CHAPTER ONE
((SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT IN SLA))

Background

The language teaching has existed since a long time, but it is around two centuries that it has been extensively studied. In this time period, various language teaching methods have been developed, each criticized by the one following. For example GTM was criticized by ALM, which was criticized by the cognitive code method, which was replaced by CLT, finally replaced by post method pedagogy. One reason for such criticism was poor theoretical views underlying each method. Our discussion of methods is devoted to chapter 5. In chapters 1 to 4, we focus our discussion on these underlying views, which are referred to as schools of thought in second language acquisition (SLA). We begin our discussion with faculty psychology view.

Faculty Psychology

During the days of faculty psychology theorists thought of the mind in much the same way a body builder thinks of a muscle. The more it was exercised, the greater its capabilities and the larger its assets. The path to increased mental strength was to exercise the mind with difficult and complicated tasks. Problem solving in mathematics, translation in foreign language classes, memorization, and so on were recommended learning activities. Learning, like the medicine of the day, could only be beneficial if it were bitter and difficult to swallow.

✎ *Example 1*: **As an approach to learning, faculty psychology was based on all of the following assumptions EXCEPT ……… .** (سراسری ۸۶)

    1) translation benefits language learners
    2) brain is like a muscle which needs to be exercised
    3) the faculty of learning language universals is innate
    4) teaching methods should involve a huge amount of memorization

Answer: **Choice "3"**

Choice (3) is a basic tenet of nativism and the innateness position (discussed later).

✎ *Example2*: **Which psychological view claims that the more exercise the brain does, the stronger it will get?** (آزاد ۸۴)

    1) Behaviorist Psychology   2) Cognitive Psychology   3) Humanistic Psychology   4) Faculty Psychology

Answer: **Choice "4"**

The stem gives characteristics of the faculty psychology.

✎ *Example 3*: **Problem solving, translation, and memorization are recommended in ……… .** (سراسری ۸۳)

    1) faculty psychology   2) top-down processing
    3) humanistic education   4) behavioristic psychology

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Problem solving in mathematics, translation in foreign language classes, memorization, and so on were recommended learning activities in faculty psychology.

✎ *Example 4:* **Who are more likely to subscribe to the proposition that learning, like the medicine of the day, could only be beneficial if it were bitter and difficult to swallow?** (دکتری ۹۱)

    1) Behaviorist psychologists   2) Cognitive psychologists

    3) Faculty psychologists   4) Humanistic psychologists

Answer: **Choice "3"**

The stem relates to faculty psychology.

Structural Linguistics and Behavioral Psychology

In the 1940s and 1950s, the **structural**, or **descriptive**, school of linguistics claimed to be studying human languages scientifically. They believed that only "publicly observable responses" could be subject to investigation. The linguist's task, according to the **structuralist**, was to describe human languages and to identify the structural characteristics of those languages. An important belief of structural linguists was that languages can differ from each other without limit, and that no rules could apply across languages. Of further importance to the structural or descriptive linguist was the notion that language could be broken down into small pieces or units and that these units could be described scientifically, contrasted, and added up again to form the whole.

در دهه ۱۹۴۰ و ۱۹۵۰، مکتب زبان‌شناسی ساختاری، یا توصیفی، ادعا کرد که زبان‌های انسانی را به روش علمی مورد مطالعه قرار می‌دهد. آن‌ها معتقد بودند که تنها «پاسخ‌های قابل مشاهده» می‌تواند مورد تحقیق قرار گیرد. براساس زبان‌شناسی ساختارگرا وظیفه زبان‌شناس توصیف زبان انسانی و شناسایی ویژگی‌های ساختاری آن است. یک باور مهم از زبان‌شناسی ساختاری این بود که زبان‌ها می‌توانند با یکدیگر بی‌نهایت متفاوت باشند، و هیچ قانونی نمی‌تواند در مورد همه زبان‌ها اعمال شود. ایده مهم دیگر این بود که زبان می‌تواند به واحدها یا قطعات کوچک تقسیم شود و این واحدها را می‌توان مورد توصیف علمی قرار داد، با هم مقایسه کرد، و به هم افزود تا دوباره به شکل کل در آیند.

📖 **Note 1: Behavioral psychology**, which was the dominant school of psychology of the time, was based on the **empirical** approach to studying human behavior. The empirical approach focused on publicly observable responses—those that can be objectively perceived, recorded, and measured.

The **scientific method** was widely accepted, and therefore such concepts as "mind" consciousness and intuition were regarded as mentalistic, illegitimate domains of research, and therefore unscientific. Behavioral psychology clearly opposed a **mentalistic** approach to human behavior that considered unobservable guesses, hunches, and intuition worthy of studying. B. F **Skinner**, who was a behaviorist, believed that any notion of "idea" or "meaning" is fiction, and that the speaker is merely the locus of verbal behavior, not the cause. Charles **Osgood** (1957) reinstated meaning in verbal behavior, explaining it as a "representational mediation process," but still did not depart from a generally non-mentalistic view of language.

✎ *Example 5:* **Behaviorists strived for complete objectivity. That was why they denied ……… .** (سراسری ۸۵)

    1) conscious thought   2) contrasting L1 and L2

    4) translation from L1 to L2   3) mechanistic learning

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Behaviorists regarded concepts such as consciousness and intuition as mentalistic, illegitimate domains of inquiry. Behaviorists insisted on only examining observable data. In this way, they had a positivistic view and followed a scientific method for analyzing data. Structural linguists, who had theoretical ties with behaviorists in their beliefs, believed that languages could differ unlimitedly, so they devised Contrastive Analysis.

Behaviorism also stressed the role of rote learning and imitation. By mechanistic learning they aimed at reinforcing the desired response, so they used mechanical drills to shape the correct behavior in learners.

Translation is totally rejected in behaviorism, but it has got nothing to do with objectivity or subjectivity.

Generative Linguistics and Cognitive Psychology

In the 1960s, **generative-transformational** linguistics emerged through the influence of Noam **Chomsky** and a number of his followers. Chomsky was trying to show that human language cannot be explained simply in terms of observable stimuli and responses or the volumes of raw data gathered by field linguists. The generative linguist was

interested not only in describing language (achieving the level of **descriptive adequacy)** but also in arriving at an **explanatory** level of adequacy in the study of language, that is, a "principled basis, independent of any particular language, for the selection of the descriptively adequate grammar of each language".

Early seeds of the generative-transformational revolution were planted near the beginning of the twentieth century. Ferdinand **de Saussure** (1916) claimed that there was a difference between **parole** (what Skinner "observes," and what Chomsky called **performance**), on the one hand, and **langue** (similar to the concept of **competence**, or our underlying and unobservable language ability). A few decades later, however, descriptive linguists chose largely to ignore langue and focused on the study of parole, as was noted above.

On the other hand, **cognitive** psychologists asserted that meaning, understanding, and knowing were significant data for psychological study. Instead of focusing rather mechanistically on stimulus-response connections, cognitivists tried to discover psychological principles of organization and functioning. Cognitive psychologists, like generative linguists, sought to discover **underlying motivations and deeper structures** of human behavior by using a **rational** approach. That is, they freed themselves from the strictly empirical study typical of behaviorists and employed the tools of **logic, reason, extrapolation, and inference** in order to derive explanations for human behavior.

در دهه ۱۹۶۰، زبان‌شناسی زایایی ـ گشتاری تحت نفوذ نوام چامسکی و تعدادی از پیروانش پدید آمد. چامسکی در تلاش بود تا نشان دهد که زبان انسـانی را نمی‌توان به سادگی از طریق محرک‌های قابل مشاهده و پاسخ‌ها و یا حجمی از داده‌های خام جمع‌آوری شده توسط زبان‌شناسان توضیح داد.

بذر انقلاب زایایی ـ گشتاری در آغاز قرن بیستم، کاشته شد. فردیناند دو سوسور (۱۹۱۶) ادعا کرد که بین پارول (آنچه که اسکینر «مشـاهده» مـی‌کنـد و چامسکی عملکرد می‌نامد)، از یک سو، و لانگ (توانش، و یا توانایی‌های زیربنـایی و غیرقابـل مشـاهده زبـان مـا) تفـاوت وجـود دارد. امـا چنـد دهـه بعـد، زبان‌شناسان توصیفی تا حد زیادی از لانگ چشم‌پوشی کردند و بر پارول تمرکز نمودند.

از سوی دیگر ، روانشناسان شناختی، تأکید کردند که معنا، درک، و دانستن، داده‌های قابل توجهی برای مطالعه روانشناسی هستند. به جای تمرکز مکانیکی روی ارتباط محرک و پاسخ، شناختگرایان برای کشف اصول روانشناختی تلاش کردند. مانند زبان‌شناسان زایایی ـ گشتاری، روانشناسان شناختی، بـه دنبـال کشف انگیزه های زیر بنایی و سازه‌های عمیق تر رفتار انسان با استفاده از رویکردی عقلانی بودند.

Both the structural linguist and the behavioral psychologist were interested in description, in answering *what* questions about human behavior; objective measurement of behavior in controlled circumstances. The generative linguist and cognitive psychologist were, to be sure, interested in the question; but they were far more interested in a more ultimate question, *why questions.*

✎ *Example 6*: **For the ……… theoreticians, the internal, mental knowledge and processes of the learner are the most important variables in learning.**

    1) behaviorist   2) cognitive   3) non-nativist   4) stimulus-response

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Unlike behaviorists, who viewed mind and conscious attention as fiction, cognitivists paid heavy attention to such concepts.

✎ *Example 7*: **Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar harshly challenged the theories of ………**

(سراسری ۸۰)

    1) behaviorism and structural linguistics   2) cognitive and descriptive linguistics
    3) descriptive linguistics and rationalism   4) mentalism and Gestalt psychology

Answer: **Choice"1"**

Generative linguistics came as a reaction to structural linguistics and cognitivism as a reaction to behaviorism. Mentalism, rationalism and cognitivism are the same concepts.

✎ *Example 8*: **Behavioristic explanations of language learning are mainly criticized on the grounds that they do not account for linguistic ……… .**

(آزاد ۸۸)

    1) automaticity   2) systematicity   3) fluency   4) creativity

Answer: **Choice"4"**

Behaviorists failed to account for language creativity, which is the ability to produce novel unseen utterances.

✒ *Example 9:* **Generative linguists are NOT fond of ....** .   (دکتری ۹۶)

    1) the underlying factors pertaining to a particular behavior in a human being
    2) the explanatory level of adequacy in the study of language
    3) underlying levels of meaning and thought
    4) observable stimuli and responses

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Observable stimuli and responses are tenets of structuralism.

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✒ *Example 10:* **According to cognitive theoreticians, the most important variables in learning are ……… .**

(سراسری ۸۰)

    1) descriptive and structural   2) external and mechanical processes
    3) internal and mental processes   4) stimulus and reinforcement

Answer: **Choice"3"**

Cognitive psychology is a branch of psychology that deals with such processes as **attention, perception, comprehension, memory, and learning**. It is concerned with mental processes and representation of knowledge in the mind.

Constructivism: A Multidisciplinary Approach

Constructivism is hardly a new school of thought. Jean **Piaget** and Lev **Vygotsky**, names often associated with constructivism, are not by any means new to the scene of language studies.

📖 **Note 2:** A distinctive characteristic of constructivism is its integration of linguistic, psychological, and sociological paradigms. Constructivism emphasizes social interaction and the discovery, or construction, of meaning.

There are **two** branches of constructivism: **cognitive constructivism** and **social constructivism**. In the cognitive version of constructivism, emphasis is placed on the importance of learners constructing their own representation of reality. In a constructivist educational situation, "learners must individually discover and transform complex information if they are to make it their own, and students assume a more active role in their own learning than is typical in many classrooms"(Slavin, 2003, pp. 257-258). For Piaget, who is considered a cognitive constructivist, "learning is a developmental process that involves change, self-generation, and construction, each building on prior learning experiences" (Kaufman, 2004, p. 304).

Social constructivism emphasizes the importance of **social interaction and cooperative learning** in constructing both cognitive and emotional images of reality. The champion of social constructivism is Vygotsky (1978), who advocated the view that "children's thinking and meaning-making is socially constructed and emerges out of their social interactions with their environment" (Kaufman, 2004, p. 304). One of the most popular concepts advanced by Vygotsky was the notion of a **zone of proximal development (ZPD)** in every learner. ZPD is the distance between learners' existing developmental state and their potential development. Put another way, the ZPD describes tasks that a learner has not yet learned but is capable of learning with appropriate stimuli. Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD contrasted rather sharply with Piaget's theory of learning in that the former saw a unity of learning and development while the latter saw stages of development setting a precondition, or readiness, for learning. Piaget stressed the importance of individual cognitive development as a relatively solitary act. Biological timetables and stages of development were basic; social interaction was claimed only to trigger development at the right moment in time. On the other hand, Vygotsky maintained that social interaction was foundational in cognitive development and rejected the notion of predetermined stages.

Closely allied to a Vygotskian social constructivist perspective is that of Mikhail **Bakhtin** (1986, 1990), who contended that language is "immersed in a social and cultural context, and its central function is to serve as a medium of communication".

✒ *Example 11:* **The zone of proximal development which is the distance between a child's actual cognitive capacity and the level of potential development was first introduced by ……… .**   (آزاد ۸۸)

    1) B. F. Skinner   2) Piaget   3) Vygotsky   4) Whorf

Answer: **Choice "3"**

ZPD is a concept proposed by Vygotsky.

✍ *Example 12:* **Vygotsky's zone of proximal development ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۶)

    1) gives weight to socially mediated interaction

    2) amounts to the child's potential linguistic development

    3) is the core of the cognitive psychological school of L2 acquisition

    4) is the distance between a child's linguistic and cognitive capacity

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Vygotsky is considered a social constructivist. He pays special attention to social interaction as the main cause of linguistic and cognitive development. His **zone of proximal development (ZPD)** is the distance between a child's actual cognitive capacity and the level of potential development. It explains that a child can improve its actual cognition to his/her potential development through interaction with an adult who is cognitively more developed compared to him/her. As a result of cognitive development a child's language skills will improve accordingly through social interaction.

✍ *Example 13:* **According to Vygotsky' s zone of proximal development (ZPD), every child reaches his/her potential development ……… .**   (سراسری ۹۲)

    1) by parameter setting   2) through social interaction

    3) through linguistic experience   4) by predetermined stages

Answer: **Choice "2"**

According to Vygotsky, a child reaches his potential development through social interaction. This figure gave weight to social factors.

✍ *Example 14:* **Which of the following statements represents Piaget's view about learning?** (سراسری ۹۵)

    1) Teachers should provide a relaxed learning environment so that students will reach their full potential.

    2) If we wish to control behavior, say, to teach someone something, we ought to attend to reinforcers.

    3) Children's thinking and meaning-making is socially constructed and emerges out of their social interactions with their environment.

    4) Learning is a developmental process that involves change, self-generation, and construction, each building on prior learning experiences

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Option 3 is associated with Vygotsky, while option 4 with Piaget.

✍ *Example 15:* **Vygotsky's constructivism is <u>NOT</u> closely associated with ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۹)

    1) the primacy of ZPD

    2) the construction of syntactic knowledge in definite stages

    3) the individual's construction of reality

    4) the interactionist hypothesis

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Option 2 is associated more with Piaget. Another term related to the concept is scaffolding, which is defined as a process of mediation through the guidance of a more knowledgeable other.

✍ *Example 16:* **Interaction and communication through tasks which provide opportunities for mediation through the guidance of a more knowledgeable other is known as ....**   (دکتری ۹۶)

    1) role play   2) scaffolding

    3) jigsaw tasks   4) negotiation of meaning

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Vygotsky believed that when a student is in the ZPD for a particular task, providing the appropriate assistance will give the student enough of a "boost" to achieve the task. Scaffolding, cooperative learning, guided learning all have the same meaning within the literature, where scaffolding is defined as a process of mediation through the guidance of a more knowledgeable other.

CHAPTER THREE

((HUMAN LEARNING))

Background

In this chapter we present several views on human learning. Simply put, we study learning through the eyes of four psychologists, two representing a **behavioral** viewpoint (**Pavlov** and **Skinner**), one representing a **cognitive** stance (**Ausubel**), and one that stretches into what could be loosely defined as a **constructivist** school of thought (**Rogers**). The four positions illustrate not only some of the history of learning theory, but also the diverse perspectives that form the foundations of varying language teaching approaches and methods.

Behaviorism

PAVLOV'S CLASSICAL BEHAVIORISM

Certainly the best-known classical behaviorist is the Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov.

Note 1: Pavlov trained a dog to salivate to the tone of a bell through a procedure that is known as **classical conditioning**. Pavlov used the salivation response to the sight or smell of food (an **unconditioned response**) in many of his experiments.

In the classical experiment he trained a dog, by repeated occurrences, to associate the sound of a bell with food until the dog acquired a **conditioned response**: salivation at the sound of the bell. A previously neutral **stimulus** (the sound of the bell) had acquired the power to elicit a **response** (salivation) that was originally elicited by another stimulus (the smell of meat).

Drawing on Pavlov's findings, John B. Watson (1913) coined the term **behaviorism**. Watson contended that human behavior should be studied **objectively**, rejecting mentalistic notions of innateness and instinct. He adopted the classical conditioning theory as the explanation for all learning: by the process of conditioning, we build an array of stimulus-response connections, and more complex behaviors are learned by building up series or chains of responses. Later, E.L. Thorndike

Note 2: expanded on classical conditioning models by showing that stimuli that occurred after a behavior had an influence on future behaviors. Thorndike's **Law of Effect** paved the way for another psychologist, B. F. Skinner, to modify our understanding of human learning.

SKINNER'S OPERANT CONDITIONING

The classical conditioning of Pavlov was, according to Skinner, a highly specialized form of learning utilized mainly by animals and playing little part in human conditioning. Skinner called Pavlovian conditioning **respondent conditioning** since it was concerned with respondent behavior that is, behavior that is **elicited** by a preceding stimulus.

Skinner's **operant conditioning** attempted to account for most of human learning and behavior.

Note 3: Operant behavior is behavior in which one "operates" on the environment; within this model the importance of stimuli is deemphasized.

For example, we cannot identify a specific stimulus leading a baby to rise to a standing position or to take a first step; we therefore need not be concerned about that stimulus, but we should be concerned about the *consequences* the stimuli that follow the response. Stressing Thorndike's Law of Effect, Skinner demonstrated the importance of those events that *follow* a response. Suppose that another baby accidentally touches a nearby

object and a tinkling bell sound occurs. The infant may look in the direction from which the sound came, become curious about it, and after several such "accidental" responses discover exactly which toy it is that makes the sound and how to produce that sound. The baby **operated** on her environment. Her responses were **reinforced** until finally a particular concept or behavior was learned.

According to Skinner, the events or stimuli—the reinforcers—that follow a response and that tend to strengthen behavior or increase the probability of a recurrence of that response constitute a powerful force in the control of human behavior. Reinforcers are far stronger aspects of learning than is mere association of a prior stimulus with a following response, as in the classical conditioning model. We are governed by the consequences of our behavior, and therefore Skinner felt we ought, in studying human behavior, to study the effect of those consequences. And if we wish to control behavior, say, to teach someone something, we ought to attend carefully to reinforcers.

Operants are classes of responses. Crying, sitting down, walking, and batting a baseball are operants. They are sets of responses that are **emitted** and governed by the consequences they produce. In contrast, **respondents** are sets of responses that are **elicited** by identifiable stimuli. Certain physical reflex actions are respondents. Crying can be respondent or operant behavior. Sometimes crying is elicited in direct reaction to a hurt. Often, however, it is an emitted response that produces the consequences of getting fed, cuddled, played with, comforted, and so forth. Such operant crying can be controlled. If parents wait until a child's crying reaches a certain intensity before responding, loud crying is more likely to appear in the future. If parents ignore crying (when they are certain that it is operant crying), eventually the absence of reinforcers will **extinguish** the behavior.

Let us focus, for the sake of a deeper understanding, on the definition of the key terms of behavioral psychology:

Behaviorism: a theory of psychology which states that human and animal behavior can and should be studied only in terms of physical processes, without reference to the mind. It led to theories of learning which explained how an external event (a **stimulus**) caused a change in the behavior of an individual (a **response**), based on a history of **reinforcement**. Behaviorism was used by psychologists like Skinner, and Osgood to explain first language learning.

Stimulus-Response theory also **S-R theory**: a learning theory associated with the American psychologist B.F. Skinner which describes learning as the formation of associations between responses. A **stimulus** is that which produces a change or reaction in an individual or organism. A **response** is the behavior which is produced as a reaction to a stimulus. **Reinforcement** is a stimulus which follows the occurrence of a response and affects the probability of that response occurring again.

Operant Conditioning: a learning theory proposed by Skinner within the context of behaviorist psychology. It is a type of **conditioning** in which a child learning its first language produces an action (e.g. an utterance) that achieves some outcome (e.g. to get food). This action is called the **operant**. The outcome is **positively reinforced** (positive reinforcement) if the operant is followed by something pleasant, and **negatively reinforced** (negative reinforcement) if it is followed by something unpleasant. If negative reinforcement or no reinforcement is associated with a response the response may eventually disappear. This is known as **extinction**.

شرطی شدن فعال : نظریه یادگیری اسکینر در چارچوب روانشناسی رفتارگرایی پیشنهاد شده است. این نوع شرطی شدن که در آن یک کودک در یادگیری زبان اول خود اقدام به تولید زبان می‌کند (به عنوان مثال یک جمله می‌گوید) که نتیجه‌ای را به دنبال دارد (به عنوان مثال، دریافت غذا). این یک اقدام فعال نامیده می‌شود. نتیجه بطور مثبت تقویت می‌شود (تقویت مثبت) اگر به دنبال اقدام، نتیجه‌ای لذت بخش حاصل شود، و بطور منفی تقویت می‌شود (تقویت منفی) اگر نتیجه‌ای ناخوشایند داشته باشد. اگر یک اقدام تقویت منفی یا تقویت خنثی (نه منفی و نه مثبت) به دنبال داشته باشد در نهایت ممکن است ناپدید شود. این فرایند خاموشی رفتار نامیده شده است.

Reward: Reward is the introduction of a positive reinforcer which increases the likelihood of re-occurrence of a response.

Punishment: Punishment can be either the withdrawal of a positive reinforcer or the presentation of an aversive stimulus. Punishment decreases the likelihood of re-occurrence of a response.

Skinner believed that, in keeping with the above principles, punishment "works to the disadvantage of both the punished organism and the punishing agency". Punishment can be either the withdrawal of a positive reinforcer or the presentation of an aversive stimulus. More commonly we think of punishment as the latter—a spanking, a harsh reprimand—but the removal of certain positive reinforcers, such as a privilege, can also be considered a form of punishment. Skinner felt that in the long run, punishment does not actually eliminate behavior, but that mild punishment may be necessary for temporary suppression of an undesired response, although no punishment of such a kind should be meted out without positively reinforcing alternate responses.

The best method of extinction, said Skinner, is the absence of any reinforcement; however, the active reinforcement of alternative responses hastens that extinction. So if a parent wishes the children would not kick a football in the living room, Skinner would maintain that instead of punishing them adversely for such behavior when it occurs, the parent should refrain from any negative reaction and should instead provide positive reinforcement for kicking footballs outside; in this way the undesired behavior will be effectively extinguished. Such a procedure is, of course, easier said than done, especially if the children break your best table lamp in the absence of any punishment!

✎ *Example 1:* **The behavioristic psychology is NOT based on ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۳)

    1) conscious states   2) operant conditioning
    3) discrimination learning   4) stimulus-response connections

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Consciousness has nothing to do with behaviorism but is related to rationalism.

✎ *Example 2:* **In contrast to respondent conditioning, operant conditioning ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۶)

    1) is based on emitted responses   2) accounts for most of animal learning
    3) overemphasizes the importance of stimuli   4) emphasizes both rote and meaningful learning

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Behaviorism generally emphasized rote learning not meaningful learning. (option 4 is out).

Operant conditioning is related to human being's behavior. It also emphasized the role reinforces not stimuli.

The responses that are elicited are called **respondents** while responses that are **emitted** and governed by the consequences are **operants**.

✎ *Example 3:* **According to operant conditioning, respondents are the sets of ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۸)

    1) responses to identifiable stimuli   2) reinforces that follow a response
    3) responses elicited by unknown causes   4) reinforces governed by their consequences

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Respondents are different from reinforcers (so 2 and 4 are out). **Respondents** are sets of responses that are **elicited** by **identifiable** stimuli.

✎ *Example 4:* **In Skinner's operant conditioning, what is deemphasized is the importance of ……… .**

(سراسری ۹۰)

    1) stimuli   2) reinforcers
    3) the consequences of a response   4) elicited behavior

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Skinner believed that stimuli, whether existent or non-existent in an occasion, have no role in the process of learning and that our learning is controlled by the consequences of our responses.

Cognitivism

AUSUBEL'S SUBSUMPTION THEORY

David Ausubel contended that **learning** takes place in the human organism through a meaningful process of relating *new* events or items to *already existing* cognitive concepts or propositions. According to Ausubel, this cognitive process accounts for a number of phenomena: the acquisition of new meanings (knowledge), retention, the psychological organization of knowledge as a hierarchical structure, and the eventual occurrence of forgetting.

دیوید آزوبل ادعا کرد که در انسان یادگیری از طریق یک فرآیند معنادار صورت می‌گیرد که در آن وقایع و موضوعات جدید به مفاهیم یا گزاره‌های شناختی که در حال حاضر در ساختار ذهنی فرد موجود است پیوند می‌خورد. به گفته آزوبل، این فرایند شناختی تعدادی از پدیده‌ها را توضیح می‌دهد: کسب معـانی جدید (دانش)، به خاطر داشتن، سازماندهی روانی دانش به عنوان یک ساختار سلسله مراتبی، و وقوع فراموشی.

Rote Learning vs. Meaningful Learning

The cognitive theory of learning as put forth by Ausubel is perhaps best understood by contrasting **rote learning** and **meaningful learning.** In the perspective of rote learning, the concept of meaningful learning takes on new significance. Ausubel described rote learning as the process of acquiring material as "discrete and relatively isolated entities that are relatable to cognitive structure only in an arbitrary and verbatim fashion, not permitting the establishment of [meaningful] relationships" (1968. p, 108). That is, rote learning involves the mental storage of items having little or no association with existing cognitive structure. Most of us, for example, can learn a few necessary phone numbers and ZIP codes by rote without reference to cognitive hierarchical organization.

On the other hand, meaningful learning, or **subsumption**, may be described as a process of relating new material to relevant established entities in cognitive structure. As new material enters the cognitive field, it interacts with, and is appropriately **subsumed** under, a more inclusive conceptual system. The very fact that material is **subsumable**, that is, relatable to stable elements in cognitive structure, accounts for its meaningfulness. If we think of cognitive structure as a system of building blocks, then rote learning is the process of acquiring isolated blocks with no particular function in the building of a structure and no relationship to other blocks. Meaningful learning is the process whereby blocks become an integral part of already established categories or systematic clusters of blocks. For the sake of a visual picture of the distinction, consider the graphic representation below.
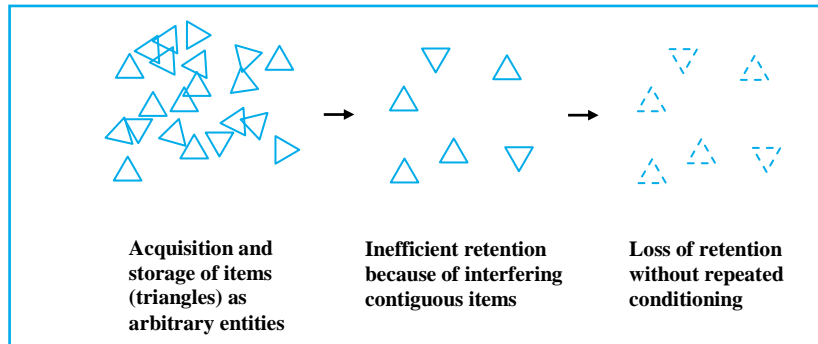

Acquisition and storage of items (triangles) as arbitrary entities   **Inefficient retention because of interfering contiguous items**   **Loss of retention without repeated conditioning**

Fig 1. Schematic representation of rote learning and retention

Acquisition and storage of items anchored to an established conceptual hierarch by subsumption   **Subsumption process continues in retention**   **Systematic "forgetting"; subsumed items are "pruned" in favor of a larger, more global conception, which is, in turn, related to other items (ABC) in cognitive structure.**
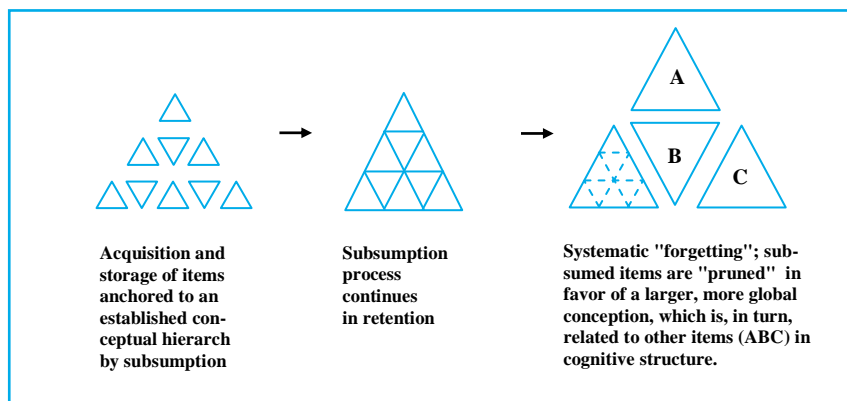
Fig 2. Schematic representation of meaningful learning and retention

The distinction between rote and meaningful learning becomes clear when we consider the relative efficiency of the two in terms of retention, or long-term memory. People are not very good at remembering telephone numbers, because telephone numbers tend to be quite arbitrary, bearing little meaningful relationship to reality. But street addresses, for example, are sometimes more efficiently retained since they bear some meaningful relationship to the reality of physical images, directions, streets, houses, and the rest of the town, and are therefore more suitable for long-term retention.

Example 5: **The learning process in which new knowledge is attached to the learner's cognitive structure is referred to as ……… .**

(سراسری ۸۱)

    1) generalization   2) subsumption   3) reinforcement   4) positive transfer

Answer: **Choice "2"**

The stem defines subsumption theory.

✎ *Example 6:* **The cognitive theory of learning is perhaps best understood by contrasting ……… .** (سراسری ۸۳)

    1) inhibition and risk-taking   2) competence and performance

    3) rote and meaningful learning   4) interference and overgeneralization

Answer: Choice "3"

Competence and performance are associated with Chomsky's theories, but the cognitive theory of learning insisted on meaningful learning as opposed to rote-learning. This means that although Chomsky put forward the distinction between competence and performance, insisting the abstract nature of language (competence), the cognitive theory of learning is not just confined to his ideas. The distinction between competence and performance was also highlighted in behaviorism and even before that and it was by no means new. But the difference lies in the emphasis each theory put on either of the two, with cognitivism emphasizing competence and behaviorism the other.

✎ *Example 7:* **The cognitivists strongly believe that learning ……… .** (آزاد ۸۴)

    1) in humans like animal learning is a change in behavior

    2) is a sub-conscious process and takes place in the classroom

    3) and acquisition are synonymous

    4) entails establishing meaningful relationships between the new and the old information

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Subsumption, which is related to cognitivism, is the process of relating new data to the knowledge already existing in the mind.

✎ *Example 8:* **Ausubel's meaningful learning theory considers "meaningfulness" to depend on …….. .**

(سراسری ۹۱)

    1) the storage of items as arbitrary

    2) the acquisition of discrete entities

    3) subtractive bilingualism among members of a minority group

    4) the subsumption of new material under a more inclusive conceptual system

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Subsumption is the process of relating new data to the knowledge already existing in the mind. The elements of the input should relate meaningfully to one another and also to the knowledge base in our minds/our schemata. That is, the data should be subsumed under larger structures of knowledge.

✎ *Example 9:* **Relating new material to established items in the cognitive system is called …………… .**

(دکتری۹۷)

    1) subsumption   2) rote learning   3) surmounting   4) retrieval

Answer: **Choice "1"**

The stem defines subsumption or meaningful learning.

✎ *Example 10:* **Behavioristic learning theories have had a lasting impact on our understanding of the process of human learning; that is why many teachers still believe in rote learning which is described as ……… .** (سراسری ۹۲)

    1) the process of acquiring material as discrete and relatively isolated entities in association with existing cognitive structure

    2) the process of mental storage of items, having little or no association with existing cognitive structure

    3) the process of relating and anchoring new material to relevant established entities in cognitive structure

    4) a system of verbal operants and understanding the role of conditioning

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Item 1 sounds tricky. Note that the phrase "in association with existing cognitive structure" relates to meaningful learning. Option 3 also defines meaningful learning. Only option 2 defines rote learning.

Systematic Forgetting

Two concept are closely related to systematic forgetting: **proactive inhibition** and **retroactive inhibition**.

📖 **Note 4: Proactive inhibition** also known as **proactive interference** refers to the interfering effect of earlier learning on later learning.

For example, if a learner first learns how to produce questions which require auxiliary verb inversion (e.g. *I can go, Can I go?*) this may interfere with the learning of patterns where auxiliary inversion is not required. The learner may write **I don't know where can I find it.* instead of *I don't know where I can find it.*

📖 **Note 5:** By contrast, **retroactive inhibition/interference** is the effect of later learning on earlier learning.

For example, children learning English may learn irregular past-tense forms such as *went, saw*. Later, when they begin to learn the regular -ed past-tense inflection, they may stop using *went* and *saw* and produce *goed and *seed.

Since rotely learned materials do not interact with cognitive structure, they are learned according to the laws of association, and their retention is influenced by the interfering effects of similar rote materials learned before or after the learning task (proactive and retroactive inhibition). However, in the case of meaningfully learned material, retention is influenced by the interaction of the learning task with the relevant established ideational systems in cognitive structure. Thus, concurrent interfering effects have relatively little influence on meaningful learning, and retention is highly efficient. That's the reason why addresses are retained as part of a meaningful set, while phone numbers which are isolated entities are easily forgotten.

📖 *Example 11:* **In case the relation of the learned materials is influenced by the interference deriving from rote material learned earlier and later, such effects are known as …….. and ………….. respectively.** (دکتری ۹۶)

    1) prospective - retrospective inhibition   2) proactive – retroactive inhibition

    3) retroactive - proactive inhibition   4) retrospective - prospective inhibition

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Ausubel provided a plausible explanation for the universal nature of forgetting. Since rotely learned materials do not interact with cognitive structure in a substantive fashion, they are learned in conformity with the laws of association, and their retention is influenced primarily by the interfering effects of similar rote materials learned immediately **before or after** the learning task (commonly referred to as **proactive and retroactive** inhibition).

We cannot say, of course, that meaningfully learned material is never forgotten. Even meaningful learners experience a subsumption process called "**obliterative forgetting**". It is more economical to retain a single inclusive concept than to remember a large number of more specific items. In this obliterative stage, the specific items become progressively less identifiable as entities in their own right until they are finally no longer available and are said to be forgotten, while the inclusive concept is retained.

This second stage of subsumption i.e. obliterative forgetting, operates through **cognitive pruning** procedures. Pruning is the elimination of unnecessary clutter and a clearing of the way for more material to enter the cognitive field, in the same way that pruning a tree ultimately allows greater and fuller growth. An important aspect of the pruning is that it is **not haphazard or by chance; it is systematic**.

یکی از مراحل یادگیری، هَرَس شناختی است. هرس، حذف درهم ریختگی‌های غیرضروری و پاکسازی راه ورود محتوای بیشتر به حوزه شـناختی اسـت، هماننـد هرس درخت که در نهایت اجازه می‌دهد تا رشد بیشتری صورت بگیرد. جنبه مهم هرس آن است که برحسب تصادف یا شانس نیست، بلکه نظاممند است.

📖 *Example 12:* **A significant aspect of the pruning stage of forgetting is that ……… .** (سراسری ۸۷)

    1) forgetting is systematic   2) obliterative forgetting takes place

    3) retention is negatively affected   4) forgetting puts an end to the process of consumption

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Choice "2" cannot be the correct option since cognitive pruning and obliterative forgetting both refer to the same concept, and therefore, cannot be an aspect of each other. In meaningful learning, forgetting takes place purposefully and systematically, and it is actually a stage of the process of subsumption. It is the obliterative stage of subsumption. It causes the information and knowledge in the mind to be more inclusive, general, and holistic. As the knowledge base grows, the more specific items become less identifiable. Unnecessary items are forgotten (cognitively pruned) to create more room for new items.

📖 *Example 13*: **"People often remember the content of what they have heard, though they might have difficulty remembering the exact words". This is referred to as ....**   (سراسری ۸۵)

1) elaboration   2) obliterative forgetting   3) rehearsal   4) subsumption

Answer: **Choice "2"**

The stem gives a characteristic of obliterative forgetting.

A key relevant concept to consider here is **language attrition**. Language attrition is language loss that is gradual rather than sudden. This may refer to the loss of a second or foreign language after instruction (**second language attrition** or L2 attrition), such as often occurs in settings where the language is not used in the community, or to **first language attrition** (L1 attrition) in situations where the community speaks a different language, as in language loss among immigrants. In these cases, the language that is lost is called the **attriting language**, while the individuals who experience attrition are called **attriters**. Native language forgetting occurs in some cases of **subtractive bilingualism**, where learners rely more and more on a second language, which eventually replaces their first language. Often subtractive bilingualism is the result of members of a minority group learning the language of a majority group because the latter downgrades speakers of the minority language. Language attrition may also refer to the loss of a first or second language due to ageing.

📖 *Example 14*: **When learners replace their L1 with their L2, failing to develop full competence in their mother tongue or, in some cases, actually losing competence in their mother tongue that has already been acquired, you are faced with a type of bilingualism known as ....**   (سراسری ۸۸)

1) semi-bilingualism   2) additive bilingualism
3) balanced bilingualism   4) subtractive bilingualism

Answer: **Choice "4"**

A native language is referred to as **subtractive** if it is considered to be detrimental to the learning of an L2. When the language of instruction is likely to replace the children's L1, this is called **subtractive bilingualism**.

📖 *Example 15*: **In additive bilingualism, ...**   (سراسری ۹۱)

1) the person is trilingual   2) L1 is held in prestige
3) L1 is detrimental to L2 learning   4) L2 is the only accepted norm

Answer: **Choice "2"**

A native language is referred to as **subtractive** if it is considered to be detrimental to the learning an L2. When the language of instruction is likely to replace the children's L1, this is called **subtractive bilingualism**. On the contrary, **additive bilingualism** is found where the native language is held in prestige by the community or society. It is a form of bilingual education in which the language of instruction is not the mother tongue or home language of the children, and is not intended to replace it but maintain and support it.

Coordinate bilingualism is referred to the separateness of the learning contexts of the two languages for the individual. In this case, the individuals will retain two meaning systems in their minds, the two systems being separate. In contrast, **compound bilingualism** is defined as the unity of the learning contexts of the two languages. Compound bilinguals have one meaning system from which both languages operate.

📖 *Example 16*: **Which of the following statements is true about different types of bilingualism?**   (سراسری ۹۷)

1) Additive bilingualism is a phenomenon when the first language is supported, while subtractive bilingualism is when the first language is considered to be harmful to the learning of a second language.

2) Subtractive bilingualism is a phenomenon when the first language is supported, while additive bilingualism is when the first language is considered to be harmful to the learning of a second language.

3) Compound bilingualism is a phenomenon when the first language is supported, while coordinate bilingualism is when the first language is considered to be harmful to the learning of a second language.

4) Coordinate bilingualism is a phenomenon when the first language is supported, while compound bilingualism is when the first language is considered to be harmful to the learning of a second language.

Answer: **Choice "1"**

A native language is referred to as **subtractive** if it is considered to be detrimental to the learning an L2. When the language of instruction is likely to replace the children's L1, this is called **subtractive bilingualism**. On the contrary, **additive bilingualism** is found where the native language is held in prestige by the community or society. It is a form of bilingual education in which the language of instruction is not the mother tongue or home language of the children, and is not intended to replace it but **maintain and support it**.

Ausubel's theory of learning has important implications for second language learning and teaching. The importance of meaning in language and of meaningful contexts for linguistic communication is emphasized by Ausubel's theoy. Too much rote activity, at the expense of meaningful communication in language classes, could hinder the learning process. Subsumption theory provides a strong theoretical basis for the rejection of conditioning models of practice and repetition in language teaching. In a meaningful process like second language learning, mindless repetition, imitation, and other rote practices in the language classroom have no place. The Audiolingual Method, which emerged as a widely used and accepted method of foreign language teaching, was based almost exclusively on a behavioristic theory of conditioning that relied heavily on rote learning. Rote learning can be effective on a short-term basis, but it fails for any long-term retention because of the tremendous buildup of interference.

نظریه یادگیری آزوبل پیامدهای مهمی برای یادگیری و آموزش زبان دوم دارد. اهمیت معنا در زبان و اهمیت زمینه مناسب برای ارتباطات زبـانی در نظریـه آزوبـل مورد تأکید است. استفاده بیش از حد فعالیت‌های طوطی‌وار، و نادیده گرفتن ارتباط معنی‌دار در کلاس‌های زبان، می‌تواند از فرآیند یادگیری زبان جلوگیری نمایـد. نظریه آزوبل مبنای نظری قوی برای رد مدل‌های شرطی‌سازی که بر اساس تمرین و تکرار در آموزش زبان است فـراهم مـی‌کنـد. در یـک فرآینـد معنـی‌دار ماننـد یادگیری زبان دوم، تکرار بی‌فکر، تقلید، و دیگر شیوه‌های مشابه در کلاس زبان هیچ جایگاهی ندارد. روش Audiolingual، که به عنوان یک روش به طور گسترده پذیرفته و استفاده می‌شد، تقریباً به‌طور انحصاری بر اساس نظریه رفتارگرایی شرطی مبتنی بود که به شدت بر یادگیری طوطی‌وار تکیه می‌کرد. یادگیری طوطی‌وار می‌تواند به صورت کوتاه مدت مؤثر باشد، اما برای به خاطرسپاری طولانی مدت به دلیل تجمع حجم زیادی از تداخل با شکست مواجه می‌شود.

✍ *Example 17:* **According to Ausubel's cognitive theory of learning, ………. .** (سراسری ۸۴)

    1) meaning is an implicit response
    2) rote learning can be effective on a short-term basis
    3) a nonthreatening environment can best facilitate learning
    4) the concept of "fully functioning person" is very important

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Options 3 and 4 have to do with Rogers' position (explained later). Option 1 is irrelevant.

The notion that forgetting is **systematic** also has important implications for language learning and teaching. In the early stages of language learning, certain devices (definitions, paradigms, illustrations, or rules) are often used to facilitate subsumption. These devices can be made initially meaningful by assigning or "manufacturing" meaningfulness. But in the process of making language automatic, the devices serve only as interim entities, meaningful at a low level of subsumption, and then they are systematically pruned out at later stages of language learning. A definition, mnemonic device, or a paraphrase, for example, might be initially facilitative, but as its need is minimized by larger and more global conceptualizations, it is pruned.

✍ *Example 18:* **Which of the following is <u>NOT</u> considered as an implication of Ausubel's "subsumption theory" for second/foreign language teaching?** (سراسری ۹۱)

    1) Students may be trained to forget less urgent details.
    2) Teachers should assign meaning to tasks and activities.
    3) Teachers should motivate students to make global conceptualizations.
    4) Students make meaningful links between concepts through repeated practice.

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Meaningful learning is achieved through relating new information to existing structures in brain not through repetition.

Constructivism

ROGERS'S HUMANISTIC PSYCHOLOGY

Carl Rogers's **humanistic psychology** has more of an **affective** focus than a cognitive one, and so it may be said to fall into the perspective of a **constructivist** view of learning. Certainly, Rogers and Vygotsky share some views in common in their highlighting of the social and interactive nature of learning. Rogers carefully analyzed human behavior in general, including the learning process, by means of the presentation of 19 formal principles of human behavior.

Note 6: Rogers studied the "**whole person**" as a physical and cognitive, but primarily **emotional**, being.

His formal principles focused on the development of an individual's self-concept and of his or her personal sense of reality, those internal forces that cause a person to act. Rogers felt that inherent in principles of behavior is the ability of human beings to adapt and to grow in the direction that enhances their existence. Given a nonthreatening environment, according to Rogers, a person will form a picture of reality that is indeed congruent with reality and will grow and learn. In his view, "**Fully functioning persons**" live at peace with all of their feelings and reactions; they are able to reach their full potential. Rogers's position has important implications for education.

Note 7: The focus is away from "teaching" and toward "learning" or what has recently been called "**transformative pedagogy**". The goal of education is the facilitation of change and learning. Moreover, **learning how to learn** is more important than being taught something by a teacher who unilaterally decides what shall be taught.

What is needed, according to Rogers, is for teachers to become facilitators of learning through the establishment of **interpersonal relationships** with learners. Teachers, to be facilitators, must first be real and genuine, discarding masks of superiority and omniscience. Second, teachers need to have genuine trust, acceptance, and a prizing of the other person— the student—as a worthy, valuable individual. And third, teachers need to communicate openly and empathetically with their students, and vice versa. Teachers with these characteristics will not only understand themselves better but will also be effective teachers, who, having set the optimal stage and context for learning, will succeed in the goals of education.

We can see in Carl Rogers's humanism quite a departure from the scientific analysis of Skinnerian psychology and even from Ausubel's rationalistic theory. Rogers is not as concerned about the actual cognitive process of learning because, he feels, if the context for learning is properly created, then human beings will, in fact, learn everything they need to.

Rogers's theory is not without its flaws. The educator may be tempted to take the nondirective approach too far, to the point that valuable time is lost in the process of allowing students to "discover" facts and principles for themselves. Also, a nonthreatening environment might become so nonthreatening that the facilitative tension needed for learning is absent. There is ample research documenting the positive effects of competitiveness in a classroom, as long as that competitiveness does not damage self-esteem and hinder motivation to learn.

Example 19: **What theory of learning does the following statement best represent?**   (سراسری ۸۸)

"Drawing the learner into an effective engagement with the learning process, to make classroom activities meaningful as experiences which involve the individual as a whole person."

 1) Natural   2) Cognitive   3) Immersion   4) Humanistic

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Humanistic paradigm consists of four principles:

(a) **concern for human values and development of whole persons**

(b) **concern for self-awareness and understanding of others**

(c) **concern for students' feelings**

(d) **attention to active student involvement**

Example 20: **The humanistic approach to teaching puts more emphasis on the ……… .**   (آزاد ۸۷)

 1) teaching aids   2) teaching context   3) teacher's qualifications   4) learner

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Humanistic tradition emphasizes learner and learning not teacher and teaching.

CHAPTER FOUR

((THE BRAIN AND LEARNING))

Background

The size of the human brain has increased markedly since the days of our earliest ancestors. This remarkable growth over the centuries is even more striking when compared with the brains of animals, which have not increased in size during the same period of time.

A normal human brain weighs about three pounds, but its size belies its amazing capabilities. The brain contains an estimated ten billion neurons in the cerebral cortex and another ninety billion in the interior of the brain. The brain may be thought of as a **process** as well as an **organ**. It is a process in the sense that from before birth until death it is constantly engaged in generating electrical currents. Each second the brain receives approximately one billion items of information. If one assumes that the two hundred million nerve fibers in the corpus callosum, the major connecting tissue between the left and right hemispheres, can fire at the rate of twenty times per second, it would have the capacity to send four billion impulses per second from one hemisphere to the other. Many experts now believe that the brain is **hard -fired** or genetically programmed to handle information in predetermined ways.

Example 1: **A lot of experts believe that human beings' brain is hardwired which means …….. .**   (۸۴ آزاد)

     1) it can comprehend and produce language genetically
     2) it is aware of its surrounding and is able to organize the knowledge
     3) it is able to process the information that requires conscious attention
     4) it is genetically programmed to handle information in predetermined ways

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Many experts believe that the brain is **hard -fired** or genetically programmed to handle information in predetermined ways.

The operations performed by the brain can be divided into three levels: the **primal, emotional, and rational**. The primal mind enables humans to perform needed functions at a subconscious level while freeing the brain to concentrate on other processes that require conscious attention. The emotional mind makes it possible for humans to feel as well as to think. The rational mind processes ideas and produces language. Ideally, both the rational and emotional minds function together, although the thinking mind should control the feeling mind.

Data-driven and conceptually driven processing

The brain can approach a subject from two different directions. In a **data-driven** approach the brain begins with externally received stimuli and analyzes that information to arrive at its final interpretation. In a **conceptually driven** approach the brain initiates processing with a general knowledge of the subject and proceeds to relate the information it already has to the new data it receives. Data-driven processing is often referred to as **bottom-up** processing and conceptually driven as **top-down** processing to reflect the direction of thought. In the first instance, thought moves from specific pieces of information to more general knowledge, and in the second, it operates from a knowledge base to work on specific pieces of information.

In reading, for example, in a bottom-up approach the emphasis is on the language found in the reading as the basis for comprehension. In a top-down approach primary importance is attached to what readers know about reading and

about the world in general. In the first approach, meaning resides in the reading passage; in the second, meaning is derived by readers activating their prior knowledge to recreate the author's meaning.

✎ *Example 2:* **In the ……… the brain begins with externally received stimuli and analyzes that information to arrive at its final destination**   (دکتری ۹۱)

     1) parallel processing   2) top- down processing
     3) conceptually driven approach   4) data-driven approach

Answer: **Choice "4"**

In a data-driven approach *the brain begins with externally received stimuli* and analyzes that information to arrive at its final interpretation.

✎ *Example 3:* **Top-down processing refers to the reader or listener ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۰)

     1) advancing from pragmatics to linguistics   2) moving from the concepts to the linguistic data
     3) moving from the linguistic data to the concepts   4) proceeding from meaning to discourse

Answer: **Choice "2"**

In conceptually driven approach (i.e., top-down processing), the brain initiates processing with a general knowledge of the subject (and concepts) and proceeds to relate the information it already has to new data it receives (e.g., linguistic data).

Deductive vs. inductive learning

Learning theorists have traditionally divided learning into deductive and inductive learning. Deductive learning proceeds from rules to examples, and inductive learning takes the opposite approach of beginning with the examples and moving to the rule. Both are active cognitive processes. Deductive learning requires that learners understand and apply principles to specific situations, and it rests on the premise that the most efficient approach to learning is to comprehend and apply rules. Inductive learning, on the other hand, accepts the alternate assumption that learners learn better when they use examples to infer and to formulate their own rules. Deductive learning moves from the abstract to the concrete and inductive learning from the concrete to the abstract.

Types of knowledge stored in the brain

Anderson (1980) identifies two types of knowledge stored in the brain: **declarative** knowledge and **procedural** knowledge. Both types are necessary for learning. Declarative knowledge encompasses all the prior knowledge that individuals have acquired and that they use to comprehend and to remember new information. Procedural knowledge is the learning skills and strategies that individuals have acquired during their lifetime of learning experiences. Kinsbourne (1980) also describes skill as progressing from a conscious beginning to a subconscious goal, from awareness of individual acts to **automatization**. With experience, individuals develop the capacity to execute several processes in parallel fashion and to respond automatically without attending consciously to what they are doing.

Individuals acquire skills in three stages. In the **cognitive** stage, they form an image of the skill in their minds. During the next stage, the **associative** stage, they devise a method for performing the skilled activity. At the skill level, the **autonomous** stage, they develop the ability to perform the activity rapidly and automatically.

✎ *Example 4:* **The two types of knowledge stored in the brain are ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۳)

     1) long-term and short-term   2) deductive and inductive
     3) declarative and procedural   4) cognitive and metacognitive

Answer: **Choice "3"**

✎ *Example 5:* **In contrast to declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۶)

     1) encompasses learning skills and strategies
     2) is required for acquisition rather than learning
     3) is mainly used to comprehend new information
     4) consists of prior knowledge and content knowledge

Unit 25: Cooperative Language Learning

Background

Cooperative Language Learning is part of a more general instructional approach also known as Collaborative or Cooperative Learning (CL). Cooperative Learning is an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom. Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups, and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others.

Cooperative Learning has antecedents in proposals for peer-tutoring and peer-monitoring that go back hundreds of years and longer. The early twentieth century U.S. educator John Dewey is usually credited with promoting the idea of building cooperation in learning into regular classrooms on a regular and systematic basis (Rodgers 1988). It was more generally promoted and developed in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s as a response to the forced integration of public schools and has been substantially refined and developed since then. Educators were concerned that traditional models of classroom learning were teacher-fronted, fostered competition rather than cooperation, and favored majority students. They believed that minority students might fall behind higher-achieving students in this kind of learning environment. Cooperative Learning in this context sought to do the following:

– raise the achievement of all students, including those who are gifted or academically handicapped

– help the teacher build positive relationships among students

– give students the experiences they need for healthy social, psychological, and cognitive development

– replace the competitive organizational structure of most classrooms and schools with a team-based, high-performance organizational structure

In second language teaching, Cooperative Language Learning has been embraced as a way of promoting communicative interaction in the classroom and is seen as an extension of the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. It is viewed as a **learner-centered** approach to teaching held to offer advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods.

In language teaching its goals are:

- to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through the use of interactive pair and group activities

- to provide teachers with a methodology to enable them to achieve this goal and one that can be applied in a variety of curriculum settings (e.g., content-based, foreign language classrooms; mainstreaming)

- to enable focused attention to particular lexical items, language structures, and communicative functions through the use of interactive tasks

- to provide opportunities for learners to develop successful learning and communication strategies

- to enhance learner motivation and reduce learner stress and to create a positive affective classroom climate

Cooperative Language Learning is, thus, an approach that crosses both mainstream education and second and foreign language teaching.

Approach

Theory of language

Cooperative Language Learning is founded on some basic premises about the interactive/cooperative nature of language and language learning and builds on these premises.

Premise 1 holds that "all normal children growing up in a normal environment learn to talk. We are born to talk. We may think of ourselves as having been programmed to talk. Communication is generally considered to be the primary purpose of language"

Premise 2 is that most talk/speech is organized as conversation. "Human beings spend a large part of their lives engaging in conversation and for most of them conversation is among their most significant and engrossing activities"

Premise 3 is that conversation operates according to a certain agreed-upon set of cooperative rules or "maxims".

Premise 4 is that one learns how these cooperative maxims are realized in one's native language through casual, everyday conversational interaction.

Premise 5 is that one learns how the maxims are realized in a second language through participation in cooperatively structured interactional activities.

Practices that attempt to organize second language learning according to these premises, explicitly or implicitly, are jointly labeled Cooperative Language Learning. In its applications, CLL is used to support both structural and functional models as well as interactional models of language, since CLL activities may be used to focus on language form as well as to practice particular language functions.

Theory of learning

Cooperative learning advocates draw heavily on the theoretical work of developmental psychologists Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky, both of whom stress the central role of social interaction in learning. As we have indicated, a central premise of Cooperative Language Learning is that learners develop communicative competence in a language by conversing in socially or pedagogically structured situations. Cooperative Language Learning advocates have proposed certain interactive structures that are considered optimal for learning the appropriate rules and practices in conversing in a new language. CLL (Cooperative Language Learning) also seeks to develop learners' critical thinking skills, which are seen as central to learning of any sort. One approach to integrating the teaching of critical thinking adopted by Cooperative Language Learning advocates is called the *Question Matrix* (Wiederhold 1995). Wiederhold has developed a battery of cooperative activities built on the matrix that encourages learners to ask and respond to a deeper array of alternative question types. Activities of this kind are believed to foster the development of critical thinking. Kagan and other Cooperative Learning theorists have adopted this framework as an underlying learning theory for Cooperative Learning.

The word *cooperative* in Cooperative learning emphasizes another important dimension of Cooperative Language Learning: It seeks to develop classrooms that foster cooperation rather than competition in learning.

Note 23: Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. It may be contrasted with competitive learning in which students work against each other to achieve an academic goal.

Example 172: **The role of social interaction in learning process is emphasized in ……… .**   (آزاد ۸۵)

     1) Suggestopedia   2) Direct Method

     3) The Silent Way   4) Cooperative Language Learning

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Cooperative Language Learning is based on some basic premises about the interactive / cooperative nature of language and language learning. Language is viewed as a means of interaction, cooperation, and communication in Cooperative Language Learning.

Example 173: **In cooperative language learning, ……… .**   (سراسری ۹۲)

     1) the syllabus is based on TBLT

     2) the learning environment is structured and organized

     3) post-method is the guiding principle

     4) learning activities are mostly directed toward elementary learners

Answer: **Choice "2"**

A central premise of Cooperative Language Learning is that learners develop **communicative competence** in a language by conversing **in socially or pedagogically structured situations**.

Design

Objectives

The objectives of the Cooperative Language Learning are to foster cooperation rather than competition, to develop critical thinking skills, and to develop communicative competence through socially structured interaction activities.

The syllabus

Cooperative Language Learning does not assume any particular form of language syllabus, since activities from a wide variety of curriculum orientations can be taught via cooperative learning. Thus, we find Cooperative Language Learning used in teaching content classes, ESP, the four skills, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. What defines Cooperative Language Learning is the systematic and carefully planned use of group-based procedures in teaching.

Types of learning and teaching activities

There are three types of cooperative learning groups:

1. *Formal cooperative learning groups*. These last from one class period to several weeks. These are established for a specific task and involve students working together to achieve shared learning goals.

2. *Informal cooperative learning groups*. These are ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to a class period and are used to focus student attention or to facilitate learning during direct teaching.

3. *Cooperative base groups*. These are long term, lasting for at least a year and consist of heterogeneous learning groups with stable membership whose primary purpose is to allow members to give each other the support, help, encouragement, and assistance they need to succeed academically.

The success of CL is crucially dependent on the nature and organization of group work. This requires a structured program of learning carefully designed so that learners interact with each other and are motivated to increase each other's learning. Olsen and Kagan (1992) propose the following key elements of successful group-based learning in CL:

- Positive interdependence
- Group formation
- Individual accountability
- Social skills
- Structuring and structures

✎ *Example 174*: **Which of the following is NOT a key element of cooperative learning?**   (دکتری ۹۴)

    1) Positive interdependence   2) Impulsivity

    3) Individual accountability   4) Social skills

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Olsen and Kagan (1992) propose the following key elements of successful group-based learning in CL:

- Positive interdependence
- Group formation
- Individual accountability
- Social skills
- Structuring and structures

Positive interdependence occurs when group members feel that what helps one member helps all and what hurts one member hurts all. It is created by the structure of CL tasks and by building a spirit of mutual support within the group. For example, a group may produce a single product such as an essay or the scores for members of a group may be averaged.

Group formation is an important factor in creating positive interdependence. Factors involved in setting up groups include:

- deciding on the size of the group
- assigning students to groups
- student roles in groups

Individual accountability involves both group and individual performance, for example, by assigning each student a grade on his or her portion of a team project or by calling on a student at random to share with the whole class, with group members, or with another group.

Social skills determine the way students interact with each other as teammates. Usually some explicit instruction in social skills is needed to ensure successful interaction.

Structuring and Structures refer to ways of organizing student interaction and different ways students are to interact such as Three-step interview or Round Robin (discussed later in this section).

✎ *Example 175:***Three of the tenets shaping Cooperative Learning are ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۶)

    1) individual accountability, leadership distribution, and interaction in the L2

    2) positive interdependence, learning together, and practicing fixed routines

    3) working together, feeling responsible for participation, and using picture strip stories

    4) thinking cooperatively, native-language translation through group activities, and explicit teaching of social skills

Answer: **Choice "1"**

There are five elements of successful group-based learning in Cooperative Learning:

(a) positive interdependence, that is group members should feel what helps one member helps all and what hurts one member hurts all

(b) group formation

(c) individual accountability which involves both group and individual performance, that is, individuals are as significant in learning as groups

(d) social skills

(e) structuring and structures which refer to how student interaction is organized and implemented

Leadership distribution is attributed to the element (b) in which students' roles are assigned to them.

Numerous descriptions exist of activity types that can be used with Cooperative Language Learning. Coelho (1992b: 132) describes three major kinds of cooperative learning tasks and their learning focus, each of which has many variations.

1. Team practice from common input - skills development and mastery of facts

- All students work on the same material.

- Practice could follow a traditional teacher-directed presentation of new material.

- The task is to make sure that everyone in the group knows the answer to a question and can explain how the answer was obtained or understands the material. Because students want their team to do well, they coach and tutor each other to make sure that any member of the group could answer for all of them and explain their team's answer.

- When the teacher takes up the question or assignment, anyone in a group may be called on to answer for the team.

- This technique is good for review and for practice tests; the group takes the practice test together, but each student will eventually do an assignment or take a test individually.

- This technique is effective in situations where the composition of the groups is unstable. Students can form new groups every day.

2. Jigsaw: differentiated but predetermined input - evaluation and synthesis of facts and opinions

- Each group member receives a different piece of the information.

- Students regroup in topic groups (expert groups) composed of people with the same piece to master the material and prepare to teach it.

- Students return to home groups (Jigsaw groups) to share their information with each other.

- Students synthesize the information through discussion.

- Each student produces an assignment of part of a group project, or takes a test, to demonstrate synthesis of all the information presented by all group members.

- This method of organization may require team-building activities for both home groups and topic groups, long-term group involvement, and rehearsal of presentation methods.

- This method is very useful in the multilevel class, allowing for both homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping in terms of English proficiency.

- Information-gap activities in language teaching are jigsaw activities in the form of pair work. Partners have data (in the form of text, tables, charts, etc.) with missing information to be supplied during interaction with another partner.

3. Cooperative projects: topics/resources selected by students - discovery learning

- Topics may be different for each group.

- Students identify subtopics for each group member.

- Steering committee may coordinate the work of the class as a whole.

- Students research the information using resources such as library reference, interviews and visual media.

- Students synthesize their information for a group presentation: oral and/or written. Each group member plays a part in the presentation.

- Each group presents to the whole class.

- This method places greater emphasis on individualization and students' interests. Each student's assignment is unique.

- Students need plenty of previous experience with more structured group work for this to be effective.

CHAPTER SEVEN
((SOCIOCULTURAL FACTORS))

This part touches on the intersection of culture and affect. How do learners overcome the personal and transactional barriers presented by two cultures in contact? What is the relationship of culture learning to second language learning?

Unit 33: Sociocultural Factors

CULTURE: DEFINITIONS AND THEORIES

Culture is a way of life. It is the context within which we exist, think, feel, and relate to others. It is the "glue" that binds a group of people together. Culture is our collective identity. Larson and Smalley (1972) described culture as a "blueprint" that "guides the behavior of people in a community and is incubated in family life. It governs our behavior in groups, makes us sensitive to matters of status, and helps us know what others expect of us and what will happen if we do not live up to their expectations. Culture helps us to know how far we can go as individuals and what our responsibility is to the group." Culture might also be defined as the ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools that characterize a given group of people in a given period of time.

The fact that no society exists without a culture reflects the need for culture to fulfill certain biological and psychological needs in people. Culture establishes for each person a context of cognitive and affective behavior, a template for personal and social existence. But we tend to perceive reality within the context of our own culture. Perception is always subjective. Perception involves the filtering of information even before it is stored in memory, resulting in a selective form of consciousness.

Note 1: It is apparent that culture, as an ingrained set of behaviors and modes of perception, becomes highly important in the learning of a second language. A language is a part of a culture, and a culture is a part of a language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two.

STEREOTYPES OR GENERALIZATIONS?

In the bias of our own culture-bound **worldview**, we too often picture other cultures in an oversimplified manner, lumping cultural differences into exaggerated categories, and then view every person in a culture as possessing stereotypical traits. Thus, Americans are all rich, informal, materialistic, overly friendly, and drink coffee. This is certainly not the case in reality, though. How do **stereotypes** form? Our cultural milieu shapes our worldview in such a way that reality is thought to be objectively perceived through our own cultural pattern, and a differing perception is seen as either false or "strange" and is thus oversimplified. If people recognize and understand differing worldviews, they will usually adopt a positive and open-minded attitude toward cross-cultural differences. A close-minded view of such differences often results in the maintenance of a stereotype—an oversimplification and blanket assumption. A stereotype assigns group characteristics to individuals purely on the basis of their cultural membership. However, both learners and teachers of a second language need to understand cultural differences, to recognize openly that people are not all the same.

ATTITUDES

Stereotyping usually implies some type of attitude toward the culture or language in question. Attitudes, like all aspects of the development of cognition and affect in human beings, develop early in childhood and are the result of parents' and peers' attitudes of contact with people who are "different". These attitudes form a part of one's perception of self, of others, and of the culture in which one is living.

Extensive studies were conducted to examine the effect of attitudes on language learning. The attitude learners have toward the members of the cultural group whose language they are learning is of great importance which will lead to

an integrative orientation to learn the language and is a significant correlate of success. It seems clear that second language learners benefit from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation and, in all likelihood, because of decreased input and interaction, to unsuccessful attainment of proficiency.

SECOND CULTURE ACQUISITION

Because learning a second language implies some degree of learning a second culture, it is important to understand what we mean by the process of culture learning. Second language learning, as we saw in the discussion of language ego, involves the acquisition of a second identity.

Note 2: This creation of a new identity is at the heart of culture learning, or what some might call **acculturation**.

The process of acculturation can be more acute when language is brought into the picture. To be sure, culture is a deeply ingrained part of the very fiber of our being, but language-the means for communication among members of a culture - is the most visible and available expression of that culture. And so a person's worldview, self-identity, and systems of thinking, acting, feeling, and communicating can be disrupted by a contact with another culture.

Sometimes that disruption is severe, in which case a person may experience **culture shock**. Culture shock refers to phenomena ranging from mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis. Culture shock is associated with feelings of estrangement, anger, hostility, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, and even physical illness. It is common to describe culture shock as the second of four successive stages of culture acquisition:

1. Stage 1 is a period of excitement and euphoria over the newness of the surroundings.

2. Stage 2 culture shock emerges as individuals feel the intrusion of more and more cultural differences into their own images of self and security. In this stage, individuals rely on and seek out the support of their fellow countrymen in the second culture, taking solace in complaining about local customs and conditions, seeking escape from their predicament.

3. Stage 3 is one of gradual, and at first tentative and vacillating, recovery. This stage is typified by what Larson and Smalley (1972) called "culture stress": some problems of acculturation are solved while other problems continue for some time. But general progress is made, slowly but surely, as individuals begin to accept the differences in thinking and feeling that surround them, slowly becoming more empathic with other persons in the second culture.

4. Stage 4 represents near or full recovery, either assimilation or adaptation, acceptance of the new culture and self-confidence in the "new" person that has developed in this culture.

مراحل یادگیری فرهنگ زبان دوم

۱.مرحله ۱ دوره‌ای از هیجان و شادی و سرخوشی به دلیل تازگی محیط اطراف است.

۲. در مرحله ۲ شوک فرهنگی پدیدار می‌شود هنگامی که فرد نفوذ هرچه بیشتر تفاوت‌های فرهنگی را در محدوده امنیت خـود احسـاس مـی‌کنـد. در ایـن مرحله، افراد به دنبال حمایت هموطنان خود در فرهنگ دوم هستند، و با شکایت در مورد آداب و رسوم و شرایط محلی، سعی می‌کنند آرامش پیدا کنند، و خود را از این مخمصه رها می کنند.

۳. مرحله ۳، مرحله بهبود تدریجی و همراه با نوسان است. این مرحله توسط لارسون و اسمالی (۱۹۷۲) به نام «استرس فرهنگی» نامیده شده است: در ایـن مرحله برخی از مشکلات فرهنگ‌پذیری حل می‌شود در حالی که سایر مشکلات برای مدت زمانی ادامه خواهد داشت. اما در کـل پیشـرفت عمـومی حاصـل می‌شود، و افراد تفاوت‌های موجود در تفکر و احساس را با محیط اطرافشان می‌پذیرند، و به آرامی به همدلی با افراد دیگر در فرهنگ دوم دست می‌یابند.

۴. مرحله ۴ مرحله بهبود کامل است، یا در نتیجه جذب و یا سازگاری، که در آن پذیرش فرهنگ جدید و اعتماد به نفس در فرهنگ جدید ایجاد شده است.

Wallace Lambert's (1967) work on attitudes in second language learning referred the concept of **anomie**—feelings of social uncertainty or dissatisfaction which people who do not have strong attachments to a particular social group may have. In learning a new language, people may begin to move away from their own language and culture, and have feelings of insecurity. At the same time, they may not be sure about their feelings towards the new language group. Feelings of anomie may be highest when a high level of language ability is reached. This may lead a person to look for chances to speak their own language as a relief.

✍ *Example 1:* **In Schumann's taxonomy of factors influencing second-language acquisition, acculturation is subsumed under which of the following factors?** (دکتری۹۱)

    1) Input   2) Social   3) Personal   4) Affective

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Acculturation is a concept brought forward in the **socio-cultural factors** affecting SLA.

✒ *Example 2:* **The process of acculturation ……… .**

    1) starts with the stage of culture shock

    2) usually fails to reach the assimilation stage

    3) may result in anomie during the culture stress stage

    4) is largely facilitated when an L2 learner is cognitive-oriented

Answer: **Choice "3"**

Acculturation consists of four successive stages:

(a) **excitement and euphoria**

(b) **culture shock**

(c) **culture stress or recovery**

(d) **adaption or assimilation**

Anomie which is described as the feelings of social uncertainty or dissatisfaction is a significant aspect of the relationship between language learning and attitude toward the foreign culture. It is the first symptom of the third stage of acculturation, a feeling of homelessness, where one feels neither bound firmly to one's native culture or fully adapted to the second culture. The strongest dose of anomie is experienced when a person begins to master the L2.

SOCIAL DISTANCE

The concept of social distance emerged as an affective construct to give explanatory power to the place of culture learning in second language learning.

📖 **Note 3:** Social distance refers to the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures that come into contact within an individual.

"Distance" is obviously used in a metaphorical sense to depict dissimilarity between two cultures. John Schumann (1976) described social distance as consisting of the following parameters:

1. **Dominance**. In relation to the TL (target language) group, is the L2 (second language learning) group politically, culturally, technically, or economically dominant, nondominant, or subordinate?

2. **Integration**. Is the integration pattern of the L2 group assimilation, acculturation, or preservation? What is the L2 group's degree of enclosure which refers to its identity separate from other contiguous groups?

3. **Cohesiveness**. Is the L2 group cohesive? What is the size of the L2 group?

4. **Congruence**. Are the cultures of the two groups congruent, that is, similar in their value and belief systems? What are the attitudes of the two groups toward each other?

5. **Permanence**. What is the L2 group's intended length of residence in the target language area?

Schumann used the above factors to describe hypothetically "good" and "bad" language learning situations, and illustrated each situation with two actual cross-cultural contexts. His two hypothetical "bad" language learning situations:

1. The TL group views the L2 group as dominant and the L2 group views itself in the same way. Both groups desire preservation and high enclosure for the L2 group, the L2 group is both cohesive and large, the two cultures are not congruent, the two groups hold negative attitudes toward each other, and the L2 group intends to remain in the TL area only for a short time.

2. The second bad situation has all the characteristics of the first except that in this case, the L2 group considers itself subordinate and is considered subordinate by the TL group.

A "good" language learning situation, according to Schumann's model, is one in which the L2 group is nondominant in relation to the TL group, both groups desire assimilation (or at least acculturation) for the L2 group, low enclosure is the goal of both groups, the two cultures are congruent, the L2 group is small and noncohesive, both groups have positive attitudes toward each other, and the L2 group intends to remain in the target language area for a long time. Under such conditions, social distance would be minimal and acquisition of the target language would be enhanced.

Schumann's hypothesis was that the greater the social distance between two cultures, the greater the difficulty the learner will have in learning the second language, and conversely, the smaller the social distance (the greater the social solidarity between two cultures), the better will be the language learning situation.

📖 *Example 3:* **Which of the following parameters is NOT included in Schumann's model of social distance?**

1) Inhibition   2) Dominance   3) Integration   4) Cohesiveness

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Social distance refers to the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures that come into contact with an individual. It consists of five parameters:

(a) **Dominance:** the dominance or subordination of a language group in relation to the other group

(b) **Integration:** L2 group's degree of acculturation, assimilation, or preservation

(c) **Cohesiveness:** the size and the connectedness of the L2 group

(d) **Congruence:** the similarity or the difference of the groups

(e) **Permanence:** the length of residence of the L2 group in the target area

L2 group here refers to the individuals who are learning an L2.

📖 *Example 4:* **In his acculturation theory, Schumann (1976) described social distance as consisting of some parameters. Based on the parameters, which of the following is a good language learning situation?**

1) When L2 group is dominant in relation to TL group.

2) L2 group has more desire to assimilate.

3) L2 group is small and non cohesive.

4) L2 group considers itself subordinate.

Answer: **Choice "3"**

A good language learning situation is one in which:

- the L2 group is non-dominant in relation to the target language group
- both groups desire assimilation or at least acculturation for the L2 group
- the two cultures are congruent
- the L2 group is small and non-cohesive

📖 *Example 5:* **According to Schumann's model of social distance and language learning, ………** .

1) integration refers to the merging of L1-L2 patterns

2) small social distance causes the greatest problem

3) the non-domination of the L2 group in relation to the TL group is a bad situation

4) both cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures affect learning

Answer: **Choice "4"**

Social distance refers to the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures that come into contact within an individual.

- great social distance causes the greatest problem
- the non-domination of the L2 group in relation to the TL group is a good situation

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📖 *Example 6:* **According to Schumann's acculturation theory, ………**

1) a good learning situation is one in which the L2 learners' group is non-cohesive

2) motivation is either integrative or instrumental

3) a dominant L2 learners' group can help language learning

4) social distance is a metacognitive variable

Answer: **Choice "1"**

A good language learning situation is one in which:

- the L2 group is non-dominant in relation to the target language group
- both groups desire assimilation or at least acculturation for the L2 group
- the two cultures are congruent
- the L2 group is small and non-cohesive

William Acton (1979) proposed that instead of trying to measure *actual* social distance, we measure **perceived social distance**. His contention was that the actual distance between cultures is not particularly relevant since it is what learners perceive that forms their own reality. According to Acton, when learners encounter a new culture, their acculturation process is a factor of how they perceive their own culture in relation to the culture of the target language, and vice versa. For example, objectively there may be a relatively large distance between Americans and Saudi Arabians, but an American learning Arabic in Saudi Arabia might for a number of reasons perceive little distance and, in turn, act on that perception.

ویلیام اکتون (۱۹۷۹) پیشنهاد کرد که به جای تلاش برای اندازه‌گیری فاصله اجتماعی واقعی، فاصله اجتماعی حس شده را اندازه بگیـریم. اسـتدلال او ایـن بود که آنچه که زبان‌آموزان در مورد فاصله فرهنگی حس می‌کنند نگرش آن‌ها را به فرهنگ جدید تشکیل می‌دهد. به گفته اکتون، زمانی که زبان‌آموزان با یک فرهنگ جدید مواجه می‌شوند، فرایند فرهنگ‌پذیری آن‌ها نشأت گرفته از حس آن‌ها در مورد رابطه فرهنگ‌شان با فرهنگ زبان مقصد است. بـه عنـوان مثال، ممکن است از نظر عینی فاصله نسبتاً زیادی بین آمریکایی‌ها و مردم عربستان سعودی وجود داشته باشد، اما یک زبان‌آموز آمریکایی که در عربسـتان سعودی عربی می‌آموزد ممکن است به دلایلی فاصله فرهنگی کمی حس کند و بر اساس همین حس هم عمل کند.

Acton found that in the case of learners of English who had been in the United States for four months, there is an *optimal* perceived social distance ratio (among the three scores) that typifies the "good" language learner. If learners perceived themselves as either too close to or too distant from either the target culture or the native culture, they fell into the category of "bad" language learners as measured by standard proficiency tests. The implication is that successful language learners see themselves as maintaining some distance between themselves and both cultures.

According to the **optimal distance model** of second language acquisition proposed by Brown (1980), an **adult** who fails to master a second language in a second culture may have failed to synchronize linguistic and cultural development. Adults who have achieved nonlinguistic means of coping in the foreign culture will pass through Stage 3 and into Stage 4 with an undue number of *fossilized* forms of language, never achieving mastery. They have no reason to achieve mastery since they have learned to cope without sophisticated knowledge of the language. They may have acquired a sufficient number of functions of a second language without acquiring the correct forms.

🐬 *Example 7*: **Which of the following statements is TRUE about the optimal distance model?**

(سراسری ۹۶)

   1) It applies to neither children nor adult learners.
   2) It applies quite appropriately to both children and adult learners.
   3) It applies more appropriately to children, although it could pertain to adult learners as well.
   4) It applies more appropriately to adult learners, although it could pertain to children as well.

Answer: **Choice "4"**
This model mostly applies to adults.

TEACHING INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE

A number of recent research studies have shown the positive effects of incorporating cultural awareness in language classrooms. Perhaps the most productive model of the combination of second language and second culture learning is found among students who learn a second language in a country where that language is spoken natively. Hofstede (1986) used four different conceptual categories to study the cultural norms of fifty different countries. Each category was described as follows:

1. **Individualism** as a characteristic of a culture opposes **collectivism** (the word is used here in an anthropological, not a political, sense). Individualist cultures assume that any person looks primarily after his or her own interest and the interest of his or her immediate family (husband, wife, and children). Collectivist cultures assume that any person through birth and possible later events belongs to one or more tight "in-groups," from which he or she cannot detach him or herself. The "in-group" (whether extended family, clan, or organization) protects the interest of its members, but in turn expects their permanent loyalty. A collectivist society is tightly integrated; an individualist society is loosely integrated.

فردگرایی به عنوان یک ویژگی فرهنگی مخالف **جمع‌گرایی** است (در اینجا به معنی جمع‌گرایی از لحاظ انسان‌شناسـی، و نـه معنـی سیاسـی آن، اشـاره داریم). فرهنگ فردگرا فرض می‌کند که هر فرد در درجه اول به دنبال منافع خود و یا منافع خانواده‌اش (شوهر، همسر، و فرزندان) است. فرهنگ جمـع‌گـرا فرض می‌کند که هر فرد از طریق تولد و حوادث بعد از آن به یک یا چند «گروه» تعلق دارد، که نمی‌تواند خود را از آن‌ها جدا کند. این «گروه» (که خانواده گسترده، قبیله، یا سازمان است) محافظ منافع اعضای خود است، اما در عوض وفاداری دائمی آن‌ها را انتظار دارد. جامعه جمع‌گرا شدیداً یکپارچه است، یک جامعه فردگرا دارای یکپارچگی کمی است.

2. **Power distance** as a characteristic of a culture defines the extent to which the less powerful persons in a society accept inequality in power and consider it as normal. Inequality exists within any culture, but the degree of it that is tolerated varies between one culture and another. All societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others

3. **Uncertainty avoidance** as a characteristic of a culture defines the extent to which people within a culture are made nervous by situations they perceive as unstructured, unclear, or unpredictable, situations which they therefore try to avoid by maintaining strict codes of behavior and a belief in absolute truths. Cultures with a strong uncertainty avoidance are active, aggressive, emotional, compulsive, security seeking, and intolerant; cultures with a weak uncertainty avoidance are contemplative, less aggressive, unemotional, relaxed, accepting of personal risks, and relatively tolerant.

4. **Masculinity** as a characteristic of a culture opposes **femininity**. The two differ in the social roles associated with the biological fact of the existence of two sexes, and in particular in the social roles attributed to men. The cultures which are labeled as "masculine" strive for maximal distinction between what men are expected to do and what women are expected to do.

The Table below shows Hofstede's conception of the manifestation of the first of the above four categories, individualism/collectivism, with particular focus on classroom manifestations of these two factors in contrast.

Table 1. Difference in teacher student and student / student interaction related to the individualism vs. collectivism dimension

Collectivist Societies	Individualist Societies
Positive association in society with whatever is rooted in tradition	Positive association in society with whatever is "new"
The young should learn; adults cannot accept student role	One is never too old to learn; "permanent education"
Students expect to learn how to do	Students expect to learn how to learn
Individual students will only speak up in class when called upon personally by the teacher	Individual students "will speak up in class in response to a general invitation by the teacher
Individuals will only speak up in small groups	Individuals will only speak up in large groups
Large classes split socially into smaller, cohesive subgroups based on particularist criteria (e.g., ethnic affiliation)	Subgroupings in class vary from one situation to the next based on universalist criteria (e.g., the task "at hand")
Formal harmony in learning situations should be maintained at all times	Confrontation in learning situations can be salutary; conflicts can be brought into the open
Neither the teacher nor any student should ever be made to lose face	Face-consciousness is weak
Education is a way of gaining prestige in one's social environment and of joining a higher-status group	Education is a way of improving one's economic worth and self-respect based on ability and competence
Diploma certificates are important and displayed on walls	Diploma certificates have little symbolic value
Acquiring certificates even through (dubious) means is more important than acquiring competence	Acquiring competence is more important than acquiring certificates
Teachers are expected to give preferential treatment to some students (e.g., based on ethnic affiliation or on recommendation by an influential person)	Teachers are expected to be strictly impartial

Unit 34: Communicative Competence

The term **communicative competence** (CC) was coined by Dell Hymes (1972,1967), a sociolinguist who was convinced that Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence was too limited. Chomsky's "rule-governed creativity" (**linguistic competence**) that so aptly described a child's mushrooming grammar at the age of 3 or 4 did not, according to Hymes, account sufficiently for the social and functional rules of language. So Hymes referred to CC as that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts.

اصطلاح توانش ارتباطی (CC) توسط جامعه شناس زبان به نام دل هایمز در ۱۹۶۷ ارائه شد. وی معتقد بود که نظـر چامسـکی (۱۹۶۵) دربـاره مفهـوم تـوانش بیش از حد محدود بود. مفهوم"خلاقیت قانونمند" (توانش زبانی) که چامسکی مطرح کرد به درستی دستور زبان رو به رشد یک کودک در سن ۳ یا ۴ سـالگی را شرح می داد. اما به نظر هایمز، دیدگاه چامسکی نمی‌توانست به اندازه کافی قوانین اجتماعی و کاربردی زبان را توضیح دهد. بنابراین هـایمز بـه تـوانش ارتبـاطی اشاره کرد: توانشی که ما را قادر می سازد که پیام ها را انتقال دهیم و یا تفسیر کنیم و معانی را در موقعیت های معیّن با یکدیگر تبادل کنیم.

CHAPTER TEN
((TEACHING LANGUAGE COMPONENTS))

Introduction

The language components to be touched upon in this part are **grammar**, **vocabulary**, **pronunciation** and **culture**.

Form-Focused Instruction

A glance through the last century of language teaching practices reveals mixed opinions about the place of teaching language forms. In the Grammar Translation Method and in cognitive code learning, formal aspects of language received central attention. In the Direct Method and the Natural Approach, overt focus on form was almost forbidden. Some manifestations of CLT advocated only a passing attention to form, while other proponents of CLT supported the injection of form-focused techniques into a communicative curriculum. The forms of language include the organizational components of language and the systematic rules that govern their structure. Phonological, grammatical, and lexical forms occupy the three principal formal categories that typically appear in a language curriculum.

Unit 44: Teaching Grammar

Grammar is the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. Technically, grammar refers to sentence-level rules only, and not to rules governing the relationship among sentences, which we refer to as discourse rules. In other words, grammar tells us how to construct a sentence (word order, verb and noun systems, modifiers, phrases, clauses, etc.), and discourse rules tell us how to string those sentences together.

In teaching grammar, appropriate grammar-focusing techniques:

- are embedded in meaningful, communicative contexts,
- contribute positively to communicative goals,
- promote accuracy within fluent, communicative language,
- do not overwhelm students with linguistic terminology,
- are as lively and intrinsically motivating as possible.

Six variables can help to determine the role of grammar in language teaching:

1. Age

It is clear that due to normal intellectual developmental variables, young children can profit from a focus on form if attention to form is offered through structured input and incidental, indirect error treatment. Older children may benefit from very simple generalizations and concrete illustrations. Adults, with their abstract intellectual capabilities, can use grammatical pointers to advance their communicative abilities.

2. Proficiency level

If we force too much grammar focus on beginning level learners, we run the risk of blocking their acquisition of fluency skills. At this level, grammatical focus is helpful as an occasional "zoom lens" with which we zero in on some aspect of language but not helpful if it becomes the major focus of class work. At the advanced level, grammar is less likely to disturb communicative fluency.

3. Educational background

Students who are non-literate or who have no formal educational background may find it difficult to grasp the complexity of grammatical terms and explanations. Highly educated students, on the other hand, are cognitively more receptive to grammar focus and may insist on error correction to help refine their already fluent skills.

4. Language skills

Because of the permanence of writing and the demand for perfection in grammatical form in written English, grammar focus may be more effective in improving written English than speaking, reading, and writing.

5. Style (register)

Informal contexts often make fewer demands on a learner's grammatical accuracy. In casual conversation among peers, for example, minor errors are acceptable, while more formal contexts (e.g. a student consulting with a teacher) usually require greater grammatical accuracy. Similarly, in writing, tolerance for error is higher in a quick e-mailed message than in a formal essay.

6. Needs and goals

If learners are headed toward professional goals, they may need to stress formal accuracy more than learners at the survival level. In either case, message clarity is a prime criterion.

APPROCHES TO TEACHING GRAMMAR

1. inductive vs. deductive presentation:

One central issue surrounding grammar teaching is whether grammar should be presented inductively or deductively. An inductive approach is one in which students infer the rule or generalization from a set of examples. In a deductive approach, on the other hand, the students are given the rule and they apply it to examples.

These approaches to grammar teaching are often contrasted with each other. In most contexts, an inductive approach is more appropriate because

a. it is more in keeping with natural language acquisition (where rules are absorbed subconsciously with little or no conscious focus).

b. it conforms more easily to the concept of interlanguage development in which learners progress, on variable timetables, through stages of rule acquisition.

c. it allows students to get a communicative "feel" for some aspect of language before possibly being overwhelmed by grammatical explanations.

d. it builds more intrinsic motivation by allowing students to discover rules rather than being told them.

However, there may be occasional moments when a deductive approach or a blend between the two is recommended.

آموزش گرامر به صورت استقرایی یا قیاسی

رویکردهای قیاسی و استقرایی در تدریس دستور زبان اغلب با یکدیگر متضاد دانسته شده‌اند. در بسیاری از زمینه‌ها، رویکرد استقرایی مناسب‌تر است زیرا:

الف) بیشتر با اکتساب زبان طبیعی منطبق است (که در آن قوانین به‌طور ناخودآگاه و با تمرکز آگاهانه کمی جذب می‌شوند).

ب) با مفهوم رشد زبانِ زبان‌آموز سازگار است، که در آن زبان‌آموزان، با جداول زمانی متغیر، مراحل یادگیری قواعد زبانی را طی می‌کنند.

ج) به زبان‌آموزان اجازه می‌دهد تا «احساس» ارتباطی نسبت به زبان پیدا کنند قبل از این که در توضیحات دستوری غرق شوند.

د) با اجازه دادن به دانش‌آموزان برای کشف قوانین ایجاد انگیزه درونی می‌کند.

با این‌حال، ممکن است گاهی رویکرد قیاسی و یا ترکیبی از این دو رویکرد توصیه شود.

✎ *Example 1:* **Deductive teaching of grammar centers around ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۰)

    1) first, giving the examples and then the general rules
    2) first, giving the general rules and then the examples
    3) giving the rules and examples in students' mother tongue
    4) giving the examples and rules at the same time

Answer: **Choice"2"**

Inductive and deductive reasoning are two polar aspects of the generalization process. In inductive reasoning, one stores a number of specific instances and induces a general law or rule or conclusion that governs or subsumes the specific instance; that is, we move from the concrete to the abstract. Deductive reasoning is a movement from generalization to specific instances: specific subsumed facts are inferred or deduced from a general principle. Here we move from the abstract to the concrete.

✎ *Example 2:* **All of the following statements are true about the inductive approach to teaching grammar EXCEPT ……… .**   (سراسری ۹۷)

    1) it is intrinsically motivating
    2) it allows students to get a communicative feel
    3) it is inconsistent with the concept of interlanguage development
    4) it is consistent with the assumption that rules should be absorbed subconsciously

Answer: **Choice "3"**

The inductive approach conforms more easily to the concept of interlanguage development in which learners progress, on variable timetables, through stages of rule acquisition.

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2. Input enhancement:

This approach draws students' attention to grammatical forms by **highlighting non-salient grammatical forms or using boldface type** for a particular structure in a reading passage.

✎ *Example 3:* **Underlining a linguistic feature to make learners notice its linguistic function is known as**

....   (سراسری ۹۳)

    1) input enhancement   2) input modification   3) input availability   4) input augmentation

Answer: **Choice "1"**

Input enhancement is an implicit attention- drawing device which draws learners' attention to a perceptually enriched linguistic feature in a typical written text used as input. It refers to the manipulation of typographical cues through highlighting techniques such as font enlarging, italicizing, bold-facing, underlining, capitalizing, shadowing, or a combination of more than one of these techniques

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3. Input flooding

This approach entails using particular grammar structures with **great frequency or saliency** in the input.

GRAMMAR TEACHING TECHNIQUES

Following are some sample techniques for teaching grammar:

1. Charts

Charts and graphs are useful devices for practicing patterns, clarifying grammatical relationships, and even for understanding sociolinguistic and discourse constraints.

2. Objects

Objects brought into the classroom liven up the context and provide a kinesthetic, hands-on dimension to teaching. By engaging students in communication with each other, the teacher also stimulates them to practice conversation rules and other discourse constraints.

3. Maps and Drawings

Maps are practical and simple visual aids which are useful for jigsaw, information-gap, and other interactive techniques. They can also serve to illustrate certain grammatical structures.

4. Dialogues

Dialogues are an age-old technique for introducing and practicing grammatical points.

5. Written Texts

At the very simple, mechanical level, a text might be used to get at a certain verb tense, or simply to illustrate a grammatical category. In the latter, written discourse rules for paragraphing and sequencing ideas can also be attended to.

TRADITIONAL VS. COMMUNICATIVE GRAMMAR TEACHING

Teaching grammar means enabling language students to use linguistic forms accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately. Traditional grammar teaching has employed a structural syllabus and lessons composed of three phases: presentation, practice, and production (or communication), often referred to as "the PPP" approach. Underlying this approach is the assumption that one systematically builds towards communication.

However, teachers can embrace a more communicatively oriented approach, starting with a communicative activity such as task- or content-based material. The grammar that is taught is not scheduled in advance as it is with a structural syllabus/PPP approach, but rather supports students in their completion of the communicative task or their making sense of a particular content area. In addition, teachers respond to grammar errors that students commit when engaged in communication. As such, it reverses the normal sequence, putting communication first, rather than selecting and presenting a grammar structure in advance of its use in context.

معلمان می‌توانند رویکردی ارتباطی را آغاز کنند و از فعالیت‌های ارتباطی مانند فعالیت زبانی (task) و یا مواد آموزشی مبتنی بر محتوای درسی (content-based) استفاده کنند. دستور زبانی که آموزش داده می‌شود از پیش برنامه‌ریزی نشده است، بلکه دانشجویان در تکمیل فعالیت‌های ارتباطی خود یا درک معنی یک محتوای خاص آن را می‌آموزند. علاوه بر این، معلمان به اشتباهات دستوری که دانش‌آموزان در حین ارتباط مرتکب می‌شوند پاسخ می‌دهند. به این ترتیب، این روش، ترتیب متداول را معکوس می‌کند و به ارتباط اولویت می‌دهد، نه اینکه ابتدا یک ساختار دستور زبان را انتخاب و ارائه کند و سپس از آن در بافت ارتباطی استفاده نماید.

CHAPTER ELEVEN
((TEACHING LANGUAGE SKILLS))

Unit 48: Integrating the Four Skills

The human race has fashioned two forms of **productive** performance, oral and written, and two forms of **receptive** performance, aural (or auditory) and reading. Despite our history of treating the four skills in separate segments of a curriculum, there is a recent trend toward skill integration. That is, rather than designing a curriculum to teach the many aspects of one skill, say, reading, curriculum designers are taking more of a **whole language** approach whereby reading is treated as one of two or more interrelated skills. A course that deals with reading skills, then, will also deal with related listening, speaking, and writing skills. A lesson in a so-called reading class, under this new paradigm, might include:

a pre-reading *discussion* of the topic to activate schemata.

listening to a lecture or a series of informative statements about the topic of a passage to be read.

a focus on a certain *reading* strategy, say, scanning.

writing a paraphrase of a section of the reading passage.

Why Integration?

Some may argue that the integration of the four skills diminishes the importance of the rules of listening, speaking, reading, and writing that are unique to each separate skill. However, the integration of the four skills is the only plausible approach within a communicative, interactive framework. The following observations support such techniques.

1. Production and reception are quite simply two sides of the same coin; one cannot split the coin in two.

2. Interaction means sending and receiving messages.

3. Written and spoken language often bear a relationship to each other; to ignore that relationship is to ignore the richness of language.

4. For literate learners, the interrelationship of written and spoken language is an intrinsically motivating reflection of language and culture and society.

5. By attending primarily to what learners can do with language, and only secondarily to the forms of language, we invite any or all of the four skills that are relevant into the classroom arena.

6. Often one skill will reinforce another; we learn to speak, for example, in part by modeling what we hear, and we learn to write by examining what we can read.

7. Proponents of the **whole language** approach have shown that in the real world of language use, most of our natural performance involves not only the integration of one or more skills, but connections between language and the way we think and feel and act.

The following five models which are in common use, all pull the direct attention of the student away from the separateness of the skills of language and toward the meaningful purposes for which we use language. These models are Content-Based Instruction, Theme-Based Instruction, Experiential Learning, The Episode Hypothesis and Task-Based Teaching. As Content-Based Instruction and Task-Based Teaching were covered in earlier units, here we will touch upon Theme-Based Instruction, Experiential Learning and The Episode Hypothesis.

THEME-BASED INSTRUCTION

Theme-based instruction is similar to content-based instruction in that both are organized around subject-matter area. In order to distinguish theme-based teaching from content-based, however, it is important to distinguish between what Brown calls "strong" and "weak" versions of content-based teaching (not to be confused in any way with "good" and "bad"). In the strong version, the primary purpose of a course is to instruct students in a subject-matter area, and language is of secondary and subordinate interest. All four of the examples of content-based instruction are good illustrations of the strong version.

A weak form of content-based teaching actually places an equal value on content and language objectives. While the curriculum, to be sure, is organized around subject-matter area, both students and teachers are fully aware that language skills do not occupy a subordinate role. Students have no doubt chosen to take a course or curriculum because their language skills need improvement, and they are now able to work toward that improvement without being battered with linguistically based topics. The ultimate payoff is that their language skills are indeed enhanced, but through focal attention to topic and peripheral attention to language.

This weak version is actually very practical and very effective in many instructional settings. It typically manifests itself in what has come to be called theme-based or topic-based teaching. Theme-based instruction provides an alternative to traditional language classes by structuring a course around themes or topics. Theme-based curricula can serve the multiple interests of students in a classroom and can offer a focus on content while still adhering to institutional needs for offering a language course per se. So, for example, an intensive English course for intermediate pre-university students might deal with topics of current interest such as public health, environmental awareness, world economics, etc. In the classroom, students read articles or chapters, view video programs, discuss issues, propose solutions, and carry out writing assignments on a given theme. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in a university is an appropriate instance of theme-based instruction.

The major principles underlying both theme-based and content-based instruction are:
- automaticity
- meaningful learning
- intrinsic motivation
- communicative competence.

✎ *Example 1:* **Both theme-based and content-based instruction are founded on the principle of ……… .**

(سراسری ۸۶)

     1) integration of skills and pattern practice   2) meaningful learning and automaticity
     3) instrumental motivation and task-based syllabus   4) experiential learning and strategy-based instruction

Answer: **Choice "2"**

The major principles underlying both theme-based and content-based instructions are <u>automaticity</u>, <u>meaningful learning</u>, <u>intrinsic motivation</u>, and <u>communicative competence</u>. Language is purposeful and its use draws on integrated skills, and pattern practice has no place in either of these methods. These two methods are content-based and theme- or topic-based and not task-based.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Closely related to and overlapping theme-based instruction is the concept of experiential language learning. Experiential learning includes activities that engage both left- and right-brain processing, that contextualize language, that integrate skills, and that point toward authentic, real-world purposes. What experiential learning highlights for us is giving students *concrete experiences* through which they "discover" language principles (even if subconsciously) by trial and error, by processing feedback, by building hypotheses about language, and by revising these assumptions in order to become fluent. In experiential learning the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied. It is contrasted with learning in which the learner only reads about, hears about, talks about, or writes about these realities but never comes in contact with them as part of the learning process. It involves direct encounter with the phenomenon being studied rather than merely thinking about the encounter or only considering the possibility of doing something with it.

Experiential learning is not so much a novel concept as it is an emphasis on the marriage of two substantive principles of effective learning, principles espoused by the famous American educator John Dewey: (a) one learns

best by "doing," by active experimentation, and (b) inductive learning by discovery activates strategies that enable students to "take charge" of their own learning progress. As such, it is an especially useful concept for teaching children, whose abstract intellectual processing abilities are not yet mature.

Experiential learning techniques tend to be learner-centered by nature. Examples of learner-centered experiential techniques include:

- hands-on projects (such as nature projects)
- computer activities (especially in small groups)
- research projects
- cross-cultural experiences (camps, dinner groups, etc.)
- field trips and other "on-site" visits (such as to a grocery store)
- role-plays and simulations.

Experiential learning tends to put an emphasis on the psychomotor aspects of language learning by involving learners in physical actions into which language is subsumed and reinforced. Through action, students are drawn into a utilization of multiple skills. One specialized form of experiential learning that has been quite popular in elementary-school teaching for several decades is the **Language Experience Approach (LEA)**. It is an integrated-skills approach initially used in teaching native language reading skills, but more recently adapted to second language learning contexts. With widely varying adaptations, students' personal experiences (a trip to the zoo, a television story, a picture, etc.) are used as the basis for discussion, and then the teacher writes down the "experience." Students can then recopy, edit, and/or illustrate the story, which is preserved in the form of a "book." A number of activities can then follow, including word study, spelling focus, semantic discussions, inference, prediction, etc. The benefit of the LEA is in the intrinsic involvement of students in creating their own stories rather than being given other people's stories.

✎ *Example 2:* **Giving students tasks intended to engage both left-and right-brain processing is based on the tenets of ……… .**   (سراسری ۹۷)

    1) The Oral Approach
    2) Theme-Based Teaching
    3) Experiential Language Learning
    4) Competency-Based Language Teaching

Answer: **Choice "3"**

Experiential learning includes <u>activities that engage both</u> <u>left- and right-brain processing</u>, that <u>contextualize language</u>, that <u>integrate skills</u>, and that <u>point toward authentic</u>, <u>real-world purposes</u>.

✎ *Example 3:* **All of the following underlie experiential language learning <u>EXCEPT</u> ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۹)

    1) skills integration   2) left- and right-brain processing
    3) language decontextualization   4) authentic purposes

Answer: **Choice "3"**

In experiential learning, language contextualization matters.

✎ *Example 4:* **All of the following are true about experiential language learning EXCEPT it ………. .**

    (سراسری ۹۷)

    1) includes contextualized language activities.
    2) emphasizes that language skills be taught in isolation
    3) includes activities that engage both left- and right-brain processing
    4) provides learning opportunities for students to discover language principles

Answer: **Choice "2"**

Experiential learning includes activities that engage both left- and right-brain processing that contextualize language, **that integrate skills**, and that point toward authentic, real-world purposes

THE EPISODE HYPOTHESIS

More than a hundred years ago, **Francois Gouin** designed a method of language teaching called the **Series Method**. One of the keys to the success of the method lay in the presentation of language in an easily followed storyline. In the following example, Gouin teaches a number of verbs, verb forms, and other vocabulary in a little story about a girl chopping wood:

The girl goes and seeks a piece of wood.

She takes a hatchet.

She draws near to the block.

She places the wood on this block.

She raises the hatchet.

She brings down the hatchet.

The blade strikes against the wood.

In easily visualized steps, the students are led through the process of chopping and gathering wood, all at a very elementary level of the language.

In some ways, Gouin was utilizing a psychological device that, a hundred years later, John Oller called the episode hypothesis. According to Oller, "text (i.e., discourse in any form) will be easier to reproduce, understand, and recall, to the extent that it is structured episodically." By this he meant that the presentation of language is enhanced if students receive interconnected sentences in an interest-provoking episode rather than in a disconnected series of sentences.

گویین در روش Series Method به استفاده از یک دستگاه روانشناختی روی آورد که صد سال بعد، جان آلر آن را **فرضیه اپیزود** نامید. به گفته آلر، «متن (به عنوان مثال، گفتمان در هر شکل آن) راحت‌تر بازتولید، درک، و به یاد آورده می‌شود اگر از نظر ساختاری به قسمت‌های به هم مرتبط تقسیم شده باشد. این سخن بدان معنی است که اگر جملات به هم پیوسته‌ای که علاقه دانش‌آموزان را برمی‌انگیزد به آن‌ها ارائه شود بسیار اثرگذارتر از یک سری جملات نامرتبط خواهد بود.

✎ *Example 5:* **The Series Method is best supported by ……… .**   (سراسری ۸۵)

    1) the Content-Based Approach   2) the Whole Language Approach

    3) the Episode Hypothesis   4) Classical Behaviorism

Answer: **Choice "3"**

The episode hypothesis is another version of the series method.

✎ *Example 6:* **The main feature of the language program based on the episodic hypothesis is ……… .**

                                                      (سراسری ۸۹)

    1) peripheral learning   2) assessment of the task in the terms of outcome

    3) instruction of learning strategies   4) provision of interconnected sentences

Answer: **Choice "4"**

According to Oller's psychological device, **the episode hypothesis**, <u>text will be easier to reproduce, understand, and recall to the extent that it is structured episodically</u>. The presentation of language is enhanced if students receive <u>interconnected sentences</u> in an interest-provoking episode rather than in a disconnected series of sentences.

✎ *Example 7:* **The Episode Hypothesis is more closely related to which of the following terms used in writing?**

                                                        (سراسری ۸۸)

    1) Unity   2) Cohesion   3) Coherence   4) Completeness

Answer: **Choice "3"**

The Episode Hypothesis believes in devising <u>coherent texts</u> as the teaching materials in the classroom.

<u>Cohesion</u> is the use of selected linguistic element to hold discourse together and to maintain its comprehensibility. Using words related to a certain topic, that is lexical connection, is a means of establishing cohesion.

<u>Coherence</u> refers to the planning and logical organization of the speaker's speech and the listener's ability to understand this logic. It is a characteristic of the mind's organization of reality and not a feature of language itself.