Summary Chapter 1: Overview of Applied Linguistics An Introduction to Applied Linguistics by Schmitt & Rodgers (2020) Dedy Subandowo

This chapter presents some basic ideas and a general overview on applied linguistics. It is divided into three sections which focusing on definition and its investigation areas, development in applied linguistics, and prospective issues for further investigation.

The writers define that applied linguistics deals with our ability to know, to use and to achieve purposes through language in real life contexts such as the classroom, the workplace, the law court, or the library. Traditionally, the primary concern of applied linguistics has been second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two. Nowadays, topic investigations have expanded into the fields of literacy, speech pathology, deaf education, interpreting and translating, communication practices, lexicography, first language acquisition, language planning and bilingualism/multilingualism. Apart from education, research finding in applied linguistics can be employed in practical ways in non-educational areas, such as authorship identification and forensic linguistics. Authorship identification uses statistical analysis of various linguistic features in texts and compares the results with a similar analysis from text whose authors are known. Carrying out analysis in forensic linguistics means establishing the probability of whether a witness actually produced a specific piece of discourse.

The interest in languages and language teaching has been investigated since the ancient Greek. Plato and Aristotle contributed to design of a curriculum as well as effective discourse with good grammatical structure. They successfully reached the highest development of dialectic to promote a philosophical approach to life. In the second half of the eighteenth century, Samuel Johnson published *Dictionary of the English Language* (1768). His publication significantly became the unquestioned authority on meanings of English. By so doing, the dictionary effected English spelling standardization. About the same time, Robert Lowth published an influential grammar book which was known as *Short Introduction to English Grammar* (Lowth, 2018). His book contained an explanation of what correct grammar should be and a result that English described by a linguistic system or part of speech was borrowed from Latin which had previously borrowed the system from Greek.

In the twentieth century, second languages were usually taught by the "Grammar-Translation Method". However, the method grew into very controlled system, with a heavy emphasis on accuracy and explicit grammar rules, many of which were quite obscure. The content is highly focused on reading and writing literacy which underlined ancient vocabulary. This method became problematic because it was focused on the ability to analyze language and not the ability to use language. Hence, it may be difficult to promote an ability to communicate orally when the emphasis was only on reading and writing practices.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, new use-based ideas with oral language exposure had coalesced into what became known as the "Direct Method". Despite the fact that this

method imitated how a mother tongue is learnt naturally, the direct method had its own problems. It required teachers to be highly proficient in the target language, which was not always possible. Also, it mimicked L1 learning, but did not take into account the differences between L1 and L2 acquisition. A key difference is that L1 learners have abundant exposure to the target language, which the Direct Method could not hope to match.

At the same time, in the UK, Michael West was interested in increasing learners' exposure to language through "Reading Method" (1937). The method focused on vocabulary management using a list of the most frequent 2000 words in English. The three methods, Grammar-Translation, Direct and Reading Methods, continued to hold sway until World War II.

During the Second World War II, American structural linguists developed a program which was emphasized on listening and speaking. This method was essentially initiated by psychological theory which was **Behaviorism that language learning was a result of habit formation.** The learners were highly motivated to learn this method and their success was sensational. This success continued on after the war and came to be known as "Audiolingualism". This method included attention to pronunciation, intensive oral drilling, a sentence pattern and memorization. Meanwhile, in 1959, this method began fall out favor because **Chomsky's idea** claimed that children form hypotheses about they tested out in practice. He argued that children were born with an ability to understand how language worked which was known as "**Universal Grammar**". They were able to understand underlying principles of language (Pronoun) and their parameters (some languages allow to drop pronoun when in the subject position). This parameter-setting might require much less exposure than habit-formation rules. Therefore, Chomsky' ideas did much to stimulate developments in Second Language Acquisition and psycholinguistics.

Hyme (1972) developed the concept of "Communicative Competence" which emphasized that language consists of more than just being able to form grammatically correct sentences. Being able to use a language in a skillful way means knowing when and where to use these sentences. Halliday (1973) offered an alternative to Chomsky's approach to language, Systemic-Functional Grammar. He argued that language was seen as a means of functioning in society. His idea emphasized on three categories; 1) ideational which consists of people facts and experience, 2) interpersonal which maintains personal relationships with people and 3) textual which expresses connections and organization within a text. In the early 1980s, Krashen focused attention on the role of input. His ideas emphasized the use of language for meaningful communication which was preferred to communicative language teaching (CLT). This concept focused on learner's message and fluency rather than grammatical accuracy. The students learnt through explicit exercise such as problem-solving activities and tasks which required them to transact information. In so doing, the learners acquired the L2 simply by using the subject matter content. By applying explicit activities, the learners were being able to develop receptive skills and it helped them overcome their fluency with sufficient levels of accuracy.

In the 1980s, development in language pedagogy and language assessment continued to rise. Tests were evaluated according to three principle criteria (1) validity 2) reliability, and 3) practicality. These principles are generally suitable for particular purposes and sets of learners including observation, portfolios, learning journals, project work, peer-assessment and self-assessment. On the other hand, technology has been advancing throughout since the mid- to late- 1940s. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) probably has had the greatest impact on applied linguistics. Learners are able to work with their own personal computer and they could access audio and video learning program. Accordingly, with new investigation area related to CALL arriving regularly, might benefit for further studies in Applied Linguistics.

Also, advancement in computing technology has made it possible to analyze large database of language, called 'corpora''. Corpora are now a key tool in Lexicography and creating dictionaries. Conducting investigation on corpus linguistics will continue to have a major influence on shaping thinking in applied linguistics well into the foreseeable future.

The mid-twentieth century, incorporating social and cultural elements into applied linguistics has been in domination of behaviorism as the overriding psychological paradigm. Similar situation occurred when Saussure differentiated language ('langue') from the actual use of language ('parole'). Chomsky's (1965) ideas seemed to be similar with as they distinguished inside the learners ('language competence') from what was outside the person ('language performance'). In the late 1960s, Labov (1970) began exploring how social factors influenced L1 language use and Tarone (1979) and others later did the same for L2 usage. A study of the interface of social factors and language use eventually developed into the field of "sociolinguistics". On the other hand, studies focusing on such issues have been blossomed in the areas of Pragmatics and Discourse analysis. Together, these fields have shown that social and contextual influences cannot be divorced from the characteristics of individual learners when language learning and use are studied.

More recently, studies related to language acquisition, processing and use have been considered the most popular trends in psychological perspective. A number of sub-fields under the umbrella term Psycholinguistics continue to grow. The sub-fields include cognitive linguistics, neurolinguistics, cognitive science and cognitive neuroscience. The studies of psychological perspective make a major influence in applied linguistics from theory to research methodology.

To conclude, because language is a structured system of communication produced by both between interlocutors and within the human mind, much of what is of interest in applied linguistics is hidden from direct view and study. It is likely obvious that the topic investigation of applied linguistics has been various including educational to non-educational sectors, and theoretical and practical studies. The views of language, language learning and language use are not static, but are constantly evolving. 3) Dörnyei_Communicative language teaching in the 21st century: The 'principled communicative approach

CLT : Communcative Language Teaching

I first look at the core characteristics of CLT to explore the roots of the diverse interpretations argue that in order for CLT to fulfil all the expectations attached to it in the 21st century the method needs to be revised according to the latest findings of psycholinguistic research Term made " **Principled Communicative Approach**"

Introduce in 1970s CLT by British and Americak scholars to promote the teaching of usable communcative skills in L2 instruction. Counterreaction to the audiolingual method dominated in the 1960s. The main goal of CLT – to develop a functional communicative L2 competence in the learner – was actually similar to the primary audiolingual objective.

The audiolingual attempt of trying to build up an implicit L2 knowledge base through drilling and memorisation. CLT methodology was centred around the learner's participatory experience in meaningful L2 interaction in (often simulated) communicative situations.

For this reason, the learning of scripted dialogues was replaced by games, problem- solving tasks and unscripted situational role-plays, and pattern drilling was either completely abandoned or replaced by 'communicative drills'.

Difference Audiolingual/CLT based on orientation:

Audiolingualism was associated with a specific learning theory – behaviourism – and therefore it was the first language teaching method that consciously aspired to build on the principles of the psychology of learning, the communicative reform in the 1970s was centred around the radical renewal of the linguistic course content without any systematic psychological conception of learning to accompany it.

the only learning-specific principle that was available for CLT materials developers and practitioners was the broad tenet of *'learning through doing'*, coupled with the only marginally less ambiguous guideline of developing the learners' communicative competence through their active participation in **seeking situational meaning**.

As one extreme, for example, people often associate CLT with a strictly-no-grammar approach, epitomised by Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis. "One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view." These contrasting stances, in fact, correspond to the psychological distinction of implicit versus explicit learning.

Explicit learning refers to the learner's conscious and deliberate attempt to master some material or solve a problem. This is the learning type emphasised by most school instruction. In contrast, implicit learning involves acquiring skills and knowledge without conscious awareness, that is, automatically and with no conscious attempt to learn them.

the main language learning model for humans – the mastery of our mother tongue – predominantly involves implicit processes without any explicit teaching: children acquire the complex system of their L1 through engaging in natural and meaningful communication with their parents and other caretakers.

the problem with implicit language learning is that while it does such a great job in generating native-speaking L1 proficiency in infants, it does not seem to work efficiently when we want to master an L2 at a later stage in our lives. Reasons for these situations :

1) (a) experiences in educational contexts – particularly in immersion programmes – that provide optimal conditions for implicit learning and yet which typically fail to deliver nativelike L2 proficiency;

2) reviews of empirical studies that specifically compared implicit and explicit instruction, which demonstrate a significant advantage of explicit types of L2 instruction over implicit types (for a seminal paper in this regard, see Norris and Ortega, 2000).

Explicit doesn replace implicit learning approaches byt the real challenge is to maximise the cooperation of explicit and implicit learning; and accordingly, finding ways of meeting this challenge has been the main driving force of developing the principled communicative approach.

The ongoing transformation of CLT

Nina Spada (2007, p. 271) explains that "most second language educators agree that CLT is undergoing a transformation – one that includes increased recognition of and attention to language form within exclusively or primarily meaning-oriented CLT approaches to second language instruction".

in 1997 Marianne Celce-Murcia, Sarah Thurrell and I suggested (Celce-Murcia et al. 1997, see also 1998) that CLT had arrived at a new phase that we termed the principled communicative approach:

In sum, we believe that CLT has arrived at a turning point: Explicit, direct elements are gaining significance in teaching communicative abilities and skills. The emerging new approach can be described as a principled communicative approach; by bridging the gap between current research on aspects of communicative competence and actual communicative classroom practice, this approach has the potential to synthesize direct, knowledge-oriented and indirect, skill-oriented teaching approaches. Therefore, rather than being a complete departure from the original, indirect practice of CLT, it extends and further develops CLT methodology. (Celce-Murcia et al. 1997: 147–8)

in research targeting the various modes of the explicit-implicit interface taking place in three central areas: (a) focus on form and form-focused instruction; (b) fluency and automatisation; and (c) formulaic language.

Focus on form and form-focused instruction (primarily concerned with linguistic accuracy and the knowledge of grammatical structures)

represent a halfway position between a concern for communicative meaning and the linguistic features of the language code, calling for a primarily meaning-focused instruction in which some degree of attention is paid to form.

Rod Ellis (2008), has drawn up the following comprehensive framework of the various form-focused options, distinguishing four macro-options:

1) Input-based options : manipulation of language input. Focus: Input flooding (an artificially increased number if example of the target language), enhanced input (input in which the target feature is made salient to the learners in some way, e.g. by highlighting it visually in a text), structured input (earner is forced to process in order to be able to provide

a required follow-up response)

2) Explicit options : direct instruction (deductive instruction), indirect instruction (inductive instruction)

3) Production option : instruction geared at enabling and inducing learners to produce utterances containing the target structure. e.g fill in the blank exercise pr text-creation

4) Corrective feedback options : implicit feedback (clarification request), explicit correction (metalinguistic explanation or elicitation)

Fluency and automatisation

In the psychological literature fluency is discussed under the broader concept of 'automaticity/automatisation', and the promotion of fluency is usually subsumed under 'skill learning theory'.

1) **Declarative input :** clear and concise rules and sufficient examples that the learner can then interpret and rehearse.

2) **controlled practice stage** (drills): opportunities for abundant repetition within a narrow context.

3) **open-ended practice stage** : the continuous improvement in the performance of a skill that is already well established

PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production)

Formulaic language (such as lexical phrases, idioms, conventionalized expressions, collocations, etc.)

It is important to note that formulaic language competence is directly linked to automatized, fluent language production.

The most principled attempt to develop a coherent approach for the promotion of formulaic sequences has been made by Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988, 2005); their proposed methodology is called ACCESS, standing for 'Automatisation in Communicative Contexts of Essential Speech Segments', and it offers a principled adaptation of communicative language teaching that aims to generate fluency by drawing on the theories of automatisation and formulaic language.

Seven principles of the principled communicative approach (PCA)

CLT to PCA (Principled communicative approach)

1) The personal significance principle: PCA should be meaning-focused and

personally significant as a whole. This has been the basic tenet of **student- centred**, **communicative language teaching** for the past 25 years, and I believe that this principle is just as valid now as when it was first formulated.

2) The controlled practice principle: to promote the automatisation of L2 skills (e.g. the training of musician and athlete)

3) The declarative input principle: PCA should contain explicit initial input components.

4) The focus-on-form principle: attention paid to formal/structural aspects of the L2's accuracy and appropriateness at the linguistic, discourse and pragmatic level. Optimal balance between meaning-based and formed based activities.

5) The formulaic language principle: pervasiveness and selected phrases in real-life communication.

6) The language exposure principle:

Extensive exposure to large amounts of L2 input that can feed the learners' implicit learning mechanisms. Needed pre-task activities (pre-reading/ listening/ watching tasks)

7) The focused interaction principle: learner participation in genuine L2 interaction.

Group characteristics and group process are relavant significantly to success or failure

1. Overview of the aspects of classroom dynamics in L2 teaching

2) Practical suggestion for teachers based on teaching experience to gain the principles of group dynamic in their classroom to good effect.

Problems: teaching goes wrong/ pleasant teaching/inspiring environment?

What makes these situation happen?—> classroom dynamic to help teahcer establish pleasant teaching.

Comments: 1) the importance of group-building from the teacher, 2) the increasing cooperation learning including a group dynamics-based approach. 3) it deals with wholes of classroom dynamics istead of small-grpup work as psychology. 4) lack of discussion if group composition (e.g. gender) and ability grouping or streaming in education.

Some definitions about "Groups" important for teaching and learning process, an instrumental behavior or attiitdinal change, as seen as source motivation to learn the L2, an isntrument as language suport and maintanance, faciliatte L2 learning.

What is Group Dynamics= It is emphasis to the scientific analysis of the behavior of small groups.

There are two crucial facts about group dynamics :

1) a group has a lifr of its own, that is individuals in groups behave differently that they would outside the group.

2) even the most different kinds of groups appear to share some fundamental common features, making it possible to sytudy the group in general.

Group dynamics relates to issues concerning group life and group characteristics, and specific research methods and research terminology.

Introduction to cohesive groups : the group structure and group composition, norms, roles and interaction patterns, group cohesion and climate, group formation and developemtm, etc.

Group Formation

problems: people may firstly experience unpleasant feelign of anxiety, uncertainty and a lack of confidence.

In this formation, two important aspects are relevant for L2 teacher: *inter member relations* and *group norms* including special kinds of activity: 1) *ic-brakers* and *warmers*

due to enhancing group formation and re-formation respectively.

Intermmember relations : must see the difference between initial attraction towards and acceptance of others. initial interpersonal attraction is a function of physical attractiveness, perceived ability of the other person, and perceived similarity in attitudes, personality, anad economic status

Acceptence means a feelign toward another individual which is non-evaluative in nature, has nothing to do with likes and dislikes, but involves rather an "unconditional postive regard"

a key concept of group dynamics could be based on intermember acceptance.

The most ccrucial and general factor in enahncing intermmeber relations and acceptance is learnign about each other as much as possible.

Getting to each other —> proximity (physical disrance.eg. sitting next to each other, contact (situation where individual can meet opportunities) and interactions (behavior).

Turners (1984) shared three factors endangerign favourbale attitudes to group members:

1) shared threat (feeling of fellowship before an exam for example)

2) intergroup competition (class competition)

3) cooperation (accomplish a group task)

4) Joint hardship (e.g carrying out some tough physical task together)

Group norms = rules that describe behaviour that is essential for the efficient functioning of the group. **Institutional norms** are also common in educatioal context (e.g. students have to stand up when answering a question, or preapring homework is compulsory). Institutional norms do not belong to real group norms unless they are accepted as right or proper by the majority of the members. **Advantage** is when someone violates, teh group is likely to be able to cope with such deviations. This group is very sensitive to the teacher's attitude. iIf the member feels that the teacher does not pay enough attention to having the established norms observed, hey are quick to take the message that you didnot mean what you said, and consequently to ignore those norms.

Ice-braker and warmers: designed in the couple of meeting was introduced in the late 1970s. Goals: ease, memorize, learn about conscious or unconscious level. For this activity needs: a period od readjustment each time, a time to re-form, to reestablish relationship, and implicitly be reiminded of goals and norms, learners can swith from mother tongue into thinking in and articulating in the L2.

Group Development (process of change until the group ceases to exist), common stage developemnt :

1) **Forming** = members show each other their public self

2) **Storming** = characterised by conflict (e.g. disagreement and competition typical of this stage)

3) **Norming**= acceptance to creat harmony among members of the group as we-feeling and trust.

4) **performing**= decreased emotionality, and increase cooperation and task orientation

The most significant recurring issue is with phases **EMOTIONILITY** and TASK ACTIVITY.

Group Characteristics= description and analysis of central features of groups and how this affect group life, including *group structure*.

the group structure refers to the patterns of relationships that emerges among its members; including *norm, status system, group roles, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure. Status system* is relevant to a certain position in the group which is of paramount important. *Group cohesion* means the strength of the relationship linking the members to one another and to group itself. This is also in line wiht group performance. Achieving cohesive through: 1) amount of time spent together, and the shared group history. 2) positive intermember relations, 3) rewarding to the members. 4) group legend and leaders.

classroom-goal-structures: students contribution toward achieving the goals (learning L2) is structured in relation to the others. Three basic types : 1) *competitive* (hinders th goal achievement of other members), 2) *cooperative* (one member facilitate goal by all others), 3) *individualistic goal struc.ture.*

The cooperative goal structure is powerful in promoting (1) intrinsic motivation, it leads to less anxiety, greater tast involvement, and more postive emotional tone, (2) positive attitudes towards the subject area, and (3) a caring, cohesive relationship with peers and with the teacher.

The Effects of the Physical Environemt on the Group

1) Arrangement of the chairs (e.g. students may put something important in their desk "private territories")

2) Personalizing the classroom (soft drinks, snacks, and music before and after the class as well as during some L2 tasks to be successful in creating a more human, relaxed atmosphere. It is also in relevance with owneship of the classroom consisting a number of private spaces belonging to the students and teachers as well.

The Role of the Teacher as Group Leader

Many teacher appears as safer and more efficient than leaving the students. There are three main characteristics of of faciliatator (1) emphatic ability (2) acceptance of the member, (congruence).

Acceptance means students may not be perfect but theyare still part of us. Empathy means feel the same wavelength. Congruent means teacher's ability to live, to be and to communicate according to his/her true self. It is of paramount importance that making is not such bigh things form learners point of view. Seen the perspective, nothign is not relaxing than having natural acceptance.

Practical Suggestions

1) spend some time consciously on group processes

2) value every member equally as a contributor to group resources

3) use ice-breakers at the biginning of a course

- 4) start each lesson with a warmer
- 5) Make a special effort to integrate new members into the group
- 6) promote classroom interaction using techniques or activities
- 7) try and and personlise the langauge task
- 8) use pair-work
- 9) small-group fun competition
- 10) role play drama
- 11) whole-group task projects
- 12) etc.

Analysing Group Dynamics includes :

- 1) the lesson as a circular unit
- 2) lesson as a method in operation (pedagogic dimension)
- 3) lesson as a social genre and
- 4) lesson as a play of personalities (social and personal dimensions)

Theoretical concept and actual classroom reality or specialist theories and teachers theories

Group Dynamics for :

- 1) Make a classroom less threatening to the teacher
- 2) develop efficient methods of classroom management,

3) facilitate the development of creative, well-balanced, and cohesive groups.

5) Dornyei_Individual_Differences_in_Second_Language_Learning

The individual difference in foreign language mainly links to aptitude and motivation generated positive correlation toward learning success.

The aim of this paper is to fill the gap the imbalance foreign learning differences.

This paper devides into four sections which are

- 1) reviewing research and theories in the areas of foreign language aptitude
- 2) learning style (cognitive style)
- 3) learner strategies (
- 4) motivation (character change)

FOREIGN LANGUAGE APTITUDE

keywords : SLA

1) *JB Carrol research study* = devising a large number of potential predictor tests of foreign language learning on the achievement scores at the end of the course instruction. The study includes (1) phonemic coding ability (2) grammatical sensitivity (3) inductive language learning ability (4) associative memory.

Phonemic coding links to perspective on the auditory component of foreign language learning.

Grammatical sensitivity focuses on language material and pssive qualities

Inductive language learning ability deals with the learner ability to go beyond the information given and to generlize, so that new language can be produced.

Associative memory concerns the linkages that are formed in memory involving psychological aspects.

2) Post-Caroll Research

Aptitude has been poorly regarded within language teaching because it is perceived as anti-egalitarian, iimutabke interpretation of aptitude is taken.

Aptitudes functions as an effective predictor in second as well as foreign language context.

Aptitude also deals with age showing that younger children have strong correlation with memory components of aptitude.

3) Foreign Language Aptitide and SLA

Phonemic coding can be related to input process; Language analytic ability (grammatical sensitivity, inductive language learning) can be related to central processing; and memory can be related to output and fluency.

Possible individual differences are there inlcuding segmentation, working memory, field-independent

4) SLA-informed Aptitude Research

the relationship between aptitude measurement and performance showing that four conditions are applied instructed (where learners were given explicit instruction); rulesearch (where learners were simply provided with material and told to search for a rule); implicit (where learners were simply provided with material which was consistent with the rule on question, and incidental (where learners were given a meaning-related task, but with the same rules built in to the material.

5) Aptitude : Conclusion

If there is a critical period for second language learning, and that totally meaning-based acquisition is a hazardous undertaking, then aptitude may well represent a constellation of individual differences.

6) Cognitive and Learnign Style

learnign situation may have strengths and weaknesses. so different style may be equally validna and advantageous. Another aspect is making contribution in different domains.

STYLE means a complexus of related characteristics in which the whole is greater that its parts. Learnning style means a gestalt combining internal and external operations derived form the individla's neurobiology, personality, and the development, and reflected in learner behavior.

Field independents are seend as more likely to analyse information into int components parts, and to distinguish the essential from the inessential. Field dependence are much

more likely to deal with information structures as wholes, or gestalts.

Ability and style are two different things

Learning style has six interrelated aspects :

1) Cognitive (concerning the preferred or habitual patterns of mental functioning)

2) Executive (concerning the degree to which the person seeks order, organization and closure, and manages his or her own learning process)

3) affective (concerning values, beliefs, and attitudes that influence what an indificual pays attention to ina learning situation)

4) Social —> the preferred extent of involvement with other people while learning

5) Psychological —> person's anatomically based sensory and perceptual tendencies

6) behavioral —> the extent to which someone actively seeks to satisfy his or her learning preferences

Developemtn of learner autonomy starts from Concrete Experience (CE), moves to observation and reflection upon that experience (RO), the conceptualize the experience at a more abstract level as a result of the reflection (AC). Transform into experience in such a way that the learner act and experiments to change nature of experience (AE) Kolb (1976 1984) published the Learning Styles Inventory.

Kolb (1976,1984) published the Learning Styles Inventory.

The different approaches to learnign style demsontrate that the terms has been widely used in literature to cover a wide range of learning patterns or orientation at various psychological and behavioral levels.

Learnign styles is similar to learnign strategies, sharing their basic theoretical shortcoming of a lack of precise definition, which results in open-ended and eclectic list of potential components

Learning styles refer to a habitual, cross-situational use of a class of learnign strategies.

7) Language Learning Strategies

Language learning stretegies is going parallel with the effectiveness of his/her own learning in the L2 field.

A good language learners = characteristics made some learners more successful than others in learning a second language.

Student success : language aptitude, motivation, active and creative participation in the learning process.

Oxford stated strategies relate to behavior but she described the scope closes to mental process instead of behavior or actions. She devide steps into 6 classes

- 1) cognitive,
- 2) Memory

3) metacognitive

4) compensation (i.e. communication) relate to language use than learning

5) affective,

6) social strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) descibe strategy involve special though or behaviours that individials use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information. Keywords include cognitive, thoughts, behaviors. 3 classes are divided (1) cognitive (cognitive and memory) (2) metacognitive, (3) social/affective

General Matching Typologies of learning strategies

1) Cognitive strategies e.g. repetition, summarizing, using images

2) metacognitive strategies e.g. analyzing, monitoring, evaluating, planning, and organizing, own's learning

3) social strategies e.g. L2 communication increase and practice the learners undertakes (e.g. initiating interaction with native speakers, cooperating with peers)

4) affective strategies involve taking control of th emoational (affective) condition and experiences in learning.

Learnig strategy in the psychological literature

include Thoughts, Emotions, and Behaviours

learning strategies occur for mlitary term. But it can be used for the implementation of a sey of procedures (tactics) for accomplising something. Meaning "Learning Strategy" refers to sequence of procedures for accomplishing learning.

Skills = existing cognitive routines for performing specified tasks, and

Knowledge skills= stimulus patterns of stored representation and associations (knowing that 7 says seven)

Action skills = transforming of input information to obtain desired results.

Strategies are the meanof selecting, combining. or redesigning those cognitive routines.

Skills are related to abilities = the extent that action skills set some sort of upper limit to the development of former.

Self-regulatory learning (learner specific perspective) = the degree to which individuals are active participants in their own learning; it is more dynamic concept than learning strategy.

It seems that learning strategy had been replaced by the superhuman person of the self-regulating learner.

Self-regulation is a very active field of research in educationla psychology with new paradigm, researcher attempt to apply learner-initiated cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational process and strategies.

From the point of view of a self-regulatory, learners are able to elevate the effectiveness of their learning styles as well as to generate motivation to learn and to find ways of maintaining their commitment when persistence appears to be flagging.

Eventually, Self-regulationa and motivation are inextricably bound together due to their

position in increasing learner achievement

MOTIVATION p. 612s

research in motivation seems rather to decline but L2 motivation studies were boom in the 1990s.

1) *The Canadian Social Psychological Approach*= attitudes related to an L2 community exert a strong influence on one's L2 learning.

Gardner (1985) assumed learners' goals are classified into

(1) *Integrative orientation*= reflects a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community. This orientation is made up by three components :

(a) Integrativeness= interest in foreign language and attitude toward the L2 community

(b) attitude toward the learning situation = comprising attitude toward the teacher and the course

(c) motivation= desire to learn the language as well as attitudes toward learning the language.

(2)*Instrumental Orientation* = language learning is associated with the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a high salary.

The Canadian Social Psychological Approach dominated the field of L2 motivation research over two decades and it came from the field of Psychology not L2 researchers.

8.2 What is motivation?

Basic understanding of *motivation deals with human behavior* (1) the choice of a particular action (2) the persistence with and (3) the effort expended on it.

Broader terms, **MOTIVATION** refers to *why* people decide to do something, *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, and *how* hard they are going to pursue.

The framework of cognitive process in motivation consists of Attribution theory, self-efficacy, and self-worth theory.

Expectancy-value theories = motivation to perform various tasks is the product of two key factors: the individual's expectancy of success in a given task and value the individual attaches to success in that task.

Attribution theory refers to how one processes past achievement experiences (success or failures)

Self-efficacy theory means to prople's judgment of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks

Self-worth theory claims that the highest human priority is the need for self-acceptance and to maintain a positive face.

Social psychological theories of action refers to the asumption that it is attitudes that exert a directive influence on people's behavior, since people's attitude toward a target influences the overall pattern of their responses to the target.

Basic challenges for most motivation theories have failed to address adequately:

(1) accounting for unconscious motives

(2) integrating emotional influences into primarily cognitive paradighms

(3) addressing the interplay of multiple parallel influences on human behavior

(4) explaining the complex interrelationship of the individual organism, the individual's immediate environment, and the broader sociocultural context; and accounting for the diachronic nature of motivation, that is portraying motivational processes as they happen in time.

8.3 Motivation in Education

Dornyei proposes a process oriented conceptualization of motivation dealing with initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desire are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and acted out.

Process oriented principles separates three phases of motivation : *Choice motivation* associated with the precautional phase, *executive motivation* associated with the actional phase, and *motivational retrospection*, which involves the learners' final analysis of the actional process once it has been completed or terminated.

The Canadian Approach Targets —> language attitudes, beliefs, and values

Self-determination theory in L2 motivation = involving a combination of external and internal regulatory factors.

Willingness to communicate (WTC) = the study of L2 speakers' willingness to engage in the act of L2 communication. Attemping to explain an individual's readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2

L2 WTC constructs some layers including a range of linguistic and psychological variables incliding linguistic self-confidence (both state and trait); the desire to affiliate with a person; interpersonal motivation, intergroup attitudes, motivation, and climate; parameters of the social situation; communicative competence and experience, and various personality traits.

Motivational self-regulation is a new era in motivational psychology exploring ways in which learners can be endowed with appropriate knowledge and skills to motivate themselves. It involves self-management skills that help to overcome environemtal distractions and competing/ditracting emotional od physical need or states.

Dornyei proposed a taxonomy of self-motivating startegies (1) commitment control strategies (2) metacognitive control strategies (3) satiation control strategies, (4) emotion control strategies (5) environmental control strategies.

9.INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES: CONCLUSIONS

The study of learning and cognitive style is problematic area.

some sub-field of the terms are needed to renew byreturning to its original roots withig psuchology and the exploring how self-regulated learning can be facilitated in the context of second and foreign language learning.

The individual difference areas are aptitude and motivation. Aptitude is relevant to acquisitional process. Motivation is related with psychology and classroom .

The potential connection between motivation and learning strategies. In other words, the effective use of learning strategies may be precisely the sort of behavior that causes motivational levels to be sustained within the learning situation.

Larsen Freeman, D. (2012). From unity to diversity- Twenty-five years of language-teaching methodology. English Teaching Forum, 2, pp. 28-38.

an illutsration from the teachers in reading class with continuing with the drill session. Giving them a cue words or phrases. This is to fill/ guess what missing from the slot including S + V agreement. The subtitution goes with question and answer and chain drill. This method is flourished in 1987.

Historical antecedents of modern methodology

Triangle Format

(1) Learning/Language Learner = learning through habits, repetition, pattern drills, and positive reinforcement. This session also mentions how L1 is used to test how the target language functioned. It is also suggested that language leearners employ more effective learning strategies than less succesful learners. Schmidt (1983) sees that the role of imitation has been seriously overlooked in recent years including memorizing sentences and phrases. This memorization brings succesful to fluency.

(2) Language/Culture, Subject/Matter=

- **Syllabus design** = language was seens as consisting hierarchically organized strata, each dealing wiht a different linguistic structure: phonemes, morphemes, and syntactic patterns. Syllaby deals with linguistic structures in sequence from simple to complex.

- Transformational grammarian focuses on sentence level syntax.

- <u>Linguistic competence</u> emphises the unconcious knowledge of language structure of the ideal speaker-listener, <u>communicative competence</u> is the knowledge of how to use language appropriate to a given social situation. When focusing on communicative competence, teachers must not insist the students to focus on grammatical rules of usage. Krashen and Terrell (1983) advised basing courses on topics (i.e., familiy, clothing, weather) and situations (i.e., a job interview, a visit to the doctor, a shipping trip). Language consists of <u>three dimensions: FORM, FUNCTION, and MEANING</u>. Teachers need to use these dimension when teaching in the classroom.

When focusing too much function, it may influence accuracy to fluency.

Kinds of Syllabus: Procedural Syllabus = does not take language as its basis at all. Students learn language through the performance of certain tasks and ectivities. **Competency-based syllabus** on the teaching of EFL = This is actually for refugees who are newly arrived immigrants to the US. *This is a survival skill for example, students will be able to identify food items, read food labels, make food purchased, and verify that they have received the correct change.*

Language related development = exapnded view language to include discourse or the structure that exists beyond the sentence level.

Now explicit teaching needs to directed to the structure of language at suprasegmental or

discourse level.Student can learn oral and written texts that both coherent and cohesive.

English for specific purposes = The language use in a certain domain needs to be analysed due to a prticular purposes involving the curriculum which is designed carefully selecting the English necessary for students to meet the language demands of their restricted domain.

<u>**Content-based approaches**</u> Popular in Canada and the United States. It links to another subject matter. <u>*Example*</u> : Bilingual education/immersion education, in which monolingual children at the elementary and secondary levels receive the majority of their instruction in the tar- get language (Swain 1981).

<u>Writing across Curriculum</u>= There be a policy to teach language across the curriculum in British schools. students receive writing assignments according to their content-area subjects, students learn to write, in addition to learning the content

<u>**Culture**</u>= It is a fact that many texts contain cultural information in the form of cultural capsules. i.e., short notes describing the differences between the native and target cultures.

(3) Language Teaching/Teacher = *Audio Lingual Method* (ALM) is still being practiced. It affects teachers and students being unmotivational and boring due to not always reflecting real communication.

Silent way= Chomskyan revolution inspired Cognitive Code. It leads to be much more actively involved in students' learning. One important aspects of silent way is the subordination of teaching to learning. Another important feature for silent way is the teachers help students to develop a way to learn on their own.

<u>Suggestopedia</u>= relates to psychological barrier, fear as well as failure. Teacher can help student's mental power by giving direct or indirect positibe suggestion in condusive learning.

<u>Counseling-learning/community languag learning= deal with "whole persons" especially</u> adult may threat in learning situation. In this method, tecger try to provide a secure learning environment in which a sense of community is fostered. Student could also take some initiative with what they learn and Community Language Learning students decide what it is they want to be able to say in the target language.

<u>Comprehension approach</u> = students spends hours at the beginning of instruction listening to the teacher speak the target language, much as children learn their L1 by attending to the language spoken to them. Children/students do not speak until they are ready to do so. <u>Two best methods</u> are T*otal Physical Response* (Asher, 1982) and *the Natural Approach* (Krashen and Terrel, 1983)

<u>Communicative</u> <u>Approach</u> <u>--></u> students' motivation will gain if they are using communicative approach. For example: practicing some function within a social context

beyond vocabulary and n sentence-level structures. This is relevant to the negotiationg meanings where the class activities are often characterized by information gap which speaker knows something the listener doesn't. The speaker receives feedback from the listener on what listener has understood.

<u>**Principled Eclecticism=**</u> language teaching methodology : goal, processes, assessment, procedures, roles, and subject-matter emphases in turn.

<u>Goal</u>= (1) many language teachers to prepare thir students to communicate in English (2) many teachers teach their students how to learn involving strategic competence (3) help students develop a full repertoire of language learning strategy that will enable their students to derive maximum benefit from instruction and to continue to learnon their own after the period of formal instruction has ended.

Process= learnig is gradual process and showing progress by initialling imperfect English. One technique to process approach is journal-keeping in which students engage in a writtem exchange with their teachers.

<u>Assessment Procedure</u>= Test, design objectively and consistence including pragmatic and communictive test due to vew of the nature of language.

<u>**Role=**</u> Learners are also encouraged to learn from each other, often through pairs, or in some cases small-group work. Learners help to direct the learning process by offering solicited feedback to the teacher on the success of the various acitivies employed. Teacher need to create a kind of environment in which the possibility of negative effect arising is minimized. Teacher should also take into account the fact that students have different cognitive styles.

<u>Subject Matter</u> The langauge that is presented by teachers should be authentic at least realistic. Students use language appropriately and accurately in a given context.

9_Mercer, S. (2008) Learner self-beliefs. Key concepts in ELT. ELT Journal, 62:2, 182-183..pdf

Self-efficacy means person's belief that they = а can be successful when carrying out a particular task : self-efficacy Perceived refers to people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own activities. respect Self-esteem to your 2 self/ belief and confidence in your own ability and value: The compliments she received after the presentation boosted her self-esteem. She suffers from **low** self-esteem and it prevents her from pursuing her goals. FLL (foreign language learning) Three key self-constructs :(1) self-esteem, (2) self-concept, and (3) self-efficacy. Self esteem focuses on the overall evaluation of one's worth or value as a person,

and she uses the terms self-esterm and self-worth interchangeably.

<u>Self-Efficacy</u> = more cognitive in nature and more concerned with expectancy belief about one's perceived capability to perform a certain task in a very specific domain. E.g., to carry out a particular type of reading or writing activity.

<u>Self-concept</u> = containing both cognitive and affective elements and is seen as less context-dependent that self-efficacy. (e.g., individual's self-perceptions in a wider domain such as learning EFL)

Language Learning strategies (LLS) : Dornyei, 2005

Stretegic learning and self-regulation. This paper underlines mostly a recent study of strategic learning to illustrate how strategy research can be conducted in the current academic environment.

The study suggested : (1) research framwork needs to be more context-specific rather than genriles across languages and learning tasks. (2) Qualitative data collection instrument over previously and widely applied questionnaire.

learning strategis can be described as conscious mental activity that contains a goal or intention, an action to reach this goal, and a learning activity (Cohen, 2007)

The claim by Dornyei adressed Oxford that a questionnaire is nor an appropriate measure of strategy use.

In 1990s lamguage learning stratgy is to examine over-arching characteristics of the language learner that could be generalised across all aspects of language learning. The same instruments are used to measure different contexts and it actually is not releavnt anymore.

Benefits for qualitative methods: statement of commitment control by students on questionnaires alone were meaningless when compared from case to case, as the type and nature of commitment. So the occurance of qualitaive method will support the data collection, the questionnaire data alone was unreliable measure.

The interview will capture and provide a bigger picture of situation of self-regulation than questionnaire allowed. simply addresses specific issue where questionnaire will not and provide complex network of association of aspects of motivation control that were unique to the kanji-learning task.

Lecturing Teaching and Facilitating = three different kinds of teaching Lecturer, Teacher, and Facilitator are different kinds of teacher.

Lecturer means a teacher in any education context (primary, secondary, tertiary, private, state, general, specialist) who has a knowledge of the topic taught but no special skill or interest in the techniques and methodoligy of teaching it. The main qualification of the lecturer is knowledge of the topic but the procedure and technique the lecturer employ to assist learning are not deeply questioned, studied, or even valued, nor do they form part of the qualification to be a lecturer.

Teacher means a teacher in any educational setting who has a knowledge of the topic and

is also familiar with a range of methods and procedures for teaching it. The development of significant personal and interpersonal classroom skill and the systematic intention to develop learner self-direction and self-evaluation are not seriously investigated nor are they a part of the qualification to be a teacher

Facilitator means any teacher in eny education settig who understand the topic, is skilled in the use of current teaching methods and techniques, and who actively studies and pays attention to the psychological learning atmosphere and the inner processes of learning on a moment by moment basis, with the aim of nabling learners to take as much responsibility for their learning as they can. The difference between teacher and facilitator puts the qualification of facilitator is having knowledge and practical expertise in all three of these areas (topic, method, and inner process)

Lecturer Part

Horizontal development links if this does not challenge my underlying values and assumption about how learning takes place not about how my teaching can affect my stuents' learning. Being horizontal also implied that such development is somehow an extension of what I already know, and, in a sense more of the same. *Vertical* development = it represents a kind of quantum jump into a new are of interest rather than an extension of a previous one.

Teacher Part

methods and techniques as knowledge expertise to help my students to learn. The methodology comes form workshops, training courses, exchange with colleagues, from teacher methodology books and articles, personal experience and experiments. Horizontal development is somehow more of the same, even if it is a refinement. The teacher who becomes a serius student can be called as a Facilitator.

Facilitator Part

Tripple area of expertise including knowledge of subject matter, skiful use of teaching methods, and developing capacity to generate a psychological climate conducive to high quality learning. Horizontal development consists of some of the approaches to facilitation that are increasingly available these days, mostly imported from outside mainstream ELT and outside general school education.

Example of teacher copying a facilitative technique (1) the teacher uses an activity that requires a degree of self-disclosure by the participants, but the atmoshere is not sufficiently supportive nor is the level of trust sufficiently high to enable the activity to run. (2) The teacher forces the students to decide for themselves (humanistic tyranny), or leaves them to self direct when they are not ready to.

Example of lecturer copying a teaching technique : (1) the lecturer, in his attempt no to lecture or tell, over-compensates and tries to elicit whta isn't there, misising the opportunity to give just what is needed. (2) the Lecturer sabotage her own attempts to set up group work by her unconscious conviction that it would be much better if she simply

told them and by her reluctance to leave centre-stage.

Listening/speaking/Reading Noticing attitudes and beliefs