BLOCK 6.
Four basic factors in language teaching methods: cognitive, affective, cultural parameters and activity sequencing
Outline (abridged)

6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
Outline (detailed)

6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.1. Objectives of this section

6.1.2. Declarative and procedural knowledge in general and applied to language learning

6.1.3. The importance of automatization in language learning


6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC and PRO

6.1.6. Pedagogical implications of the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge: Form-focused methods vs. message-focused methods
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.1. Objectives of this section

6.2.2. Introduction

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.1. What is motivation?

6.2.3.2. Three main phases of L2 motivation research:
   a) The social psychological period (1959-1990)
   b) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s)
   c) The process-oriented period (since the late 1990s)

6.2.3.3. Other lines of research in L2 motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications: motivational teaching strategies and scales

6.2.4. Anxiety

6.2.5. Self-esteem
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.1. Objectives of this section
6.3.2. Culture and language. Culture as the fifth skill
6.3.3. The concept of *culture*
6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT
6.3.5. Cultural syllabus in FLT
6.3.6. Pedagogical techniques for cultural teaching
6.4. Activity sequencing

6.4.1. Objectives of this section

6.4.2. Defining “sequencing” in FLT: content sequencing vs. activity sequencing. *Sequencing vs. grading*

6.4.3. Key issues when studying activity sequencing

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature: pedagogical and cognitive analyses
   a) The classical model of activity sequencing: Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP)
   b) Test-teach-test (TTT)
   c) Brumfit’s (1979) “post-communicative model” and Johnson’s (1982) “deep-end strategy”
   d) Littlewood’s (1981) proposal: Pre-communicative and communicative activities
   e) TBLT (J. Willis, 1996 and elsewhere; D. Willis & J. Willis, 2007)
   h) Other activity sequencing patterns

6.4.5. Prevailing activity sequencing pattern in FLT materials: The contemporary FLT materials version of the PPP (Criado, 2010, 2013)
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.1. Objectives of this section

1) Become familiar with a very important two-fold distinction of types of knowledge in contemporary Cognitive Psychology: Declarative and procedural knowledge.

2) Become familiar with two cognitive paths towards language mastery in formal settings: DECPRO and PRODEC.

3) Identify the link between Krashen’s dichotomy of “learning” vs. “acquisition” and DECPRO-PRODEC and PRO respectively.

4) Understand the advantages and drawbacks of language teaching methods and trends especially from the 19th century onwards from the perspective of declarative and procedural knowledge.
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching
6.1.2. Declarative and procedural knowledge in general and applied to language learning

✓ “The world is full of people who know a great deal about English, but who find it difficult to create a sentence in the language”. (Johnson, 2008: 101. Emphasis in the original).

✓ An important distinction in the type of knowledge that you acquire in an FL is as follows:

  - Knowledge about grammar and its underlying rules, vocabulary, pragmatic, textual and register conventions; in other words, formal knowledge.
  - Knowledge related to the skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing in order to actually communicate in the language (produce and understand messages); in other words, instrumental knowledge.
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching
6.1.2. Declarative and procedural knowledge in general and applied to language learning

✓ The technical terms to refer to *know about* and *know how-to* are *declarative and procedural knowledge* respectively.

✓ This is a distinction commonly used in skill training. For instance,
  - knowing the flight deck and the functions of every single lever does not necessarily entail knowing how to pilot;
  - knowing the ingredients of a *tortilla* does not necessarily entail being able to cook a (tasty) *tortilla*. 
6.1.2. Declarative and procedural knowledge in general and applied to language learning

✓ Declarative knowledge

- Factual knowledge or *know-that*, knowledge that we can *declare or verbalise about*.
- Explicit, conscious knowledge.
  - E.g. “London is the capital of the United Kingdom”
  - E.g. a pilot knowing the levers and functions of the flight deck.
- As applied to language, it is *formal knowledge* or the knowledge related to rules and lexis and pragmatic/textual conventions of language. In other words, it involves knowledge *about* the system.
  - E.g. “In English, the third person singular in the present simple tense carries an –s” (grammar rule)
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.2. Declarative and procedural knowledge in general and applied to language learning

✓ Procedural knowledge

- **Know how-to**, i.e. how to proceed. Instrumental knowledge.
- Automatic and implicit knowledge.
  - e.g.: Being able to cook, pilot, sew, drive, etc.
- As applied to language, it is knowing *how to use the linguistic system*; in other words, how to read, listen, speak and write.

For instance,

- the production of verbs conjugated in the third person singular in the present simple tense in English,
- within oral and written production,
- in an **automatic**, fluent way (without having to think about the formation of the structure) and, ideally, flawlessly delivered.
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.2. Declarative and procedural knowledge in general and applied to language learning

a) ‘Knowledge about’ a language is very different from ‘knowing how to’ speak/write it’. So, if your goal is to be a fluent speaker/writer in the L2, is it useful at all to understand how the L2 works?

b) What are the pedagogical implications of both stances –declarative knowledge being useful and non-useful?
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.3. The importance of automatization in language learning

✓ The role of automatization is to free valuable channel capacity so that we can concentrate on or freely think about the what (the content of our messages) rather than the how of our messages (the linguistic forms).

✓ The ultimate role of language learning is to achieve the automatization of procedural knowledge.

✓ In other words, the ultimate challenge is to be able to speak and write in a speedy, fluent and flawless performance, without having to pay attention to formal matters. The same applies to other skills: driving, piloting, cooking…

✓ The importance of automatization, then, is obvious. How does the learner automatise, i.e., move from the first stage of full attention to the state of effortless, non-conscious, automatic (and correct) production?

Section 6.1.4
As indicated in section 6.1.1, the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge is very relevant in skill training and it indeed does make sense in language learning.

Thus, if language mastery can be considered a skill, how do you think that automatization happens in language learning? Think about other skills such as piloting a plane or cooking a delicious tortilla. Which parallelisms can you draw?
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.4. Anderson’s “model of skill acquisition” or ACT-R
(Anderson, 1982, and elsewhere)

Anderson’s skill-learning model or ACT-R
(Adaptive Control of Thought-Rational)


✓ (Foreign) language mastery is best considered a skill: The skill of being able to produce and understand (i.e. process) language quickly.

✓ How does Anderson’s model of skill acquisition work?
  ✓ Declarative and procedural knowledge
  ✓ Stages in the attainment of skill mastery: declarative, procedural and automatic stages.
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.4. Anderson’s “model of skill acquisition” or ACT-R
(Anderson, 1982, and elsewhere)

✓ Stages in the attainment of skill mastery: declarative, procedural and automatic stages.

As applied to language learning…

❑ Declarative stage: Development of declarative knowledge. E.g. deductive rule presentation and extensive focused practice to internalize the rule.

❑ Procedural stage: Development of procedural knowledge –by means of extensive semi-controlled and communicative practice. Less and less attention is devoted to forms at the expense of content.

❑ Automatic stage: Refinement of procedural knowledge until it becomes automatized –by means of extensive communicative practice.
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC and PRO

1) DECPRO

✓ Anderson’s model of skill acquisition and, more specifically, the stages involved to attain the mastery of a skill, reflect:

**DECPRO**

Adults in formal contexts of learning

Krashen’s *learning*

a conscious process in which learners attend to forms, infer rules and are aware of the whole process.
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC and PRO

1) DECPRO

- Sometimes, learners in the final stage of skill acquisition may lose the declarative knowledge of the rule, although this is not necessarily the case (Anderson, 1982: 383, Johnson, 1996: 96; DeKeyser, 1998: 49).

REAL-LIFE EXAMPLE from your teacher R. Criado:

- Whenever I have to phone the Computer service at the University because I have a problem with my office computer, they ask my password to start a session. I myself am not able to state or declare my password unless I actually do press the keys.

- In other words, the knowledge is automatized in my fingers.

- As a teacher of English, I consider my linguistic level to be reasonably fluent for this job and, at the same time, I am able to remember the underlying rules and forms of the system so that I can explain those to my students.
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC, and PRO

1) DECPRO

✓ The DECPRO sequence of learning: A too strict account of skill acquisition?

✓ Let us answer this question from a cognitive and language learning perspective:

   □ In cognitive terms:

      ▪ Sánchez, 1993
      
      ▪ “[…] in the mastery of skills in general, we may directly proceduralise knowledge, without going through the declarative” (Johnson, 1996: 97).

      ▪ *It is too strong to argue that procedural knowledge can never be acquired without a declarative representation or that the declarative representation always has to be in the form of an example that is used in an analog process.*

      (Anderson & Fincham, 1994: 1323)
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC and PRO

1) DECPRO

✓ The DECPRO sequence of learning: A too strict account of skill acquisition?

⊙ In cognitive terms

⊙ In language learning terms:

  ▪ Subjects who do not attend formal classes but learn the language *naturally* as in L1 acquisition, especially oral language.
  
  ▪ E.g. immigrants with urgent communicative needs.

PRO

Krashen’s “acquisition”

a “natural”, subconscious process where there is no conscious focusing on linguistic forms
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC and PRO

2) PRO

PRO = Krashen’s “acquisition”

- L2 acquirers just listen to native speakers and try to imitate them. They do not pay attention to formal aspects as this could slow down the expression of their messages.

  Output is more likely to draw on language chunks rooted in meaning (O’Malley et al., 1987).

- Chunks: very effective in communicative terms
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC and PRO

2) PRO

- Some problems with PRO alone…

If ill-formed chunks are proceduralised and automatised, there emerges the danger of fossilization or “stabilization of erroneous forms” of the language (Selinker, 1972, Selinker & Lakshmanan, 1992; Han, 2004, 2009; Han & Odlin, 2006).

What are the pedagogical implications of the dangers related to the cognitive sequence PRO alone?
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching
6.1.5. DECPRO, PRODEC and PRO

3) PRODEC

✓ After reporting an ensemble of CLT and CBI studies (e.g., Day & Shapson, 1991; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Harley, 1989; Lyster, 2004; Sheen, 2005; White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991), Spada and Lightbown (2008: 184) conclude that

Thus, both research and teaching experience have led to a growing consensus that instruction is most effective when it includes attention to both form and meaning.

↓


- In cognitive terms, PRODEC means adding declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge;
- In teaching terms, PRODEC means adding form-focused instruction to communicative activities.

PRODEC = Krashen’s “learning”
6.1. Cognitive factors in language teaching

6.1.6. Pedagogical implications of the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge: Form-focused methods vs. message-focused methods
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.1. Objectives of this section

1) Identify some of the major factors affecting the teaching of second languages or foreign language: Affective or emotional factors.

2) Know and evaluate the impact of affective factors which contribute to the learning of foreign languages, especially motivation, in order to maximise the potential of the teaching action to trigger students’ positive levels of affective variables.
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.2. Introduction

Definition of affect:
A term referring to a number of emotional factors that may influence language learning and use. These include basic personality traits such as shyness, long-term but changeable factors such as positive and negative language attitudes, and constantly fluctuating states such as enthusiasm, anxiety, boredom, apathy or elation. One theory suggests that affective states are largely determined by the balance between the subjectively assessed level of challenge in an activity and the subjectively assessed level of skill that one brings to that activity. For example, when faced with classroom tasks that are much higher than their level of skill, language learners feel anxious and frustrated; when given tasks that are well below their ability level, they feel bored; giving learners interesting tasks that are challenging but within their ability is most likely to elicit a positive affective response.

(Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 16. Our highlighting)
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.2. Introduction

✓ Affective factors are one of the types of individual variables (IDs) distinguished in the SLA literature, together with intelligence, ability/aptitude, personality traits, learning/cognitive styles, learner beliefs (for reviews on IDs, see Dörnyei, 2005; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Skehan, 1989).

✓ In this unit we are going to concentrate on the following types of affective factors: motivation (which receives special emphasis), anxiety and self-esteem. Some authors locate the last three within personality traits (e.g. Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

✓ Affect has a bearing on the way information is encoded in the brain and subsequently recalled (Oxford, 1990).

✓ In fact, affective strategies are as crucial as cognitive and metacognitive strategies for successful language learning (Hurd, 2008).

✓ Emotional factors may be positive or negative. Technically they are often referred to as ‘filters’.

✓ Affective factors can be negatively or positively induced in the classroom through the activities implemented.
What is motivation in general?

✓ Motivation is one of the two key learner characteristics that determine the rate and the success of foreign language (L2) learning (the other being aptitude).

(Dörnyei, 2004: 425)

✓ Motivational factors can in fact override language aptitude (Dörnyei, 2005; Sternberg, 2002).

✓ There are many definitions of motivation in the psychological literature. Still, it is generally accepted that motivation has two dimensions: quantitative –the goal or direction of learning– and qualitative –the intensity of the effort invested (Dörnyei, 2004).
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.1. What is motivation?

✓ Two selected definitions of motivation:
  
  a) “Motivation to learn a foreign language involves all those affects and cognitions that initiate language learning, determine language choice, and energise the language learning process” (Dörnyei, 2004: 425)

  b) “Motivation refers to a combination of the learner’s attitudes, desires and willingness to expend effort in order to learn the second language” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 377)

✓ L2 motivation is a complex, multifaceted construct which consists of several key elements related to the L2: attitudes towards the L2, the language learner (e.g. self-confidence or need for achievement), and the language learning situation (e.g. the appraisal of the L2 course or the teacher) (Dörnyei, 2004).
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching
6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.2. Three main phases of L2 motivation research

Three main phases of L2 motivation research may be distinguished (Dörnyei, 2004, 2005):


b) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s), with work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology (Brown, 1990; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Skehan, 1990; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Williams & Burden, 1997)

c) The process-oriented period (since the late 1990s). Interested in the study of motivational change (Dörnyei, 2000; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, etc.)
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.2. Three main phases of L2 motivation research

a) The social psychological approach to L2 motivation

- Initial results obtained in Gardner & Lambert (1972).
- Second Language context: English-native speakers learning French in Canada.
- “Students’ attitudes towards the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language” (Gardner, 1985: 6).
- Ample empirical support (see Gardner, 2010, for a review)
- SLA and L2 motivation involve a heavily marked social dimension – as derived from the influences of the social context and the relational patterns between the language communities, both of which measured by the individual’s social attitudes.
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.2. Three main phases of L2 motivation research

a) The social psychological approach to L2 motivation

- On the basis of the empirical findings obtained from numerous studies, Gardner developed his own theory of L2 motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, 2010, etc.)

- There are two very important elements in this model:
  1) Two categories of language learner goals:
     - Integrative orientation. Found in learners’ contexts which are socially or culturally oriented.
     - Instrumental orientation. Found in learners’ contexts which are academic or career-related.

With the information provided about their learners’ contexts, can you define both types of orientation in more detail?
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.2. Three main phases of L2 motivation research

b) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s)

Discussion of the topic of motivation in second-language (SL) learning contexts has been limited by the understanding the field of applied linguistics has attached to it. In that view, primary emphasis is placed on attitudes and other social psychological aspects of SL learning. This does not do full justice to the way SL teachers have used the term motivation. Their use is more congruent with definitions common outside social psychology, specifically in education.

(Crookes & Schmidt, 1991: 469)
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.2. Three main phases of L2 motivation research

b) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s)

- In other words: this new view on motivation was triggered by the need to pay attention not only to the socio-cultural aspects of natural L2 learning, but also to the educational aspects of instructed language acquisition. Also,

- There was a general endeavour to develop extended motivational paradigms by complementing the social psychological approach with a number of (mainly but not exclusively) cognitive concepts imported from mainstream psychology.

(Dörnyei, 2004: 427)

- The two most elaborate proposals in this period are Dörnyei’s (1994) and Williams & Burden’s (1997) frameworks of L2 motivation.

See both frameworks in Block 6 in the Resources section of SAKAI.

What are the main differences between both frameworks?
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.2. Motivation

6.2.3.2. Three main phases of L2 motivation research

c) The process-oriented period (since the 2000s)

- “A dynamic view of motivation, trying to account for changes in motivation over time” (Dörnyei, 2001: 19)

Why do you think that Dörnyei was interested in including a time dimension or a temporal axis in a motivation model applied to classroom learning?

- Three phases (Dörnyei, 2000)
  - Preactional stage: Choice motivation
  - Actional stage: Executive Motivation
  - Postactional stage: Motivational Retrospection
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching
6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.3. Other lines of research in L2 motivation

☑ Besides the three above mentioned theories on L2 motivation, there exist two further lines of research on L2 motivation which have had considerable weight in the SLA literature:


2) Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Noel, Clément & Pelletier, 1999; Vallerand, 1997).
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.3. Other lines of research in L2 motivation


✓ Schumann developed a model of affect in L2 acquisition centred around five dimensions along which a number of stimulus appraisals are made:

- Novelty (degree of unexpectedness/familiarity), pleasantness (attractiveness), goal/need significance (whether the stimulus is instrumental in satisfying needs or achieving goals), coping potential (whether the individual expects to be able to cope with the event), and self and social image (whether the event is compatible with social norms and the individual’s self-concept).

   (Dörnyei, 2004: 429)

Schumann (1999: 167) concluded that “positive appraisals of the language learning situation […] enhance language learning and negative appraisals inhibit second language learning”.
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.3. Other lines of research in L2 motivation


- The main motivational components are **intrinsic and extrinsic motivation**.

  - **Intrinsic motivation** concerns behaviour performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one’s curiosity.

  - **Extrinsic motivation** involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment.

Human motives can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation.  

(Dörnyei, 2001: 11)
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications:
Motivational teaching strategies and scales

1. Dörnyei’s (2001) framework of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom

2. Sánchez’s (1993) scale for measuring the motivational potential of activities

6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications:
Motivational teaching strategies and scales

- A very important outcome of the educational paradigm in L2 motivation research was that increasing studies were devoted to examine how to motivate rather than analysing what motivation is.
- As a result, several proposals of motivational teaching techniques emerged during the 1990s (Brown, 1994; Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997)
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications: motivational teaching strategies and scales


See the file entitled Block 6 Dörnyei 2001 Motivational teaching practice in Block 6 in the Recursos section from SAKAI.
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications: motivational teaching strategies and scales

2. Sánchez’s (1993) scale for measuring the motivational potential of activities

- Sánchez (1993) argues that the external sources of motivation for students in the FL classroom can be found in
  - The global teaching materials
  - The specific activities implemented
  - The teachers
  - The contextual elements of the classroom

- Sánchez considers that the unit that makes teaching effective in the classroom is activities

Thus, he devised a motivation scale to discover the potential of activities for triggering motivation. As can be seen in the next slide, his scale is very comprehensive.
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications: motivational teaching strategies and scales

2. Sánchez’s (1993) scale for measuring the motivational potential of activities

   ✓ This is the list of the 19 items that shape the scale (Sánchez, 1993: 117-118):

   1. interés del contenido
   2. novedad del contenido
   3. planteamiento de una tarea a realizar
   4. tipo de problema planteado: que exija solución
   5. existencia de un reto en la solución del problema planteado
   6. compleción de un vacío de saber
   7. creatividad propiciada por la actividad
   8. participación de otros sentidos (vista, oído...)
   9. existencia de un premio
  10. carácter lúdico
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications: motivational teaching strategies and scales

2. Sánchez’s (1993) scale for measuring the motivational potential of activities

This is the list of the 19 items that shape the scale (Sánchez, 1993: 117-118):

12. posibilidad de éxito en la tarea
13. refuerzo de la personalidad en la tarea
14. estrategia de trabajo
15. tarea susceptible de entretener
16. percepción de utilidad en la tarea
17. éxito obtenido en tareas similares
18. curiosidad suscitada por la actividad.
19. novedad y cambio respecto a lo habitual.
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications: motivational teaching strategies and scales

2. Sánchez’s (1993) scale for measuring the motivational potential of activities

- Sánchez’s scale consists of 19 items which are considered on a continuum rather than as discrete, indivisible items. This means that such 19 items can have a motivational intensity ranging from 0 (no intensity) to 10 (maximum intensity) as in the following figure:

```
0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9  10
```

Read chapter 5 in Sánchez (1993) to learn how to apply this scale as illustrated in two examples. You will need it to tackle the Practice activities of this unit.

- Although Sánchez’s scale has not been empirically validated, to the best of our knowledge there are not any other scales with the same purposes that have been validated either.

- An empirically tested list of ten macro-motivational strategies without reference to their application in activities can be found in Dörnyei & Csizér’s (1998).
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications:
- motivational teaching strategies and scales


1. Does the technique appeal to the genuine interests of your students? Is it relevant to their lives?
2. Is the technique presented in a positive, enthusiastic manner?
3. Are students clearly aware of the purpose of the technique?
4. Do students have some choice in: (a) choosing some aspect of the technique? and/or (b) determining how they go about fulfilling the goals of the technique?
5. Does the technique encourage students to discover for themselves certain principles or rules (rather than simply being "told")?
6. Does it encourage students in some way to develop or use effective strategies of learning and communication?
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.3. Motivation

6.2.3.4. Pedagogical implications: motivational teaching strategies and scales


7. Does it contribute - at least to some extent - to students' ultimate autonomy and independence (from you)?

8. Does it foster cooperative negotiation with other students in the class? Is it a truly interactive technique?

9. Does the technique present a "reasonable challenge"?

10. Do students receive sufficient feedback on their performance (from each other or from you?)

(Brown, 2002: 15)

Which approaches or methods does this list remind you of?

2, 3, 4
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.4. Anxiety

✓ “Anxiety is quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process” (Arnold & Brown, 1999: 8).

✓ Anxiety is “Subjective feelings of apprehension and fear associated with language learning and use” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 516).

✓ Problems with the conceptualization and effects of “anxiety” on language performance:
  - Is it a motivational component? A personality trait? An emotion?
  - Not an unitary factor but a multifaceted concept with many constituents.
  - Is anxiety a cause or an effect of poor achievement?
  - What is the relationship between anxiety and different kinds of language performance –skill-based, etc.?
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.4. Anxiety

✓ Two important anxiety distinctions are as follows:

• **Beneficial/facilitating vs. inhibitory/debilitating anxiety:** It has been observed that anxiety does not necessarily inhibit performance but in some cases can actually promote it. 'Worry,' which is considered the cognitive component of anxiety, has been shown to have a negative impact on performance, whereas the affective component, emotionality, does not necessarily have detrimental effects.

• **Trait vs. state anxiety:** Trait anxiety refers to a stable predisposition to become anxious in a cross-section of situations; state anxiety is the transient, moment-to-moment experience of anxiety as an emotional reaction to the current situation.

(Dörnyei, 2005: 198)
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.4. Anxiety

✓ Scales have been devised in an attempt to measure language anxiety levels (for a review, see Horwitz, 2001)

✓ There is a plethora of studies which show that language anxiety negatively influences L2 performance (see Dörnyei, 2005).

*The results of these studies of language anxiety suggest that anxious students will have lower levels of verbal production [...] and will be reluctant to express personally relevant information in a second-language conversation.*


✓ From a pedagogical perspective, several language teaching methods and approaches have tried to counteract the negative effects of anxiety.

Can you think of such methods and approaches?
6.2. Affective factors in language teaching

6.2.5. Self-esteem


✓ Global self-esteem refers to “individuals’ overall evaluation or appraisal of themselves, whether they approve or disapprove of themselves, like or dislike themselves” (Higgins, 1996: 1073. In Dörnyei, 2005: 211).

✓ A person’s judgement of his/her own worth and value is based on a feeling of “efficacy” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 517).

✓ Self-efficacy, a concept closely related to self-esteem, is “a person’s belief in their own capabilities and their ability to attain specific goals” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 517).

✓ Self-esteem is also closely related to “self-confidence” (Valentine, DuBois & Cooper, 2004).

✓ Benefits of high self-esteem (Dörnyei, 2005)
  a) Clearer sense of direction regarding students’ priorities and goals.
  b) A resource to cope with failure
     In all: positive effects on language learning.

✓ Low self-esteem may negatively influence language learning.
From a pedagogical viewpoint, which language teaching approaches and methods have welcomed the consideration of students’ self-esteem?
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.1. Objectives of this section

1) Understand the link between language and culture
2) Understand the importance of culture in FLT and the development of plurilingual, pluricultural and intercultural competences
3) Analyse how language teaching methods from the 19th century onwards have approached the issue of cultural teaching
4) Understand the difference between sociocultural knowledge and intercultural awareness
5) Learn about the goals and contents of a culturally based syllabus: from lexical units to para- and extra-linguistic dimensions (paralanguage, kinesics, proxemics, chroxemics)
6) Learn about the pedagogical procedures to introduce culture in the FL classroom
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.2. Culture and language. Culture as the fifth skill

✓ A thorough understanding of the language can only be gained by understanding the cultural context which has produced it.

(Byram et al., 1994: 11)

✓ It is well-accepted nowadays that it is not possible to teach language without teaching the culture where it is embedded, as both are intrinsically intertwined.

✓ Besides the link of culture with language, culture is also intrinsically linked with students’ motivation as it is assumed that it will contribute to shape their attitudes towards the L2 language and learning.

Section 6.2

✓ Sapir-Whorf’s hypothesis or Whorfian hypothesis: a landmark in the study of the relationship between language and culture or linguistic relativity (Sapir, 1949, and Whorf, 1956).
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.2. Culture and language. Culture as the fifth skill

✓ Any language shapes and models the way we perceive the world, as shown in the conceptualisation and categorisation of reality detected in people’s native language.

✓ No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached... We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation.

(Sapir, 1959: 69)

✓ We cut nature up, organize it into concepts, and ascribe significances as we do, largely because we are parties to an agreement to organize it in this way - an agreement that holds throughout our speech community and is codified in the patterns of our language.

(Whorf, 1956: 214)
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.2. Culture and language. Culture as the fifth skill

✔ In the last twenty years or so, there have been serious attempts at integrating culture teaching in FL courses. The CEFR (2001), for example, emphasises the need to develop plurilingual and intercultural competences.

✔ There is even consensus on considering culture the fifth language skill—in addition to the four traditional skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing:

Up until recently, I assumed that if you learned the language, you learned the culture but actually it isn’t true. You can learn a lot of cultural features but it doesn’t teach you sensitivity and awareness or even how to behave in certain situations. What the fifth language skill teaches you is the mindset and techniques to adapt your use of English to learn about, understand and appreciate the values, ways of doing things and unique qualities of other cultures. It involves understanding how to use language to accept difference, to be flexible and tolerant of ways of doing things which might be different to yours. It is an attitudinal change that is expressed through the use of language.

(Tomalin, 2009.

http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/articles/culture-fifth-language-skill

Our highlighting)
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.3. The concept of culture

✓ “Culture is one of the two or three most complicated words in the English Language” (Williams, 1983: 87).

What is culture for you? Is it an unambiguous concept?
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.3. The concept of culture

Culture derives from agriculture. From the 18th century onwards: To be cultured -or metaphorically, to be cultivated- was to be civilised. (Pulverness, 2003).

Two historical stages (Stern, 1992) corresponding to Culture with a capital “C” and culture with a small “c”:

a) Before WWI:
   The study of language was complemented by a study of its literature. For that purpose, cultural teaching included the study of the target language history, institutions, geography and its national heritage (accomplishments in arts, scientific discoveries, sports, etc.).

b) After WWII:
   Anthropology and sociology drew the attention to culture as a way of life or lifestyle.
   This concept is hard to define, but it refers to typical behaviour in daily situations, i.e. personal relations, family life, value systems, philosophies, in fact the whole of the shared social fabric that makes up a society.
   (Stern, 1992: 207)

At the same time: from the 1960s onwards sociolinguistics focused on socio-cultural aspects of the language itself
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.3. The concept of culture

Which historical stage above do you think that reflects Culture? Which one do you think that corresponds to culture?

✓ Another approach to study the concept of culture is Weaver’s (1993) distinction between external and internal aspects of culture, which is visually expressed in the “iceberg metaphor”: 
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.3. The concept of *culture*

The iceberg metaphor. Source: http://home.snu.edu/~hculbert/iceberg.htm
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.3. The concept of culture

Which aspects of culture do you think that are covered by the iceberg part above sea-level and which ones by the part of the iceberg below sea-level?
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

1) Proficiency goals
2) Cognitive goals
3) Affective goals
4) Behavioural goals
5) Goals established by the CEFR (2001)

(Stern, 1992)
3. Culture in language teaching

3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

1) Proficiency goals

Mostly related to lexis. Cultural connotations of words and phrases plus pitch, rhythm and intonation.

E.g. Desayuno/breakfast.

Do Spanish and British people refer to the very same concept by desayuno and breakfast? What are the differences?


 [...] “the first attempt to link language and culture in an educationally relevant way” (Kramsch, 2001: 201)

EMUs: elementary meaning units (or basic units of meaning associated to linguistic units)

– Neck: cuello (humans) and pescuez (animals)
– Back: espalda (humans), lomo (animals)
– Leg: pierna (humans), pata (animal)
– Lindo (beautiful) is much more used in Latin America than in Spain...
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

1) Proficiency goals

What do you think about the EMUs? Do you think that they are enough to cover the two aforementioned types of culture – Culture and culture?
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

2) Cognitive goals

✓ Knowledge about the target culture, awareness of its characteristics and of differences between the target culture and the learner’s own culture; and a research-minded outlook, i.e. willingness to find out, to analyse, synthesise, and generalise.

(Stern, 1992: 214)

✓ Plus: understanding the sociocultural implications of language and language use.

3) Affective goals

Interest, intellectual curiosity, and empathy (Stern, 1992).

4) Behavioural goals

• Receptive level: students should be able to interpret culturally relevant behaviour

• Expressive level: students should have the ability to conduct themselves in culturally appropriate ways. (Stern, 1992)

Behavioural goals also include *kinesics* (body language), *proxemics* (the use of space) and *chronemics* (the use of time).
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

5) Cultural goals established by the CEFR (2001)

To develop pluricultural and intercultural competence

The learner [of a second or foreign language and culture] does not simply acquire two distinct, unrelated ways of acting and communicating. The language learner becomes plurilingual and develops interculturality.

(CEFR, 2001: 43)

Plurilingual and pluricultural competence refers to the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. This is not seen as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences, but rather as the existence of a complex or even composite competence on which the user may draw.

(CEFR, 2001: 168. Our highlighting)

Knowledge of the shared values and beliefs held by social groups in other countries and regions, such as religious beliefs, taboos, assumed common history, etc., are essential to intercultural communication.

(CEFR, 2001: 11. Our highlighting)
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

5) Cultural goals established by the CEFR (2001)

✓ Intercultural competence is “The ability to interact effectively with people from cultures that we recognise as being different from our own” (Guilherme, 2004: 297)

✓ Intercultural competence heavily relies on the attainment of intercultural awareness, which is not to be confused with socio-cultural knowledge:
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

5) Cultural goals established by the CEFR (2001)

5.1 General competences

5.1.1 Declarative knowledge (savoir)
   5.1.1.1 knowledge of the world
   5.1.1.2 sociocultural knowledge
   5.1.1.3 intercultural awareness

5.1.2 Skills and know-how (savoir-faire)
   5.1.2.1 practical skills and know-how
   5.1.2.2 intercultural skills and know-how

5.1.3 Existential competence (savoir-être)

5.1.4 Ability to learn (savoir-apprendre)
   5.1.4.1 language and communication awareness
   5.1.4.2 general phonetic skills
   5.1.4.3 study skills
   5.1.4.3 heuristic skills
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

5) Cultural goals established by the CEFR (2001)

5.1.1.2. Sociocultural knowledge
Strictly speaking, knowledge of the society and culture of the community or communities in which a language is spoken is one aspect of knowledge of the world. It is, however, of sufficient importance to the language learner to merit special attention, especially since unlike many other aspects of knowledge it is likely to lie outside the learner’s previous experience and may well be distorted by stereotypes.

(CEFR, 2001: 102)
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.4. Cultural goals in FLT

5) Cultural goals established by the CEFR (2001)

5.1.1.3. Intercultural awareness

Knowledge, awareness and understanding of the relation (similarities and distinctive differences) between the ‘world of origin’ and the ‘world of the target community’ produce an intercultural awareness. It is, of course, important to note that intercultural awareness includes an awareness of regional and social diversity in both worlds. It is also enriched by awareness of a wider range of cultures than those carried by the learner’s L1 and L2. This wider awareness helps to place both in context. In addition to objective knowledge, intercultural awareness covers an awareness of how each community appears from the perspective of the other, often in the form of national stereotypes.

(CEFR, 2001: 103)

The process of becoming interculturally competent is more complex than just realising that there is a ‘They’ and a ‘We’. It entails awareness of the ever-evolving and struggling web of intra- and intercultural meanings.

(Guilherme, 2004: 299)
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.5. Cultural syllabus in FLT

- How to balance cultural goals versus language goals in an FL course?
  - Should culture be peripheral or should cultural aspects be defined in a cultural syllabus complementary to the language syllabus?
  - No clear-cut answers for these questions (see Stern, 1992, for a review)

However, which variable do you think that could shed some light on this issue and justify one or another option?

- More questions include the issue of which cultural units to include and in which order.

- Stern proposes the inclusion of the following aspects that “the average language learner is most likely to require” (Stern, 1992: 219):
  Places, individual persons and way of life, people and society in general, history, institutions, art, music, literature, and other major achievements.

To which cultural category do the above aspects belong: Culture or culture?
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.5. Cultural syllabus in FLT

☑ To Stern’s aspects we could also add the distinctive features of a European society and its culture as distinguished by the CEFR (2001: 102-103). These could apply to Western countries which do not belong to the Old Continent:

1. **Everyday living**, e.g.:
   - food and drink, meal times, table manners;
   - public holidays;
   - working hours and practices;
   - leisure activities (hobbies, sports, reading habits, media).

2. **Living conditions**, e.g.:
   - living standards (with regional, class and ethnic variations);
   - housing conditions;
   - welfare arrangements.
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.5. Cultural syllabus in FLT

✓ To Stern’s aspects we could also add the distinctive features of a European society and its culture as distinguished by the CEFR (2001: 102-103). These could apply to Western countries which do not belong to the Old Continent:

3. Interpersonal relations (including relations of power and solidarity)  
   e.g. with respect to:
   – class structure of society and relations between classes;
   – relations between sexes (gender, intimacy);
   – family structures and relations;
   – relations between generations;
   – relations in work situations;
   – relations between public and police, officials, etc.;
   – race and community relations;
   – relations among political and religious groupings.
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.5. Cultural syllabus in FLT

✓ To Stern’s aspects we could also add the distinctive features of a European society and its culture as distinguished by the CEFR (2001: 102-103). These could apply to Western countries which do not belong to the Old Continent:

4. Values, beliefs and attitudes in relation to such factors as:

– social class;
– occupational groups (academic, management, public service, skilled and manual workforces);
– wealth (income and inherited);
– regional cultures;
– security;
– institutions;
– tradition and social change;
– history, especially iconic historical personages and events;
– minorities (ethnic, religious);
– national identity;
– foreign countries, states, peoples;
– politics;
– arts (music, visual arts, literature, drama, popular music and song);
– religion;
– humour.
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.5. Cultural syllabus in FLT

To Stern’s aspects we could also add the distinctive features of a European society and its culture as distinguished by the CEFR (2001: 102-103). These could apply to Western countries which do not belong to the Old Continent:

5. **Body language [Kinesics]:**
   Knowledge of the conventions governing such behaviour form part of the user/learner’s sociocultural competence.

6. **Social conventions**, e.g. with regard to giving and receiving hospitality, such as:
   - punctuality;
   - presents;
   - dress;
   - refreshments, drinks, meals;
   - behavioural and conversational conventions and taboos;
   - length of stay;
   - leave-taking.
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.5. Cultural syllabus in FLT

✓ To Stern’s aspects we could also add the distinctive features of a European society and its culture as distinguished by the CEFR (2001: 102-103). These could apply to Western countries which do not belong to the Old Continent:

7. **Ritual behaviour** in such areas as:
   • religious observances and rites;
   • birth, marriage, death;
   • audience and spectator behaviour at public performances and ceremonies;
   • celebrations, festivals, dances, discos, etc.

✓ Other cultural units:
   • Paralanguage (pitch, rhythm and intonation)
   • Scripts – cultural situations based on event or action sequences (Criado, 2009); for instance, the Cheese-Rolling Festival; the *Bando de la Huerta*, etc.
6.3. Culture in language teaching

6.3.6. Pedagogical techniques for cultural teaching

✓ It is important to distinguish three contexts where second and foreign languages are taught (Stern, 1992):
   a) The FL situation with no direct contact with the L2 community
   b) The FL preparatory situation where direct contact is anticipated (for holiday or work reasons)
   c) The SL situation

✓ The choice of techniques will vary depending on the context where the language learning situation is placed, as well as on the students’ age, interests and educational level.
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.6. Pedagogical techniques for cultural teaching

✓ Stern (1992) offers the following pedagogical techniques:

1) Creating an authentic classroom environment to create a visual and tangible presence of the L2 community

   How do you think that such an environment could be created?

2) Cultural problem solving or culture assimilator (Fiedler, Mitchell & Triandis, 1971)
3) Dramatization
4) Role-play and simulation
5) Academic study of the target culture (lectures, discussions, debates)
6) Real-life exposure to the target culture: visits to the language class by native speakers, visits to other countries and regions, “electronic socialising” (e-mails, social-networks, etc.).
6.3. Culture in language teaching
6.3.6. Pedagogical techniques for cultural teaching

a) Which techniques do you think are most suitable for the “FL situation with no direct contact with the L2 community”? Think about specific age groups (children or adults) and linguistic levels too.

b) Which objectives (proficiency, cognitive, affective and behavioural) are theoretically fulfilled in each one of the techniques?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.1. Objectives of this section

1) Know the different meanings assigned to *sequencing* in FLT and the distinction between *sequencing* and *grading*

2) Know the importance of activity sequencing in FLT

3) Understand the main pedagogical and cognitive factors when studying activity sequencing

4) Understand the relationship between activity sequencing and cognitive sequencing

5) Analyse several activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature from pedagogical and cognitive viewpoints and assess their impact on learning and teaching

6) Analyse the prevailing activity sequencing pattern in FLT textbooks from pedagogical and cognitive viewpoints and assess its impact on learning and teaching
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.2. Defining sequencing in FLT

1) “Sequencing” in general English

✓ the process of deciding the correct order of things
  Cambridge Dictionaries Online (http://dictionary.cambridge.org/)

✓ arrange in a particular order
  Oxford Dictionary online (http://oxforddictionaries.com/)

✓ “Sequencing” → “sequence”:
  to arrange in a sequence
  order of succession
  Merriam Webster online (http://www.merriam-webster.com/)

↓

Key features in sequencing: order, succession
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.2. Defining sequencing in FLT

2) “Sequencing” in FLT

The key features of sequencing in general English: order, succession

Meanings attached to “sequencing” in FLT:

a) The sequencing of the content to be learned: the sequencing of the “what” of teaching (structures, notions, functions, communicative abilities or tasks) in syllabus design

b) The sequencing of the activities: the sequencing of the “how” of teaching or the procedure by which the content is offered to the learners in a textbook unit or class lesson.

In this unit and for the purposes of this course, we will operationalize activity sequencing as “The ordering or distribution of activities within a didactic lesson or unit in a given foreign language teaching coursebook or a lesson in a class” (Criado, 2010: 11)

Note that we focus here on textbooks and not on class lessons since we will analyse activity sequencing patterns in FLT materials.
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.2. Defining sequencing in FLT

3) “Sequencing” vs. “grading”

Nunan (1988: 159):

- **Grading**: “the arrangement of syllabus content from easy to difficult”;
- **Sequencing**: “determining the order in which syllabus content will be taught. Content can be sequenced according to difficulty, frequency, or the communicative needs of the learners”.

↓

*Sequencing* is larger than “grading” - which is solely related to the parameters of ease and difficulty.
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.2. Defining *sequencing* in FLT

4) Importance of activity sequencing in FLT

- Cognitive sequence of human learning processes

- Variety in the patterns of action → students’ motivation
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.3. Key issues when studying activity sequencing

1) Pedagogical and cognitive focus
2) Teaching new language or revising previously acquired language
3) Other parameters
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.3. Key issues when studying activity sequencing

1) Pedagogical and cognitive focus

1.1. Activities focusing on accuracy/language forms or fluency/meaning

**Activities focusing on fluency**
- Reflect natural use of language
- Focus on achieving communication
- Require meaningful use of language
- Require the use of communication strategies
- Produce language that may not be predictable
- Seek to link language use to context

**Activities focusing on accuracy**
- Reflect classroom use of language
- Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
- Practice language out of context
- Practice small samples of language
- Do not require meaningful communication
- Control choice of language

(Richards, 2006: 14)
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.3. Key issues when studying activity sequencing

1) Pedagogical and cognitive focus

1.1. Activities focusing on accuracy/language forms or fluency/meaning

1.2. Cognitive focus of accuracy and fluency activities

What is the cognitive process focused on in accuracy and fluency activities respectively?

Section 6.1
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.3. Key issues when studying activity sequencing

1) Pedagogical and cognitive focus

2) Teaching new language or previously acquired language

Which activity sequencing would you choose to teach new language?

Accuracy activities → fluency activities

Fluency activities → accuracy activities

Why? Can you explain this in cognitive terms following what you studied in section 6.1?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.3. Key issues when studying activity sequencing

3) Other parameters (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004: 14-15)

1) Reception before production:
   Provide rich, varied and frequent exposure to language in use through
   listening and reading before inviting learners to speak and to write.

2) Start with the learners, end with the learners:
   In order to achieve self-involvement, start with what learners know (e.g.
   their interest, local stories) and connect their lives to the new teaching
   content (e.g. story, science, films). Then end the unit with the learners
   (e.g. learners writing a new story based on what they have learned).

3) Listening before reading:
   Meaning construction during reading is sound-based. At lower-levels,
   provide listening activities (e.g. listen to the teacher read a story, listen
   and mime, listen and draw) before inviting learners to read a text.
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

1) Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP)

2) Test-Teach-Test (TTT)


4) Littlewood’s (1981) proposal: Pre-communicative and communicative activities

5) TBLT (J. Willis, 1996 and elsewhere; D. Willis & J. Willis, 2007)


1) Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP)

- Mid 20th century: Sequencing became a very important pedagogical factor in lesson planning and textbook design.
- SLT established the traditional PPP sequencing model in FLT:
  - **Presentation**: The new grammar structure is presented, often by means of a conversation or short text. The teacher explains the new structure and checks students’ comprehension of it.
  - **Practice**: Students practice using the new structure in a controlled context, through drills or substitution exercises.
  - **Production**: Students practice using the new structure in different contexts, often using their own content or information, in order to develop fluency with the new pattern.

(Richards, 2005: 8)

Why do you think that the PPP was established as the default mode of activity sequencing in the SLT?
1) Presentation-Practice-Production model (PPP)

- The PPP is seen as the main characteristic of the mainstream EFL style (following Cook’s 2008 terminology) and even of the ALM and CLT.
- With the advent of CLT,
  - The final P was replaced by activities targeted at developing fluency and where students had to develop creative meanings (discussions, essays, extended simulations and role-plays…), rather than merely transferring the forms to contexts more or less similar to those of the practice phase.
  - Also, in the early days of CLT this final P was added a functional-communicative element, “so that learners are more aware of the functional and social aspects of the language they are practising” (Littlewood, 2011: 547).

a) In which version of CLT did this happen?

b) Which activity sequencing do you think that underlies the PPP model?
   - Accuracy activities → fluency activities
   - Fluency activities → accuracy activities

Why? Can you explain this in cognitive terms following what you studied in section 6.1?
1) Presentation-Practice-Production model (PPP)

- However, CLT spin-offs (Lexical Approach, TBLT) and other authors (devisers of alternative sequencing patterns such as Scrivener, 1994, 1996, 2005, addressed harsh criticisms against the PPP (for a full review, see Criado, 2010 and 2013):
  1. Only-one admitted route of learning (i.e. explicit explanation, understanding, practice and automatisation) →
     a) absence of variety in the sequencing patterns;
     b) negative effect on learners’ motivation
  2. The “teaching-equals-learning” assumption or linear view of learning
     b) The “delayed effect of instruction” (Tomlinson, 2011; Willis, D., 1996)
  3. Excessive leadership granted to the teacher
  4. Prescriptive nature of syllabuses and language teaching materials
  5. The PPP is “fundamentally disabling, not enabling” (Scrivener, 1994: 15)
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

1) Presentation-Practice-Production model (PPP)

- Scrivener’s criticism “may come as a surprise to the many hundreds of thousands of students who have managed to progress despite having been subjected to such discredited disablement” (Harmer, 1996: 8)


- In fact, the CEFR (2001) includes the PPP –without naming it– as one possible way in which people can learn foreign languages.

Can you identify which learning and teaching ways correspond to the PPP on page 143 of the CEFR?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

1) Presentation-Practice-Production model (PPP)

Section 6.4.5 (the “contemporary FLT materials version of the PPP”)

95
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

2) Test-Teach-Test model (TTT)

- The sequence behind the TTT is as follows:
  1. Discover what a learner can do in a certain area.
  2. Attempt to teach the learner some of the things she apparently can’t do.
  3. Check to see if learning has in fact taken place.

(Woodward, 2001: 123)

- Stage 1: Test; stage 2: Teach; stage 3: Test
- FLT textbooks and teachers applying this sequence should be very cautious about the language targeted at. In other words, the language belonging to the Teach phase can be predicted and thus worked upon pre-emptively only if the initial production task is carefully chosen. Otherwise, there emerges a large degree of leeway in the learners’ production and the Teach phase has to be designed reactively.
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

2) Test-Teach-Test model (TTT)

a) How different do you think the TTT is from the PPP? In other words, which order of P phases does the TTT reflect?

b) Which activity sequencing do you think that underlies the TTT model?
   Accuracy activities → fluency activities
   Fluency activities → accuracy activities
   Why? Can you explain this in cognitive terms following what you studied in section 6.1?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature


✔ With the advent of CLT, Brumfit (1979: 183) conceptualised the “reversal of traditional methodological emphases” as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional</th>
<th>Post-communicative model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Stage 1: Present</td>
<td>Stage 1: Communicate as far as possible with all available resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Stage 2: Drill</td>
<td>Stage 2: Present language items to be necessary for effective communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Stage 3: Practise in context</td>
<td>Stage 3: Drill if necessary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Brumfit’s (1979) characterisation of traditional and post-communicative activity sequencing patterns

Which CLT version does the Post-communicative model belong to?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature


✓ Advantages of the “Post-communicative model” according to Brumfit:

a) If language learning is targeted at language use, language should be learnt by using it. Thus fluency should be emphasised over accuracy.

b) This has positive consequences for the cognitive and cultural processes in which language learning is embedded.

c) Overall, the Post-communicative model leads to a student-centred approach.

Which activity sequencing do you think that underlies the “Post-communicative model”?

Accuracy activities → fluency activities

Fluency activities → accuracy activities

Why? Can you explain this in cognitive terms following what you studied in section 6.1?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature


☑ Johnson (1982) labels Brumfit’s (1979) “post-communicative model” as “deep-end strategy”.

☑ According to Johnson (1982), the advantages of the “deep-end strategy” are as follows:

a) In the first stage,

*the deep end strategy should help to develop in the student a type of confidence essential to learning a foreign language: the confidence to attempt to say something which he knows that he does not really know how to say.*

(Johnson, 1982: 196)

b) The first stage also has a diagnostic value.
4) Littlewood’s (1981) proposal: Pre-communicative and communicative activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-communicative activities</th>
<th>Communicative activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structural exercises (e.g. drills, question and answer exercises...)</td>
<td>Functional communicative activities (e.g. discovering missing information, discovering differences, reconstructing story-sequences, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quasi-communicative exercises (e.g. cued dialogues, roleplays, etc.)</td>
<td>Social interactional activities (e.g. simulation and role-play)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

4) Littlewood’s (1981) proposal: Pre-communicative and communicative activities

✓ He proposes two types of sequences:

1) From pre-communicative to communicative activities and
2) From communicative to pre-communicative activities

a) Which type of sequence is more similar to the PPP? How similar is it to the PPP?

b) Which activity sequencing do you think that underlies both types of sequences?

Accuracy activities → fluency activities
Fluency activities → accuracy activities

Why? Can you explain this in cognitive terms following what you studied in section 6.1?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

4) Littlewood’s (1981) proposal: Pre-communicative and communicative activities

- He proposes two types of sequences:
  1) From pre-communicative to communicative activities and
  2) From communicative to pre-communicative activities

- Littlewood justifies type 2 as follows:
  a) Fostering of students’ motivation
  b) Initial *production* can adopt a diagnostic purpose (also suggested by Johnson, 1982, in his “deep-end strategy”)
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

5) TBLT (J. Willis, 1996 and elsewhere; D. Willis & J. Willis, 2007)

J. Willis’ (1996) TBL framework

Which activity sequencing do you think that underlies TBLT?
- Accuracy activities → fluency activities
- Fluency activities → accuracy activities
(Remember slide 27 in Unit 4.3.4)
Why? Can you explain this in cognitive terms following what you studied in section 6.1?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature


Slide 30 in Unit 4.4.1

Which activity sequencing do you think that underlies O-H-E?

Accuracy activities $\rightarrow$ fluency activities

Fluency activities $\rightarrow$ accuracy activities

Why? Can you explain this in cognitive terms following what you studied in section 6.1?
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature


- The CPM is based on a communicative process.
- A communicative process is the successive sequence of steps/actions that take place within a communicative situation as framed within a general communicative nucleus.
- The completion of such a communicative process results in the achievement of a particular communicative goal.
- In the CPM, the successive steps are adapted to the classroom as teaching activities.
- The sequence of all the activities in the unit corresponds to the logical sequence of the successive communicative steps within the communicative process.
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Real-life communicative step</th>
<th>Pedagogical adaptation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) See a poster about an outing to the Tower of London</td>
<td>Reading for general information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Talk to a friend and decide to go</td>
<td>Listening to a dialogue intensively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Ask in the school office about time, focus on place and transport, and pay</td>
<td>Speaking practice with a focus on accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Read a book about the Tower of London</td>
<td>Reading for detailed meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Visit the Tower and listen to a guided tour</td>
<td>Listening for specific points of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Talk to a friend about your day out</td>
<td>Communicative speaking practice with a focus on fluency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Write a diary</td>
<td>Guided writing practice with prompts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Write a letter home</td>
<td>Free writing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching
6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature


On the basis of the previous example, can you think of any possible advantages and disadvantages of the CPM for both teachers and learners?

- A thorough explanation of this model and of its pedagogical and cognitive characteristics can be found in the following article:
  (Available at http://www.ual.es/odisea/Odisea10_Criado.pdf)
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.4. Activity sequencing patterns in the FLT literature

✓ Other activity sequencing patterns found in the FLT literature are the following ones:

- Di Pietro’s “scenarios” (1987)
- Scrivener’s Authentic (use)-Restricted (use)-Clarification (ARC) (1994, 1996)
- McCarthy & Carter’s (I)llustration, (I)nteraction, (I)nduction (1995)

If you want to learn more about these activity sequencing patterns and the previous ones, please go to Criado (2010), chapter 4.
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.5. The contemporary FLT materials version of the PPP
(Criado, 2010, 2013)

✓ No language course these days offers an undiluted diet of the dry meaningless P-P-P structured lessons that so many commentators like to set up as a straw-man foe.


✓ It would be unfair and inaccurate not to recognise the existence of a “contemporary FLT materials version of the P-P-P”. This owes a great deal to the “weak” CLT version that emerged during the eighties […]. Its characteristic aspects are as follows:

(Criado, 2010: 67)
6.4. Activity sequencing in language teaching

6.4.5. The contemporary FLT materials version of the PPP (Criado, 2010, 2013)

STEP 1
Presentation
Written and oral texts → Text-based activities
- P1 (linguistic items)
  higher focus on meaning
- P2 (receptive practice)

STEP 2
Practice stage

STEP 3
Production stage
sometimes in the place of P1 for diagnostic or motivational purposes

Higher degree of flexibility than traditional PPP