**Key Concepts in Language Pedagogy and Their Definitions**

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| **Feb. 23** | **Collins, L. & Marsden, E. (2016). Cognitive perspectives on classroom language learning. In: Hall, G. (ed.). The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching, pp. 281-294. Routledge.** |
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| **Key concepts** | **Definitions** |
| **Automatisation** | Fast access and stable performance (whether target-like or not). (Collins, L. & Marsden, E., 2016) |
| **Autonomous learning** | The principle that learners should be encouraged to assume a maximum amount of responsibility for what they learn and how they learn it. This will be reflected in approaches to needs analysis, content selection, and choice of teaching materials and learning methods. (Richards and Schmidtt, 2010, p. 326) |
| **Chunk** | A unit of language that forms a syntactic or semantic unit but also has internal structure, for example:  (1) a unit of text that is longer than a sentence and shorter than a paragraph  (2) a unit of language longer than a word but shorter than a sentence and which plays a role in comprehension and production. (Longman LP Dict) |
| **Chunking in information processing theory** | Chunking refers to the process of taking individual pieces of information and grouping them into larger units. By grouping each data point into a larger whole, one can improve the amount of information they can remember. A chunk could refer to digits, words, chess positions, or people's faces. (porposed by Miller 1956 – US experimental psychologist). For example, a phone number sequence of 4-7-1-1-3-2-4 would be chunked into 471-1324. |
| **Classroom-based research** | Comparing the effectiveness of teaching approaches that draw learners’ attention to aspects of the language (promoting intentional and explicit learning) with those that do not (promoting incidental learning, which could be explicit or implicit). (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Spada and Tomita, 2010) |
| **Cognition** | The various mental processes used in thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognizing, classifying, etc.  (Richards and Schmidtt, 2010, p. 90) |
| **Cognitive perspective (on classroom language learning)** | The point of view on how language is perceived, processed, stored and retrieved for use on classroom language learning. (Collins, L. & Marsden, E., 2016) |
| **Conscious dimension** | The condition where learners are aware of controlling their attention. (Cowan, 2011) |
| **Corrective feedback** | A response to learners’ inaccuracies during production (Lyster et al., 2013) |
| **Declarative knowledge** | Also factual knowledge (in cognitive psychology and learning theory), one of two ways information is stored in long term memory. Declarative knowledge is information that consists of consciously known facts, concepts or ideas that can be stored as propositions. For example, an account of the tense system in English can be presented as a set of statements, rules, or facts, i.e. it can be learned as declarative knowledge. (Richards and Schmidtt, 2010, p. 156) |
| **Desirable difficulties** | The retrieval and transfer of knowledge to new situations may be more effective if the initial learning phase has some built in challenges that require additional effort. They include varying the way the learning material is presented and practiced, creating contextual interference such as unpredictability, and using testing phases as learning events for consolidating knowledge and identifying future needs. (Bjork, 1994) |
| **Dichotomy** | A difference between two completely opposite ideas or things. (Cambridge Dict) |
| **Explicit knowledge** | A better understanding of the characteristics of linguistic forms that may be learned with minimum teacher guidance would allow for more efficient use of class time. (Doughty, 2004). |
| **Foreign language mode** | The state of activation of the bilingual’s languages and language processing mechanisms at a given point in time. In other words, language mode concerns the degree of activation of the two languages in a bilingual’s mind. (Grosjean, 1998, 2001) |
| **Explicit learning** | Learning language items (e.g. vocabulary) by means of overt strategies, such as techniques of memorization. Explicit learning involves such conscious operations as hypothesis formation and testing. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p 210- 211). |
| **Formulae** | Multimorphemic sequences which go well beyond learners’ grammatical competence. They can aid fluency by allowing fast access to language but there is debate over the role that formulae play in actual learning. They might reduce processing load but they can in turn reduce expressive flexibility and accuracy. (Myles, 2004: 139) |
| **Formulaic language** | Sequences of words that are stored and retrieved as a unit from memory at the time of use, rather than generated online using the full resources of the grammar of the language. (Richards and Schmidtt, 2010, p. 229) |
| **Grammar-based approaches** | The provision of grammatical rules is followed by opportunities to practise those rules in comprehension and production with feedback, in increasingly less controlled settings. (DeKeyser, 1997; Sanz and Morgan-Short, 2004) |
| **Implicit Knowledge** | Knowledge that people can show (by their behaviour, their judgements about grammaticality, and so forth) to possess intuitively, but which they are unable to articulate. (Richards and Schmidtt, 2010, p. 274) |
| **Implicit learning** | Learning primarily by means of unconscious exposure to input, without awareness of what has been learned. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p 274) |
| **Inductive approach of learning** | Be given samples of language containing a target feature and then guided to articulate a pattern or explanation for how it is used. (Collins, L. & Marsden, E., 2016) |
| **Information processing (theories)** | A general term for the processes by which meanings are identiﬁed and understood in communication, the processes by which information and meaning are stored, organized, and retrieved from memory and the different kinds of decoding which take place during reading or listening. The study of information processing includes the study of memory, decoding, and hypothesis testing, and the study of the processes and strategies which learners use in working out meanings in the target language. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010 p. 282) |
| **Input** | Language, which a learner hears or receives and from which he or she can learn. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 286) |
| **Instruments for Research into Second Languages (IRIS)** | Enhances the generalizability of research and increases its accessibility for teachers. It is used to collect data for published research freely available. (Collins, L. & Marsden, E., 2016 p.289) |
| **Intentional - incidental learning:** | Learning something without the intention to learn it or learning one thing while intending to learn another, for example, unintentionally picking up vocabulary, patterns, or spelling through interaction, communicative activities, or reading for content or pleasure. This can be contrasted with intentional learning, for example learning by following a deliberate programme of study to enhance vocabulary or grammar. In controlled experiments, incidental learning is usually used in a more restricted sense, operationalized as a condition in which subjects are not told in advance that they will be tested after treatment, sometimes contrasted with an intentional condition in which subjects are told what they will be tested on. ( Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 276) |
| **Interlanguage** | A language system produced by somebody who is learning a language, which has features of the language that they are learning and also of their first language. (Oxford Dict) |
| **Languaging** | “Encourages learners to articulate declarative knowledge whilst working with other learners or with the teacher” (Swain, 2005). |
| **Learner autonomy** | The principle that learners should be encouraged to assume a maximum amount of responsibility for what they learn and how they learn it. This will be reflected in approaches to needs analysis, content selection, and choice of teaching materials and learning methods. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p 326) |
| **Morphosyntax** | An analysis of language which uses criteria from both morphology, the combining of morphemes to form words, and syntax, the structuring and functioning of words in sentences**.** (Richards and Schmidtt, 2010, p. 377) |
| **Output** | Language produced by a language learner, either in speech or writing. P 416 |
| **Priming** | Processing a word that has been recently encountered and activated is faster and easier than processing one that has not. This phenomenon is called priming. For example, in a lexical decision task, the decision of whether a stimulus is an English word or not will be made faster for words that have recently been presented than for words that have not been activated. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 456) |
| **Procedural knowledge** | knowledge of how to perform an activity, i.e. the “how to” level of know- ledge involved in employing a skill such as using a computer or operating a video camera.  (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 460) |
| **Prototypicality** | Highly frequent constructions serve as prototypes that learners use as a frame, or template, into which other electrical items can slot. (N. Ellis et al., 2014) |
| **Pushed output** | A teaching technique that drives students “to produce spoken language in unfamiliar areas” (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 115) and therefore leads students to focus on grammar (Swain, 1985). It is based on the idea that encouragement or necessity is the requirement for students to be pushed to produce language. |
| **Skill acquisition theory** | The learning of a wide variety of skills shows a remarkable similarity in development from initial representation of knowledge through initial changes in behavior to eventual fluent, spontaneous, largely effortless, and highly skilled behavior. This set of phenomena can be accounted for by a set of basic principles common to acquisition of all skills. (DeKeyser, 2007.p 97) |
| **Structured input** | “Input that is manipulated in particular ways to push learners to become dependent on form and structure to get meaning" (Lee and Van Patten, 2003.p 142). The guidelines for developing structured input activities include: Present one thing at a time. Keep meaning in focus. Move from sentences to connected discourse. Use both oral and written input. Have the learners do something with the input. Keep the learner's processing strategies in mind. |
| **Transfer Appropriate Processing (TAP)** | A concept asserting that it is easier to remember something that has been learned if the new situation for use resembles the learning situation. (Franks et al., 2000) |
| **Working memory** | Contemporary term for short-term memory which conceptualizes memory not as a passive system for temporary storage but an active system for temporarily storing and manipulating information needed in the execution of complex cognitive tasks (e.g., learning, reasoning, and comprehension). (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p.359) |