100

Compared to the other designs, there are fewer studies with a mixed design although mixed method (1) has the strong features of qualitative and quantitative designs, (2) can answer research questions with a larger scale, (3) can provide the insight and

understanding that a single design do not have, (4) and provides with the opportunity for the quantitative data to be interpreted visually and verbally and to digitize the qualitative data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The reasons behind the researchers' choosing other designs over mixed method design can be due to the facts that (1) the workload can be too much for a researcher to handle alone, (2) that there is a need for the expertise to combine qualitative and quantitative designs, (3) and that researcher may need more time to conduct a mixed design research compared to other designs (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Table 8 summarizes the ratio of the data collection tools. The analysis shows that there is a dominance of qualitative data collection tools such as interviews (32%), documents (13%), journals 81%, and field notes (2%). As nearly half of the studies (46%) have qualitative research designs, which is not surprising. Among the quantitative data collection tools, Likert-type scales are the ones that are mostly preferred by the researchers (25%). 25% of the studies used semi-structured interviews, 5% of them used structured interviews, 1% used unstructured and focus group interviews. The reason behind the popularity of the semi structured interviews might be the belief that semi structured interviews provide a deeper insight and control over the responses (Karasar, 2012). 13% of the studies made use of documents to collect data. Among these documents were lesson plans of the teachers, reflections, textbooks, teachers' guide, tests, and curriculum reports. While the observations (12%) were mainly used to check whether the classroom application of the curriculum was parallel with the way it was reported, achievement tests (5%) were used to determine the proficiency level of the students.

Table 8: The Frequency of Data Collection Tools

Data collection Tools	Sub-category	f	%
Questionnaire	Open-ended	12	8
	Likert	41	25
	Yes/No	2	1
Achievement test	Open-ended	2	1
	Multiple choice	6	4
	Structured	8	5
Interview	Semi-structured	40	25
	Unstructured	2	1
	Focus group	2	1
	Observation	19	12
	Documents	21	13
Others	Journals	2	1
	Reports	1	1
	Field notes	4	2
	TOTAL	162	100

The issue to be highlighted here is that there is no experimental design among the ones quantitative studies. This shows us that the general tendency of the studies is to evaluate ELT curriculum through similar Likert-type scales from the perspectives of teachers and students. Investigating these scales that are mainly dealing with the opinions of English teachers and students of different grades about ELT curriculum, it is revealed that the main factors of the scales are goals, content, teaching/learning process and assessment, especially for the ones conducted in Turkey (Adığuzel, 2014; Alkan & Arslan, 2015; Amorim, 2010 Çankaya, 2015; Çelen, 2011; Demirlier, 2010; Er, 2006; Erkan, 2009; İnam, 2009; Kandemir, 2016; Lu, 1995; Örmeci, 2009; Özüdoğru & Adığuzel, 2015; Sak, 2008; Topkaya & Küçük, 2010; Yanık, 2007; Yörü, 2012).

Table 9 presents the data analysis techniques applied in the studies analyzed. The most frequently used analysis type is the content analysis (26%) followed by frequency and percentage (25%). The studies utilized t-tests (8%), ANOVAs (6%) as the parametric tests and Kruskal Wallis (2%), Mann Whitney U (2%) tests as the nonparametric ones to see whether there was a relation between independent variables such as gender, years of experience, taking an in-service training, the time spent in an English speaking country, age, the program graduated, and the opinions of the teachers on the curriculum (Abu-Ghararah, 1986; Altaieb, 2013; Burgos, 2012; Çankaya, 2015; Çelen, 2011; Demirlier, 2010; Er, 2006; Erkan, 2009; İnam, 2009; Kershaw, 2009; Merter, Kartal & Çağlar, 2012; Örmeci, 2009; Tom-Lawyer, 2014; Topkaya & Küçük, 2010; Wang, 2006; Yörü, 2012).

Table 9: The Frequency of Data Analysis

Data Analysis	f	%
Frequency/percentage	45	25
Mean/standard deviation	24	13
Graphs	4	2
T test	15	8
Correlations	2	1
ANOVA	10	6
Regression	1	1
Factor analysis	3	2
Chi Square	6	3
Kruskal Wallis	4	2
Mann Whitney U	3	2
Cronbach Alpha	4	2
Content analysis	46	26
Descriptive Analysis	13	7
TOTAL	180	100

Content analysis dealing with the findings of the studies has shown that regardless of the publication date, context, and grade, there were common issues that the studies

came up with. These shared findings were coded and the categories are presented in Figure 4.

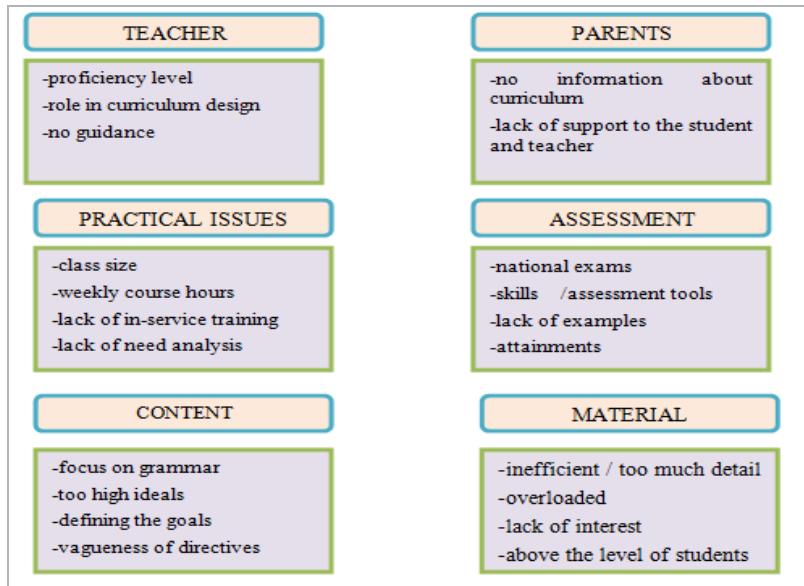


Figure 4: Classification of the Common Findings

As mentioned above the studies share a common pattern in terms of their findings no matter which grade they are dealing with or in which context they are conducted. These common findings can be classified under the themes of teacher, parents, assessment, practical issues, content, and material related issues. Starting with the practical issues, most of the studies were consistently stating that the weekly class hours of English lesson were not enough to achieve the goals of the curriculum. The relevant examples were the study by Dönmez (2010), analyzing the 8th grade English curriculum, the one carried out by Erkan (2009) dealing with the curriculum of 4th grades, Karci's study (2012) investigating the 9th grade curriculum in Turkey, the study of Al-Darwish (2006) evaluating the elementary school English curriculum of Kuwait, or the one conducted by Nakaprasit (2010) investigating ESL curriculum of a university in Canada. Moreover, the limited time given for English lessons caused teachers to neglect the four skills, especially speaking and listening, to focus more on grammar, and not to have enough time for in-class assessment (Güneş, 2009; Kandemir, 2016; Kefeli, 2008; Yanık, 2007). The other findings under the practical issues were the crowded classrooms, lack of in-service training for the teachers, and lack of needs analysis (Altaieb, 2013; Çankaya,

2015; Dönmez, 2019; Dudzik, 2008; Ege, 2006; Er, 2006; Erkan, 2009; Harris, 2010; İyitoğlu & Alci, 2015; Jan, 1985; Karci, 2012; Kefeli, 2008; Mersinligil, 2002; Nam, 2005; Örmeci, 2009; Powell, 2008; Restivo, 2012; Seçkin, 2010; Wang, 2006).

The most commonly mentioned findings about the parents in the studies are that the parents had no idea about English curriculum; they were not supporting their children or did not have a good communication with the teachers (Burgos, 2013; Krekeler, 1993; Restivo, 2012; Wu, 2013; Yanık, 2007). When it comes to the teacher-related findings, it was revealed that the teachers were not proficient enough especially to use English as a medium of instruction during the class hours, they had no responsibility during the curriculum design, and their opinions were not valued by the program facilitators (Almalki, 2014; Alwan, 2006; Kim, 2008; Lundien, 2009; Nunan, 2003; Tsai, 2007; Zaid, 1993).

Other common points mentioned in the studies were the negative impact of the public examinations on the application of the English curriculum and the lack of assessment tools and examples, especially for measuring the listening and speaking skills. It was found out that public examinations forced English teachers to base their teaching on training students to get high marks from the public tests which put pressure on the teachers (Alkan & Arslan, 2015; Dönmez, 2010; İnam, 2009; Güneş, 2009; Jan, 1985; Karakoyun, 2008; Kim, 2008; Nonthaisong, 2015; Tsai, 2007; Wang, 2006; Wu, 2013; Yiğit, 2010).

Some common findings on the content of the curriculum were also revealed as a result of the analysis. It was stated that the directives of the curricula were not clear, therefore, every teacher conducted their lessons based on the perspective they got from those vague directions. Moreover, it was mentioned that the focus of the curriculum was on grammar and the attainments were too ideal for a classroom environment and above the level of the students (Al-Darwish, 2006; Carroll, 2005; Erdoğan, 2005; Erkan, 2009; Glasgow, 2014; Hillberry, 2008; Hu, 2007; Kandemir, 2016; Kershaw, 2009; Lai, 2007; Nunan, 2003; Orakçı, 2012; Örmeci, 2009; Restivo, 2012; Sak, 2008; Wang, 1996; Wang, 2006; Yanık, 2007).

Finally, it was mentioned by most of the studies that the textbooks and teachers' guides were inefficient and were irrelevant to the curriculum itself. There was a need for extra material and equipment, or in some situations, those textbooks could be seen as the curriculum itself. It was also claimed that the content of the materials were overloaded and not prepared in line with the interest and level of the students (Çankaya, 2015; Demir & Duruhan, 2015; Dönmez, 2010; Ege, 2006; Er, 2006; Güneş, 2009; Jan, 1985; Karakoyun, 2008; Küçüktepe, Küçüktepe, & Baykin, 2014; Mersinligil, 2002; Seçkin, 2010; Tom-Lawyer, 2014; Yaman, 2010; Yanık, 2007; Yıldırın & Tanrısever, 2015; Yörü, 2012; Zaid, 1993).

The underlying reason for the common findings obtained by the aforementioned studies might result from the fact that the policy of ESL/EFL contexts have changed through the time, mainly at the approach level. It is evident that findings are mainly on the practical issues as the policy and curriculum mainly do not deal with the practical sides such as the classroom size, the supportive materials, or the proficiency levels of the teachers. In other words, as the implementation challenges have remained and the curricula designed in ESL/EFL contexts do not pay attention to those challenges, it is not surprising that teachers, especially the ones in Turkey, are stating the same opinions again and again.

4. Conclusions

The present study intends to specify the tendency of the research on English language curriculum development and evaluation in ESL/EFL contexts. Main conclusions drawn from the results obtained in this analysis are as follows:

1. The studies have mainly focused on curriculum evaluation rather than curriculum development.
2. There is a relation between the changes in the education policy of the countries and the grades evaluated.
3. The studies generally concerned with the opinions of English teachers and students.
4. Likert-type scales, semi-structured interviews and documents have been the main data collection tools.
5. The studies presented common findings regardless of their context, publication time and the grade evaluated.

This study can provide a base for further studies and for a better investigation of the research on curriculum development and evaluation in ESL/EFL as it shows the general profile of the studies and reveals the points that have not been covered yet. Thus, the study can show the researchers what has been done so far and the points to be researched.

Being the first of its kind, this study is able to provide future researchers with the following suggestions:

1. In any context, curriculum development studies should be increased.
2. The studies should not only deal with the opinions of the teachers or students, but also the opinions or experiences of the parents, program facilitators, academic staff, and officials. Teachers are not the only stakeholders of the curriculum design and evaluation process. In order to have detailed information on the design and implementation of English language curriculum, more studies

- are needed considering the opinions of the other stakeholders like students' parents, and educational administrators.
3. Researchers should pay attention to reliability and validity of the data collection instruments.
 4. Researchers can also attend to the issue of in-service training on the implementation of the curriculum.
 5. Experimental studies can also be conducted in order to develop an English language curriculum and measure its efficacy.
 6. Meta-analysis studies can be conducted in order to calculate the effect size of gender, experience, in-service training, and grades on the evaluation of the curriculum.
 7. The number of critical analysis studies should be increased in the field of English language teaching.

As a last word, the present study is limited to 86 studies conducted in ESL/EFL contexts from 1985 to 2016 on the issue of curriculum development and evaluation. Only the articles and theses available online were included in this review. The studies that are not available online, conference papers, and or book chapters were not included. Therefore, the results of the study should be considered and generalized bearing these limitations in mind.

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APPENDIX

List of the studies taken for the critical review

Author(s)	Date	Publication Type	Country	Grade/Level	Focus
Jian, M. A.	1984	PhD Diss.	Saudi Arabia	Intermediate boy's school	CE
Abu-Ghararab, A. H.	1986	PhD Diss.	Saudi Arabia	Secondary School	CE
Kaewsanchai, N.	1988	PhD Diss.	Thailand	College	CE
Krekeler, C. F.	1993	PhD Diss.	USA	Elementary level	CE
Lu, J.	1995	PhD Diss.	China	College	CE
Sowers, J. L.	1996	PhD Diss.	Japan	Kindergarten	CD
Wang, L. H. C.	1996	PhD Diss.	Taiwan	High School	CE
Karatas, N., & Turkoğlu, A.	1997	Article	Turkey	College	CE
Fang, Y.	2002	PhD Diss.	Taiwan	Primary and secondary level	CE
Mersinligil, G.	2002	PhD Diss.	Turkey	4 th and 5 th Grades	CE
Nunan, D.	2003	Article	Asia Pacific Region	All levels	CE
Sarı, R.	2003	PhD Diss.	Turkey	College	CD
Haznedar, B.	2004	Article	Turkey	Primary level	CE
Buyukduman, F. I.	2005	Article	Turkey	Primary	CE
Carroll, K. S.	2005	MA Thesis	Puerto Rico	Secondary School	CE
Erdogan, V.	2005	MA Thesis	Turkey	4 th and 5 th Grades	CE
Gerece, D.	2005	MA Thesis	Turkey	College	CE
Nam, J. M.	2005	PhD Diss.	Korea	College	CE
Zaid, M. A.	2005	PhD Diss.	Saudi Arabia	Intermediate School	CE
Al-Darwish, S.	2006	PhD Diss.	Kuwait	Elementary School	CE
Alwan, F. H.	2006	PhD Diss.	United Arab Emirates	Secondary School	CE
Ege, I.	2006	MA Thesis	Turkey	College	CE
Er, K.	2006	PhD Diss.	Turkey	4 th and 5 th Grade	CE
Wang, H.	2006	PhD Diss.	China	College	CE
Hu, Y.	2007	PhD Diss.	China	Primary School	CE
Lai, C. C.	2007	PhD Diss.	Taiwan	Elementary school	CE
Sun, L.	2007	PhD Diss.	Taiwan	From 1 st to 9 th Grades	CE
Tsai, T. H.	2007	PhD Diss.	Taiwan	Junior high school	CE
Yanik, A.	2007	PhD Diss.	Turkey	6 th , 7 th and 8 th Grades	CE

Dudzik, D.	2008	PhD Diss.	Djibouti	Middle School	CE
Hillberry, M. M.	2008	PhD Diss.	USA	Elementary level	CE
Karakoyun, S.	2008	MA Thesis	Turkey	Secondary level	CE
Kefeli, H.	2008	PhD Diss.	Turkey	High school	CE
Powell, J. M.	2008	PhD Diss.	USA	Middle school	CE
Sak, O.	2008	MA Thesis	Turkey	Primary level	CE
Spencer, C. H. T. S.	2008	PhD Diss.	Taiwan	College	CE
Erdem, A.	2009	Article	Turkey, Ireland	Primary and secondary level	CE
Erkan, M. A.	2009	MA Thesis	Turkey	4 th and 5 th Grades	CE
Çınar, T.	2009	MA Thesis	Turkey	5 th Grade	CE
İnanc, G.	2009	MA Thesis	Turkey	4 th Grade	CE
Kerdshaw, P. J.	2009	PhD Diss.	USA	Middle school	CE
Lundien, K.	2009	PhD Diss.	USA	Secondary level	CE
Nakaprasit, T.	2009	MA Thesis	Canada	College	CE
Orneci, D.	2009	MA Thesis	Turkey	4 th , 5 th and 6 th Grades	CE
Perez, A. N.	2009	MA Thesis	Puerto Rico	Kindergarten	CD
Amorim, G. B.	2010	PhD Diss.	Brazil	College	CE
Demirlier, H.	2010	MA Thesis	Turkey	Primary school	CE
Dönmez, Ö.	2010	PhD Diss.	Turkey	8 th Grade	CE
Harris, L. S.	2010	PhD Diss.	USA	High School	CE
Şekkin, H.	2010	PhD Diss.	Turkey	4 th Grade	CE
Topkaya, E. Z., & Küçük, Ö.	2010	Article	Turkey	4 th and 5 th Grades	CE
Yaman, S.	2010	MA Thesis	Turkey	Primary level	CE
Yiğit, C.	2010	MA Thesis	Turkey	6 th Grade	CE
Celen, G.	2011	MA Thesis	Turkey	6 th Grade	CE
Qiao, X.	2011	PhD Diss.	China	College	CE
Tucker, T.	2011	Article	Korea	College	CE
Burgos, S.	2012	PhD Diss.	Puerto Rico	Elementary ,Junior, High School	CE
Karcı, C.	2012	MA Thesis	Turkey	9 th Grade	CE
Merter, F., Kartal, Ş., & Çağlar, I.	2012	Article	Turkey	Secondary level	CE
Oraker, Ş.	2012	MA Thesis	Turkey	7 th Grade	CE
Ozer, O.	2012	MA Thesis	Turkey	8 th Grade	CE
Restivo, S.	2012	PhD Diss.	USA	High School	CE

Yörü, B.	2012	MA Thesis	Turkey	8 th Grade	CE
Altaieb, S. R.	2013	PhD Diss.	Libya	High School	CE
Wu, W.	2013	PhD Diss.	China	Junior high school	CE
Adıgüzeli, O. C., & Özüdoğru, F.	2014	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Almaliki, M. M.	2014	PhD Diss.	Saudi Arabia	Secondary School	CE
Ari, A.	2014	Article	Turkey	6 th Grade	CE
Demir, Y., & Yavuz, M.	2014	Article	Turkey, Finland, Japan, Korea, China	Primary and secondary level	CE
Glasgow, G. P.	2014	Article	Japan	Senior high school	CE
Kim, E. A.	2014	PhD Diss.	Korea	Kindergarten	CE
Kozikoglu, I.	2014	Article	Turkey	7 th Grade	CE
Küçüktepe, C., Küçüktepe, S. E., & Baykin, Y.	2014	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Mavis, F. O., & Bedir, G.	2014	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Tom-Lawyer, O.	2014	Article	Nigeria	College	CE
Alkan, M. F., & Arslan, M.	2015	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Aybek, B.	2015	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Çankaya, P.	2015	MA Thesis	Turkey	3 rd Grade	CE
Demir, O., & Duruhan, K.	2015	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Demirtaş, Z., & Erdem, S.	2015	Article	Turkey	5 th Grade	CE
Iyitoglu, O., & Alci, B.	2015	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Nonthaisong, K.	2015	PhD Diss.	Thailand	Secondary level	CE
Özüdoğru, F., & Adıgüzeli, O. C.	2015	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Yıldırın, C., & Tanrıseven, I.	2015	Article	Turkey	2 nd Grade	CE
Kandemir, A.	2016	MA Thesis	Turkey	2 nd grade	CE
Zorba, M. G., & Arkan, A.	2016	Article	Turkey	9 th Grade	CE

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Exploring Research Methods in Language Learning-teaching Studies

Vahid Nimehchisalem*

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Corresponding Author: Vahid Nimehchisalem, E-mails: vahid@upm.edu.my; nimechie@gmail.com

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ABSTRACT

Research methods offer authentic ways to elicit useful data based on which informed decisions can be made. With respect to their design and data collection or analysis, research methods are traditionally divided into qualitative and quantitative types, each with its strengths and weaknesses. In response to new theories and technological developments, new methods have evolved as extensions of qualitative or quantitative methods or as combinations of the two with promising features. This article presents an overview of the common methods used in language learning-teaching research.

PHILOSOPHY OF RESEARCH

Research means a systematic way of determining a problem and then collecting and analyzing relevant data to solve the problem. Research methods are approaches that have stood the test of time in helping researchers obtain valid and reliable outcomes and helping policy makers make informed decisions. Research in the area of language learning has focused on diverse topics, such as language assessment, form/meaning-focused instruction, learners' affective and cognitive differences, extracurricular activities, technology and flipped classroom, team teaching, and work abroad among many others. Language learning uses a wide range of research methods which originated from different paradigms to study related topics. Any research method is founded upon particular ontological and epistemological underpinnings. Ontology is the nature of reality which may be viewed objectively or subjectively. Epistemology is the researcher's philosophy of research. The common epistemological paradigms include, *Positivism* (experimental testing), *Post-positivism* (context-bound experimental testing), *Realism* (credible data based on observable phenomena), *Interpretivism* (reality based on subjective meanings, social phenomena and situational reality), and *Pragmatism* (inte-

grating observable phenomena and/or subjective meanings to interpret the data). Any methodological choice indicates the translation of a researcher's ontological and epistemological views into methodological frameworks of data collection and analysis. Researchers with more positivistic inclinations tend to favor quantitative methods; those with constructivist epistemologies are in favor of qualitative methods; and finally those with pragmatic beliefs support mixed methods (Riazi & Candlin, 2014). Researchers may take three different positions regarding the distinction between qualitative and quantitative methods; for Purists, the two approaches are mutually exclusive; for Situationalists, both methodologies have merits if applied appropriately depending on the research context; and for Pragmatists, integrating the qualitative and quantitative methods is useful for initiating, confirming, and/or elaborating the results elicited via other methods (Dörnyei, 2007).

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Qualitative methods to research provide close analysis of a single case generating valuable insights. They are exploratory, offering effective ways in exploring new areas. The

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groundedness and flexibility of qualitative research allow the researcher to study real and complex phenomena in their natural contexts, resulting in valid and rich data. Qualitative research commonly entertains why and how questions and favors longitudinal examination of dynamic phenomena. However, qualitative research is less generalizable since its focus is on a single case in a unique context. With its interpretative analysis, it usually lacks methodological rigor. It may also result in too complex or narrow theories, besides being time consuming.

More qualitative studies have gained ground in recent years. Richards (2009) mentions a number of common themes which have been the focus on qualitative studies since 2000 as follows:

(i) Approaches to teaching

Exploring what happens in language classrooms, studying teachers' perceptions of communicative language teaching and their approaches to it, teacher collaboration, understanding of team teaching in numerous countries, contribution of team teaching to development of good practice, parents' involvement in their children's language development, impact of family lives on language learning, student writing and feedback, effect of learning biography, beliefs and previous writing experience on the writing process, autonomy in feedback, language environments, new aspects of interaction such as humor and laughter, classroom interaction (student questioning, problems with teachers' questioning behaviour, shift from peripheral to engaged participation in classroom literacy events, children's emergent L2 interactional competence, influence of attitudes to home language on reading behaviour, relationship between refugees' social backgrounds and their literacy development, influence of ethnicity on accomplishing literacy events, study of ESL learners' listening strategies and tactics, and new aspects of the classroom community, improved understanding of pedagogic practice; qualitative research methods under-exploited in the area of reading and listening

(ii) Identity and socialization

Exploring L2 and multilingual contexts, focusing on learners of different ages and backgrounds in different contexts, the process of classroom socialization in a variety of settings and levels, the influence of cultural and educational background on performance and classroom behaviour, use of another language inside and outside the English classroom and the concept of crossing, studies on immigrant in particular groups, educational settings, lives and careers of teachers working with marginalized youths, influence of studying abroad on identity construction, engagement with the host culture, and cultural adjustment, teacher's professional identity formation, racialized identities, religious beliefs, and relationship to place, and finally non-native-speaker teachers cultural knowledge, legitimacy, and relations with native-speaker teachers;

(iii) Narrative/Lives

Understanding the L2 learning experience from a biographical perspective, role of narrative inquiry as a

tool in language teacher development, and autoethnography of an English teacher and Japanese learner;

(iv) Other developments

Teacher beliefs, learner strategies, teacher reflection and learning to explore aspects such as time management and differences between teacher and learner agendas, and linguistic ethnography with focus on the relationship between language and social life.

Some of the commonly used qualitative data collection methods mentioned in Richards' (2009) review of qualitative studies in recent years include, in-depth interviews, between-method triangulation, online discussions from the course, videotapes of tutoring sessions, retrospective interviews, reflective papers, questionnaires, think-aloud protocols, classroom observation and documents, student journals, students' drafts, genre analysis and focus group interviews, student process logs, student developing text, student bulletin board exchanges and post-hoc interviews, conversation analysis, multiple methods (for example, recordings of classroom talk, observation and documentary evidence; or lesson observation, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions; or observation and interviews, sometimes combined with discourse analysis), microanalytic and ethnographic methods, longitudinal microethnography, open-ended interviews, self-assessment inventories, reading comprehension measures, analysis of classroom extracts, biographical interviews, introspective methods (such as diary studies and field notes). What follows presents some of the qualitative methods used in our field.

Big Data Analysis

Big data (also known as composite data) are data with big volume (>100 GB), velocity (real-time data streams $>25,000$ events per second), variety (a combination of numeric and alphanumeric data), variability (changing meaning), and veracity (high quality and accuracy).

Content Analysis

It involves quantifying and analyzing the occurrence, meanings, and relationships of words, phrases, and concepts manually or using computer-assisted techniques to achieve valid inferences and contextualized interpretations of documents.

Conversation Analysis

As an approach used for analyzing both verbal and non-verbal everyday social interactions, CA focuses on casual or task-centered conversations (for example, conversations in courts, helplines, and the mass media).

Corpus Analysis

It involves studying real-world samples (or corpora) of the language derived manually or automatically from source texts. Corpus analysts favor representative corpora which have been collected in their natural contexts in the field without experimental-interference.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

As an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse, CDA regards language as a form of social practice. Linguistic practice and non-linguistic social practice constitute one another. Critical discourse analysts are interested in how language use establishes and reinforces societal power relations.

Discourse Analysis (DA)

It is an approach to analyze language use. Discourse analysts are interested to study naturally occurring language use beyond the sentence boundary. A closely related field is text linguistics which is more concerned with text structure rather than analyzing interlocutors' socio-psychological characteristics.

Document Analysis

Usually used as a part of most triangulation schemes, Document Analysis involves looking into the relevant records and documents and then analyzing and interpreting the generated data. Documents may cover a wide range of documents such as Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA), public records, media, private papers, visual documents, minutes of meetings, e-mails, and government policies/blueprints.

Ethnography

The primary goal of an ethnographer is seeing the events through an insider's view and to focus on the participant's meaning. It involves prolonged engagement (minimum of 6-12 months) in a natural setting. Ethnographies comprise the four different phases of;

- (i) entering an environment as a stranger (negotiating the entry to find a way, reason, and role for the researcher who observes the environment);
- (ii) observing as a nonparticipant (initial interviewing, analyzing the preliminary data, and developing some ideas);
- (iii) acculturating (continuing fieldwork until the exact focus emerges and then analyzing data via progressive focusing that consists of sifting, sorting, and reviewing the data)
- (iv) withdrawing (collecting more data to resolve ambiguities, fill gaps, and verify previous findings and then gradually disengaging from the field without causing disruptions to the community).

Grounded Theory

It is a systematic methodology that results in the construction of theory by inductive analysis of data. A study that employs a grounded theory typically begins with a question or collection of qualitative data. The data are analyzed thematically (see *thematic analysis*) whereby the analyst examines the data in search of repeated ideas or patterns which are then coded. As the researcher collects more data and reviews them, more codes may emerge. Data collection continues

(reiteration) until no more new codes emerge (saturation). The codes are grouped into concepts, and then into themes (or categories) which may become the basis for new theory.

Interaction Analysis

Also known as Classroom Interaction Analysis, Interaction Analysis involves the process of analyzing the teacher's and learners' interactions. As an observation technique for collecting data on the teacher's verbal behavior in the classroom, Interaction Analysis can also serve as an effective diagnostic tool for analyzing the social-emotional climate of the classroom.

Narrative Methods

Narrative methods, also referred to as Narrative Inquiry or Narrative Analysis, involve analysis of autobiography, field notes, letters, photos, and stories, as instances of life experience, to understand how individuals create meaning in their lives. The researcher sets off by developing a research question, and then selecting or creating data, which are organized and interpreted.

Oral History

Also known as Biographical Methods, Oral History is a method used for analyzing historical information concerning individuals, communities, and events, via recordings, videos, or interviews with individuals involved in the events. The method favors information from a variety of viewpoints.

Phenomenology

In contrast to a narrative study that relates the life of a single case, phenomenology analyzes the meaning of several cases' lived experience. It starts by identifying a shared experience, locating its universal nature, identifying shared experience of several individuals, and locating essence of the experience.

Semiotics

It is the study of signs and sign processes (semiosis), metaphors, symbols, and meaningful communication. Semiotics involves the analysis of the structure and meaning of both linguistic and non-linguistic signs as a significant part of communications.

Thematic Analysis

As one of the most common form of analysis in qualitative research, thematic analysis involves highlighting, examining, and recording categories, patterns, or themes within data. It consists of six phases:

- (i) data are examined until the research familiarizes with them;
- (ii) initial codes are generated;
- (iii) codes are examined in search of themes;

- (iv) themes are reviewed;
- (v) themes are defined and named; and
- (vi) the final report is written.

Visual Methods

Visual methods involve collecting image-based data (such as diagrams, drawings, film, maps and the like) generated in the learning-teaching context under investigation. Visual methods are particularly useful when the researcher cannot directly record observations, when the researcher needs to observe learning-teaching from different perspectives, when other methods are not particularly accessible to some or all of the participants. Participants take photos or videos form their activities and create images representing their perceptions toward their environment; finally, the researcher uses these to stimulate discussions among participants.

QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Quantitative methods are used for confirming theories and testing relationships between variables. Quantitative data are numerical collected from multiple cases, analyzed by statistical methods. A typical example would be survey research using questionnaires analyzed by statistical software, such as SPSS. Quantitative studies are systematic with standardized procedures for different phases of data collection and analysis with in-built quality checks for validity. The main goal is collecting and analyzing data reliably and objectively. Quantitative research is controlled and rigorous; the instruments used for data collection or analyzing data take a long time to prepare and pilot. The focus is on the common characteristics of the sample; therefore, quantitative research deals with variables that capture these common characteristics, and thus quantitative results are generalizable. The research process is relatively quick and economical. Nevertheless, quantitative research assumes a simplistic reality, involves obtrusive measurement, gives the researcher a decontextualized outsider's perspective, is product-oriented, has limited exploratory capacity, and requires time-consuming instrument construction. Different types of quantitative methods are recognized below.

Data Mining

The term is a misnomer, since the main aim of data mining is to extract patterns from an extremely large dataset, rather than mining or extracting the dataset itself. As an interdisciplinary subfield of computer science, Data Mining involves discovering patterns in large amounts of data through computational processes. The goal is analyzing a large dataset, extracting knowledge from it, and transforming it into a comprehensible structure.

Descriptive Data Analysis

Descriptive data analysis includes simple statistical measures such as frequency, percentage, measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode) and measures of dispersion (standard deviation, variance, and range).

Inferential Data Analysis

Inferential data analysis involves hypothesis testing. The significant value (p) is calculated and based on the decision criterion (reject the null hypothesis if the significant value is smaller than alpha, $p < .05$) the results are interpreted and the conclusions are made. When a null hypothesis is rejected it provides empirical proof for the research hypothesis and the generalizability of the results beyond the sample being studied.

Latent Variable Models

Latent variables are not directly observable but are inferred through mathematical models from other variables that can be directly measured and observed. Hence, Latent Variable Models are mathematical models that explain observed variables in terms of latent variables. When latent variables represent physical reality and in fact could be measured, but measuring them is not possible, they are referred to as hidden variables (that is, they are there, but hidden). In contrast, when latent variables represent abstract concepts, such as mental or behavioral states, categories, or data structures, they are called hypothetical constructs or hypothetical variables.

Longitudinal Data Analysis (also Panel Data Analysis)

When the researchers measures a dependent variable (DV) repeatedly through time for multiple subjects, Longitudinal Data are generated, with the characteristics of both time-series data and cross-sectional data. In longitudinal studies, the dependent variable may be numeric or alphanumeric. Commonly the objective of longitudinal data analysis is modelling the expected value of the dependent variable as a function of some independent variables.

Microdata Methods (also Microdata Statistics)

A piece of observational data collected from an individual case. In surveys, microdata is information (such as age, educational level, and employment status) provided by individual respondents. Survey results are reported as aggregates for all the respondents, for ethical and practical reasons; for example, in a census, microdata may consist of thousands or millions of records, each containing many data items; therefore the data are transformed to an aggregate level to make them more manageable and interpretable. However, this can also result in information loss. As an example, if the data for education level and employment status are aggregated separately, the researcher cannot analyze them to test the relationship between the two variables. Microdata leave the researcher free to perform such analyses.

Multivariate Analysis

It involves analyzing more than one DV at a time. As an example of MVA, Factor Analysis is often used for confirming the validity of questionnaires or scales, for grouping variables under certain domains, and for removing any of the variables that is not significant in the model.

Multilevel Modelling (also Hierarchical Linear Models, Nested Models)

These are statistical models of parameters that vary at more than one level; for instance, a model of student attrition with measure for each student in addition to measures for all the students' classrooms. In studies where the data are organized at more than one level (i.e., nested data), multilevel models are suitable. The units of analysis at a lower level are usually individuals, nested at a higher level within aggregate units. In multilevel models, while an individual case is at the lowest level of data, repeated measurements may also be performed on individual cases. Hence, these models can alternatively be used for multivariate analysis of repeated measures.

Multivariate Analysis (MVA)

Multivariate analysis involves analyzing more than one dependent variable at a time. It is used to do studies across multiple dimensions while accounting for the effects of all independent variables on the dependent variables. As an example of MVA, Factor Analysis is often used for confirming the validity of questionnaires or scales, for grouping variables under certain domains, and for removing any of the variables that is not significant in the model.

Non-parametric Approaches (also Non-parametric Statistics)

These are distribution free statistical methods such as Spearman, Chi-square, and Mann-Whitney U which make no assumptions about probability distributions and normality.

Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is an extension of Pearson correlation test. It can show the direction (positive or negative), strength (negligible, low, moderate, high, or very high), and significance ($p < .05$) of the association between one or more independent variable with a dependent variable. In addition, it can predict for one unit increase in any of the independent variables, how much the dependent variable will increase/decrease. Finally, it can also indicate, the relationship between a given independent variable and the dependent variable when the effect of one or more other variables is controlled.

Structural Equation Models (SEM)

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), including various tests like confirmatory factor analysis, path analysis, and latent growth modeling, is commonly employed to test unobservable 'latent' variables. Structural Equation Models are measurement models which use one or more observed variables to define latent variables. SEM is useful in language learning research because of it can test relationships between latent variables based on observable variables.

Survey Data Analysis

Survey Data Analysis Methods are used for analyzing data collected from surveys. Survey data are commonly collected

by questionnaires. The focus of Survey Data Analysis is on methodological issues, which arise when dealing with complex sampling schemes. It can also support the researcher in dealing with missing data and measurement of error.

Time Series Analysis

Time series analysis consists of statistical methods that analyze a series of data points sorted in time order. Based on previously observed values, time series forecasting can predict future values in a model.

MIXED METHODS

Currently researchers increasingly prefer to combine qualitative and quantitative methods so as to benefit from the strengths of both methods. Mixed methods combine qualitative and/or quantitative methods during either collecting or analyzing data. The main assumption is that combining qualitative or quantitative methods provides a comprehensive understanding of the research problem. A typical example would be studies that consecutively use questionnaires and interviews for collecting data.

Mixed methods studies may be either sequential or concurrent; when researchers initially collect data either quantitatively or qualitatively, and then collect the other type of data, while the two data collection methods are mutually dependent, the study has sequentially designed mixed methods. On the other hand, in concurrent mixed designs, both quantitative and qualitative data are concurrently and independently collected (Creswell et al., 2003).

Mixed methods is commonly practiced for five purposes with respect to their contributions to research design, namely *triangulation* (seeking corroboration and convergence between the findings from different methods), *complementarity* (exploiting the exploratory strength of qualitative methods and the confirmatory power of quantitative methods), *development* (the outcome from one method informs another), *initiation* (possible observed contradictions encourage collecting more data using the other method), and *expansion* (extending the breadth and depth of the study via diverse methods used for investigating varying components of a program) (Greene et al., 1989).

STUDY DESIGNS

In contrast to research design with its broad definition as the complete research scheme or the detailed research plan, study design is used more narrowly, indicating how the study is going to be conducted. *Qualitative Study Designs* include case study (focusing on a case), focus groups (discussing with a group), participant observation (observing group members while closely interacting with them), holistic research (holistically observing multiple factors interacting in real life), community discussion forums (studying group members interacting in a forum and providing data on their attitudes and perceptions), reflective journal log (recording researcher's thoughts during the study), and so on.

Following Kumar (2010), quantitative designs are presented in three trichotomies, namely (a) cross-sectional,

before-and-after, or longitudinal; (b) retrospective, prospective, or retrospective-prospective; and (c) experimental, non-experimental, or semi-experimental. In a cross-sectional design, the participants are approached once only. Before-and-after designs investigate the changes in the participants before and after interventions. In a longitudinal study, the researcher contacts the participants more than twice. A retrospective study investigates a phenomenon that occurred in the past. Prospective studies predict the outcome of a phenomenon in the future. Retrospective-prospective studies, the existing records from the past are collected and analyzed retrospectively and then the samples are followed up to study the impact of a treatment or program in the future. Experimental studies test the effect of some intervention. Non-experimental studies look into the causes of change. Semi-experimental studies have properties of both experimental and non-experimental designs.

QUALITY CONCERN

Research validity and measurement validity are considered in quantitative research. *Research validity* involves the entire research process and is divided into internal validity (soundness of the study and research outcome) and external validity (generalizability of the results beyond the observed sample). Some of the common threats to research validity in language learning research are Hawthorne effect (behaving differently when one is under observation), practice effect (improved performance due to repeated tests), history (unexpected events changing participants' performance), maturation (participants' mental and physical change), social desirability bias (under-reporting socially undesirable attitudes). *Measurement validity* is concerned with the test scores, their meaningfulness, and interpretation. Measurement validity is divided into face validity (measuring what one set out to measure), content validity (covering all objectives), predictive validity (predicting an outcome correctly), and construct validity (comprehensiveness of domains). *Reliability* means the consistency of data. Reliability may be influenced by the wording of items, ambiguity, the physical setting, regression effect (regretting having been too positive/negative in the first test, and thus choosing to be more neutral in the second), and finally participants' moods. Reliability may be tested externally or internally. External reliability procedures are related to the collected data whereas internal reliability procedures depend on the instrument. External reliability may be tested through test/retest procedure (whether the same participants respond consistently to the same items administered twice), parallel forms (whether two separate instruments that carry the same function elicit consistent responses), and split-half procedure (dividing the instrument in half and comparing the average of the results. In internal reliability tests usually the Cronbach's alpha determines how closely a set of items are related as a group.

In qualitative research, quality concerns often arise from (i) insipid data, (ii) quality of researcher, (iii) anecdotalism (findings depending on a few well-chosen examples and are not based on critical analysis of the data) (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, quality is controlled in qualitative studies through trustworthiness which has four main components,

including (i) credibility (the truth value or internal validity of the study), (ii) transferability (applicability of the results to other contexts and external validity of the study), (iii) dependability (consistency or reliability of the results), and (iv) confirmability (neutrality and objectivity of the findings) (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

RESEARCH METHODS IN PRACTICE

Recent theoretical developments have motivated changes to research methods in the area and have questioned the feasibility of causal models. For example, the advent of Complexity Theory calls for research methods that can accommodate the dynamic, nonlinear, and open way in which language learning is viewed in this theory. Complex systems self-organize and interact across levels and timescales. Therefore, to research them one needs contextualized models that co-adapt and emerge. Language development is a complex system and it would be simplistic to isolate interrelated antecedents as independent variables. Eight methodological principles have been offered for language development research, including (i) ecological validity (context is essential) (ii) complexity (reductionism avoided), (iii) dynamic processes (changing relationships among variables), (iv) reciprocal causality (events having many interconnected antecedents), (v) co-adaptation (systems causing coevolution in each other), (vi) collective variables (variables showing the interaction among multiple systems over time), (vii) heterochronical analysis (linkages analyzed across levels and timescales), and (viii) variability (variability essential and expected around stabilities, rather than noise or measurement error) (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Several research methods are already available whose designs are appropriate for studying complex systems while others require change. As they favor wholeness and situatedness, qualitative methods, like ethnography, provide highly suitable ways to study the language system. Action research is also recognized as another useful method which allows for reciprocally interacting variables changing over time. Other promising methods include longitudinal, case-study, time-series approach, (connecting levels and timescales), microdevelopment (the study of change in behavior over a relatively short time scale, with dense corpora that involve highly intensive sampling over short periods of time, allowing us to plot multiple developmental routes to the same endpoint, offering a new process-oriented view of learning and development). For more on this topic see Granott and Parziale (2009), Computer Modeling (creating computer simulations of the systems replicating change through multiple iterations over time), Brain Imaging, and finally Mixed Methods (Discourse Analysis and Corpus Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition and Corpus Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition and Conversation Analysis).

Computer simulation research has generated two major types of models, including: neural network models (which replicate the brain while learning through self-organization) and agent-based models (which create simulations of groups of interacting agents in a sequence of events over a period of time). Neural network models have been used in research in

the area of syntax and vocabulary development. The shortcoming of neural network models is that they fail to represent the learner as an affective and social being and they focus on the learner as a cognitive being in isolation. Agent-based simulations have already been used in studies on creolegenesis, language evolution in social groups, self-organization of lexical items, and language acquisition through situated input.

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