An Introduction to Applied Linguistics

What we should know as Theory and Practice in our English Language Classrooms

Dr. Ramdane Mehiri
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This guide is a single-authored project that aims to introduce master students to the field of Applied Linguistics. The devising of the guide is heavily based on the author's modest readings. This will undoubtedly ensure a level of diversity and consistency throughout the fifteen chapters, with more focus on issues related to language pedagogy. Therefore, students should go through all the themes, theories, and methods to gain the necessary background knowledge and basics of Applied Linguistics designed in their course syllabus.

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AAAL: (the) American Association of Applied Linguistics
AILA : (the) Association International de la Linguistique Appliquée
AL: Applied Linguistics
ALM: Audio-lingual method
BAAL: (the) British Association of Applied Linguistics
CA: Contrastive Analysis
CCA: (the) Cognitive Code Approach
CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
CLTA: (the) Communicative Language Teaching Approach
CP: Critical Period
CPH: Critical Period Hypothesis
CS: Code-switching
CTM: Communicative Teaching Method
DMs: Discourse Markers
EA: Error Analysis
EAP: English for Academic Purposes
EFL: English as a Foreign Language
ELT: English Language Teaching/Teacher
ESL: English as a Second Language
FG: Functional Grammar
FL: Foreign Language
FLA: First Language Acquisition

GG: Generative Grammar
GTM: (the) Grammar Translation Method
LA : Language Acquisition
LA: Linguistics Applied
LAD: Language Acquisition Device
L1: First Language
L1s: First Languages
L2: Second Language
L2A: Second Language Acquisition
LL: Language Learning
LLSs: Language Learning Strategies
LSP: Language for Specific Purposes
MIT: (The)Multiple Intelligences Theory
MT: Monitor Theory
SA: (the) Situational Approach
SLA: Second Language Acquisition
SLL: Second Language Learning
SLLs: Second Language Learners
TG: Traditional Grammar
TL: Target Language
TPR: (the)Total Physical Response
UG: Universal Grammar
USA: (the) United States of America
ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

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Author's Preface

The idea for this modest booklet emerged in 2017. I started teaching the course of Applied Linguistics in the Branch of English, Biskra University and I was, at that time, obliged to think of consulting many sources to design a syllabus for master students. Before this very crucial and turning point in my teaching career, I had already taught other courses (especially general linguistics and research methodology) which pushed me in a way or another to focus more on issues related to language pedagogy .

In addition to the aforementioned experience, I often had inspiring discussions on the state of English language teaching with hardworking colleagues. The latter not only made me enjoy scrutiny in such education affairs, but they also had clear influence on my line of developing a firm stand vis-à-vis teacher and learner development. It was during the period from 2017 to 2020 that I decisively decided to write a guide on the head themes of the field that might contribute to help students to have some background knowledge and basics of Applied Linguistics.

This guide is intended to take master students to a further stage at which they will get familiar with many interesting areas. Therefore, it is necessary that they go through each unit, focusing on all the theories and principles of applied linguistics designed in their course syllabus. This guide is also intended to introduce them to areas found in other courses and areas which they have gone through before.

Notes on the Author

Ramdane MEHIRI is Professor of Applied Linguistics and Research Methodology at Mohamed Kheider, University of Biskra, Algeria. His research interests cover a wide range including history of language and linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and other relevant aspects of second/foreign language acquisition. He is specifically interested in language learning theories and language teaching methods. He is the author of *"Research Methodology: An Introduction"* and *'' Your Master's Dissertation Structure: The Concise Recipe For A Successful Final Report''.* He has published a number of articles, including *"The Role of L1 Transfer in L2 Learning: Some reflections on Algerian learners"* and *"The Integration of E-Learning in the Algerian Tertiary Level: The case of Biskra University"*. He is a member of the Association of Professors of English and Translation at Arab Universities (APETAU) and is currently a reviewer in The International Journal of Arabic-English Studies (IJAES), Journal of Psychological and Educational Studies*,* and Journal of Translation and Languages (Translang). He has participated in international conferences through presenting several topics such as"*Language Diversity and Language Evolution in Algeria: The case of Biskra region"* (Mohamed V University in Rabat, Morocco) and *"Teachers and Students' Reactions to the Implementation of a Testing Model in the Algerian School System: An exploratory study"* (Al-Ahliyya University, Amman, Jordan).

General Introduction

What Applied Linguistics means and how one identifies its sub-fields and the issues it endeavours to solve are areas of great interest; i.e. areas which the present guide is devoted to sketch and investigate through a long journey of fifteen chapters. This guide is intended to be both theoretical and practical in nature, aimed at those who are involved in EFL learning and teaching. This guide, in its essence, has been developed to involve master students in real language-related situations where they need to implement some knowledge of first language acquisition, second language acquisition/learning, language learning theories, language teaching methods and approaches, language learning styles and strategies, feedback and error correction, and so on. The guide has also been devoted to help any colleague who has not taught the course of Applied Linguistics before, or has been teaching it for a short time, and anyone who is just beginning in the field. I hope to demystify the process for them all.

I begin by reminding my colleagues, my students, and myself that we are all involved in everyday language problems. One may consider, for instance, a moment when s/he is stuck in writing a paragraph or in continuing to speak in a given classroom situation. As we find ourselves in such a situation, we ask why this has happened and try to answer the question relying on teachers, books, colleagues or the Internet as is the case these days. We then seek satisfaction with the answer(s) which we receive or the remedies which we are advised to try out until the problem or difficulty vanishes. In the absence of a comprehensible and comprehensive answer, however, we might understand that there are other further strides to make.

In this guide, I have implemented what the target readers can expect as information from the abovementioned areas and have discussed through the process many interesting points and questions which may provide them with insights into solving some crucial classroom problems and opening for them doors for further research. I have ended up each chapter differently, depending on its nature and the ideas it covers. There is, in fact, no distinction between the chapters, neither in terms of pages nor in terms of information quality. I have done my best to make of each chapter a source of reliable facts and a continuum of thought. Each chapter examines a topic from different perspectives and tries to relate the experience it offers with preceding and following experiences.

Definitions and Evolution of Applied Linguistics

1. 1 Definitions of Applied Linguistics

In an article that attempted to trace the history of Applied Linguistics both as a term and independent discipline, Markee (1990) indicated that there are strong and weak definitions; the former definitions highlight the idea that AL is concerned with solving second language teaching problems and the latter ones assert the belief that it lends itself to all practical language-related problems (p.315). Markee continues to say that AL has a short history because the term was first used in the first issue of the *Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics* in 1948, and the discipline started to gain floor in the 1950s in the United States and Britain (ibid).

According to Péter Medgyes (1997), Applied Linguistics has so far had several interpretations. A group of specialists consider it to be Language Pedagogy, while others join it together with the disciplines of Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics, and Computer Assisted Linguistics (Sárosdy, Bencze, Poór, and Vadnay, 2006, p. 9). The latter group, in their book of applied linguistics for BA students (first volume), confine themselves to the fertile area of language pedagogy.

Many definitions have been given to AL based on different perspectives. One major perspective suggests that "we shall gain a clearer picture of the nature of applied linguistics if we turn our attention away from the source (what applied linguistics draws on) to its target (what applied linguistics equips you to do). The target clearly cannot be anything and everything to do with language" (Davies and Elder, 2007, p.3). William Grabe, in describing AL, points out that "AL addresses real world problems as they relate to discrimination, language learning problems, attrition, aging migrants, assessment and instruction and contact. These are all fundamental sources of problems." (Cited in De Bot, 2015, p.27). In the same vein, Anne Burns says that:

For me it has to do with using in-depth knowledge and theories of how language works to understand and contribute to a wide range of cultural and social contexts and behaviors. Also the diversification of paradigmatic and methodological approaches, and the development of these trends differently in different geographical locations (ibid)

Below are some definitions of AL that have been offered by renowned experts (Cited in Khafidhoh, 2015, p. 33):

1. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 320) in Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics define applied linguistics as follows:

a. Applied linguistics is the study of second and foreign language learning and teaching.

b. Applied linguistics is the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems, such as lexicography, translation, speech pathology, etc. Applied linguistics uses information from sociology, psychology, anthropology, and information theory as well as from linguistics in order to develop its own theoretical models of language and language use, and then uses this information and theory in practical areas such as syllabus design, speech therapy, language planning, stylistics, etc.

2. Brumfit in Davies (2004, p. 3) states that applied linguistics is the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue.

3. Schmit and Celce-Muria in Davies (2004, p. 4) define applied linguistics as the using of what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, (c) how it is used, in order to achieves some purposes or solve some problems in the real world.

4. Grabe in Davies (2004, p. 5) says that the focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they are learner, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyer, and service provider, those who need social, test takers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of business clients.

5. The last, Alan Davies (2004: 11) concludes that the definition of applied linguistics is a coherent activity which theorizes through speculative and empirical investigations real-world problems in which language is a central issue.

The above definitions and many others give the impression that AL, in its developmental line, has moved from language teaching concerns to particular issues which have to do with language in a way or another. Another important point that can be derived from the same literature is that it is the weak definitions, as mentioned earlier, that are flourishing in many fields.

1. 2 Evolution of Applied Linguistics

Interest in solving language-related problems and other crucial areas in language teaching methodology began in the 19th century, but it was not clear which discipline or branch was really responsible for this kind of issues, nor was the term or concept of 'applied linguistics' proposed, and that situation continued up to the 1970s (Li, 2014, p. 132). Shuy (2015, p. 334) indicates that until the late 1950s, it was still thought that AL was part and parcel of general or theoretical linguistics; linguists during those years were interested in studying other topics such as the phonological and grammatical structures of languages, the historical changes of and variation in languages and they used what they had gained as knowledge in the area of language teaching, learning and testing. This gives, or rather reinforces the idea that AL is a new discipline.

The very beginning of AL dates back to the late 1940s or the latter part of the Second World War when American soldiers had to speak the languages of the parts where they were sent (Weideman, 2013, p. 79). At that time, the predominant language teaching/learning method based on the principles of Behaviourism was audiolingualism which, according to many scholars, assisted AL to respond to the actual demand of the time: second language teaching (ibid, p.80). For almost the same reasons, the British Council in the 1950s intended to promote the teaching and learning of English in the world and the Commonwealth countries. These efforts gave birth to the term "Applied Linguistics" (Thang, 2016, p. 81). Since then, AL has been known as the branch of linguistics that is concerned with solving real-world problems which have to do with language. It has also been known to cover a wide range of disciplines such as bilingualism, conversation analysis, contrastive analysis, language assessment, second language acquisition, and language planning (ibid). In fact, many more experts advocate the idea that AL has been implemented mainly to practical problems in language teaching and learning and that it overlaps with other disciplines where language is a central component (McCarthy, 2001, pp. 2-4).

AbdAlla and Mohammed (2020, p. 10-12) and the National Open University of Nigeria (2014, pp. 145-147) provided the same discussion of the history of applied linguistics in different countries as it was noted by Grabe (2002) as follows:

In America, in 1948, a conference was organized by Charles C. Fries, supported, among others, by Kenneth L. Pike and W. Freeman Twaddell at the University of Michigan to disseminate information about work at Fries English Language Institute (founded 1941). At that conference, a quarterly journal of applied linguistics (titled- Language Learning) was started.

In Britain as well, a school of Applied Linguistics was established by J.C. Cartford at the University of Edinburgh in 1956 and the center for AL was set up in Washington, DC, under Charles Ferguson in 1959. It has been noted that similar institutes have been set up in various parts of the world. Grabe noted that national associations of applied linguists came together in 1964 to form the Association International de la Linguistique Appliquée (AILA) This association holds a four yearly international congress with published proceedings.

Davies and Elder (2006:6) commented on the symposium held at the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) in St Louis in the year 2001 where the history of applied linguistics was considered in four different countries. Angelis (2001) discussing the USA proposed a four-fold division of the history since the 1920s.The history was summarized thus:

1. AL in North America does have identifiable roots in linguistics

2. While North American AL has evolved over time in its orientation and scope, so has North American linguistics

3. A significant amount of work directed to real world issues involving language can be attributed to leading North American linguists

4. Much of what can now be seen as ground breaking applied linguistics type activity was carried out prior to the formal appearance of applied linguistics.

There was a gradual move away from the central focus on linguistics. Angelis notes that until the 1990s, there were a lot of language activities without much reference to linguistics. It was much later that scholars saw to need to link all these language activities to linguistics in terms of their applications.

McNamara (2001) points to a different tradition for Australian applied linguistics in contrast to the ones for UK and US. To McNamara, Australian applied linguistics made AL of modern languages its target of immigrants rather than English. The application of linguistics to the development of teaching materials and writing systems for aboriginal languages was also focused on.

The Australia tradition of AL shows a strong influence of continental Europe and of USA rather than of Britain. English came in the context of mother tongue teaching and teaching of English to immigrants- English as a Second Language (ESL). The English as a Foreign Language (EFL) British tradition got to Australia in the 1980's. Scholars have noted that the important thing about AL in Australia is its concern for language in education, both with regard to new migrant languages and literacy in English.

The British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL) was formally established in 1967 with the aim of advancing education, fostering and promoting by any lawful charitable means, the study of language use, language acquisition and language teaching and the fostering of interdisciplinary collaboration in this study (BAAL, 1994). Davies (2001) notes that the British tradition represented a deliberate attempt to establish a distinctive applied linguistics.

Davies (2001) notes that it was taken for granted in the 1960s and 70s that AL was about language teaching. Over the last 30 years, it became clear that those studying English language teaching had already studied aspects of linguistics. Lewis (2001, p. 19) notes that AL is trying to resolve language–based problems that people encounter in the real world; to Davis and Elder (2006, p. 9), AL has grown quickly and it is flourishing with academic positions, academic departments, international journals and an international association.

Davis and Elder (2006, p.9) commented on Widdowson's distinction between Linguistics Applied (LA) and Applied Linguistics (AL) thus:

The differences between these modes of intervention is that in the case of linguistics applied, the assumption is that the problem can be reformulated by the direct and unilateral application of concepts and terms deriving from linguistic enquiry itself. That is to say, language problems are amenable to linguistic solutions. In the case of applied linguistics, intervention is crucially a matter of mediation…applied linguistics…has to relate and reconcile different representations of reality, including that of linguistics without excluding others (Widdowson, 2000, p.5).

Davis and Elder (2006:9) note that the 'linguistic applied' view derives from the coming together of two traditions; one, the European tradition which was exported to the USA through scholars such as Roman Jacobson and the North American tradition of linguistic anthropological field work which required the intensive use of non-literate informants and the linguistic description of indigenous languages for cultural analysis.

Scholars such as Bloomfield (1933) and Robins thought that if a teacher understands the use of Linguistics as a scientific method in language presentation, his/her work will be easy. Davis and Elder (2006) believe that AL looks outwards beyond language in an attempt to explain and solve social problems while linguistics applied looks inward not to solve language problems in the real world, but to explicate and test theories about language itself. To them, this means that LA uses language data to develop our linguistic knowledge about language while AL studies a language problem with the intention of correcting them (2006:09).

1. 3 Internal and External Issues of Applied Linguistics

The fact that AL has been given various definitions due to its relations with other disciplines is in itself an indication of an everlasting internal problem. Many scholars and researchers practice AL and all of them have different purposes which have led to a failure to determine its essence; i.e. whether it is a part of linguistics or education (Baldauf Jr. and Gitsaki, 2012). Moreover, the development of AL in many parts of the world has been different due to local conditions, issues, and needs which may give to the field an international stamp, and which, at the same time, can be interpreted as its external problem (ibid). Another side from which one may observe an important internal/external AL issue is the

> ...disunity in using the term applied linguistics for designating academic courses at universities or teacher training institutions. The designation is often used for the programmes intended to provide teacher trainees with the necessary knowledge and skills for their future work as classroom language teachers. There are, however, courses more academically oriented also using the same label (Hrehovík, 2005, p. 213).

The issue may refer to the common interests between several university courses, or rather overlapping areas in which there is an intention to empower those who are beginning to teach language at the university level and need to have the necessary linguistics and methodology background. In addition, the terms that have been used to describe AL since its emergence in the 1940s in the United States such as "*scientific approach* "and its task which has basically targeted matters like "*bridging the gap between the theoretical achievements of linguistics and the reality of classroom pedagogical practice; first, second and foreign language teaching and learning*", imply that the scope of AL is a large one (ibid, p. 215)*.* Hrehovík concluded the paper entitled "*What Do We Teach: Applied Linguistics or Language Teaching Methodology?*" by saying:

> With regard to these latest developments in applied linguistics, and considering major issues within its focus, it seems reasonable for educational institutions to reserve the term 'applied linguistics' for the large area of interdisciplinary language-related study, while all relevant issues related to its educational application and classroom work be reserved for language teaching methodology (ibid, p. 219).

Subfields of Applied Linguistics

2.1 Major Subfields of Applied Linguistics

Liddicoat (2010) mentions Brumfit (1997), V. Cook (2006), Davies (2007), Grabe (2002), Kaplan (2002), Sarangi and van Leeuwen (2003), and Widdowson (2005) to assert that AL is difficult to define, for AL linguistics endeavours to solve language-related problems wherever language is a central component (p.14.4). This core feature and mission of AL makes of it an overlapping area with several fields; i.e. a discipline that is made up of many subfields. These subfields (National Open University of Nigeria, 2014, pp. 147-148) are:

* Second Language Acquisition

Ellis (1989, p. 74) states that there are two traditions in the field of SLA. The first tradition is linguistic and focuses on how humans learn language (innate capacity + process); whereas, the second tradition is psychological and focuses on how humans cope with L2 learning (differences: gender, age motivation…). According to Abdallah and Mohammed (2020, p. 12) "Second language Acquisition theory deals with the range of variables- in particular, age of immersion, quantity of input etc which may interactively determine the level of ultimate attainment"

* Language Assessment and Testing

Today, it has been realized that Language assessment plays an essential role in AL, for it provides Applied Linguists with the necessary data for their analysis of language knowledge or use. Equally important, Assessment has become a sub-discipline of applied linguistics which is believed to go beyond assessing the linguistic proficiency of L2 students (Clapham, 2000, p. 148).

Wei (2014) explains two way or assessing or rather testing students. To test the learners' performance in the classroom, teachers use language summative tests. These tests are carried out at the end of a term or a learning course and the students are assigned grades. Throughout the course, in order to know what the students have achieved of what they supposed to achieve, teachers use another type of tests. The latter are called formative language tests; i.e. tests which help teachers to provide feedback on the students progress without having to assign them grades (p. 217).

* Language Policy and Planning

According to Fishman (1974), Language planning is an integral part of social planning which includes housing, employment, migration, and so on. It has a goal and a plan. Language policy refers to official institutions and departments such as the Ministry of education which provides guidelines or regulations of language acquisition and language use in a country (Cited in Hao, 2018, 288). Abdallah and Mohammed (2020) see that "The practical nature of language planning deals with the analysis of policy making in contexts where language is a part. Language problems always arise, which could involve rival interest reflecting relations among ethnic, political, social, and bureaucratic and class groupings. Language policy and planning research then draws on knowledge far beyond linguistics to solve such problems where necessary (p. 12).

* Lexicography

Lexicography has many definitions. It has, for instance, been defined as " the applied study of the meaning, evolution, and function of the vocabulary units of a language for the purpose of compilation in book form— in short, the process of dictionary making" (Bergenholtz and Gouws , p. 32). Cook (2003) defined lexicography as "the planning and compiling of both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, and other language reference works such as thesauri". Given the status of a branch, Lexicography is an integral part of applied linguistics. It is basically concerned with producing and compiling dictionaries for first, second, and foreign language education (National Open University of Nigeria, 2014, p. 148).

* Multilingualism

Multilingualism has been considered from various perspectives. But, the fact is that it is, in the view of some scholars, spreading all over the globe affecting almost all societies and countries in very different ways. The result is that each community has its own kind of multilingualism (Aronin, 2015, cited in De Zarobe, L. R and De Zarobe, Y. R, 2015, p. 396).

* Corpus Linguistics

The aim of this subfield of applied linguistics is to improve language description and theory. Corpus data assist in raising accuracy in the description of language use and give concrete and authentic insights into how lexis, grammar and semantics interact. That is, the texts produced by native speakers of the target language are more helpful and reliable for the applied linguist (National Open University of Nigeria, 2014, p. 148).

* Forensic linguistics

a branch of applied linguistics that investigates issues of language in relation to the law, drawing on resources from SEMANTICS, ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, DISCOURSE ANALYSIS, PRAGMATICS, SOCIOLINGUISTICS, and other fields. Issues of concern include **forensic identification** (speaker identification in legal cases through handwriting analysis or speech analysis); INTERPRETATION for the police and courts; the semantics of legal terminology (e.g. the legal meanings of *murder*, *manslaughter*, *homicide*); …etc. (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 207). It is also known as the field which is concerned with applying scientific knowledge to language in the domain and context of law. Forensic linguists make efforts to understanding the language of the written law, its complexity and its origin, and try to study the judicial process through several stages (Ariani, M. G, Sajedi, F and Sajedi, M, 2014, p. 223).

In this part of the present guide, the researcher has limited himself only to the sources he deemed are reliable and helping enough to collect all the parts of the image. That is, strides have been made in understanding the nature of AL, its subfields and its various linguistic interests.

2.2 Applied Linguistics as an Interdisciplinary Field

One may notice that the considerable number of definitions of AL indicates that there has been no clear consensus about its nature; i.e. whether it is an independent field of study or it is in itself a subfield of another broad discipline. The most pivotal disagreement is that "People consider applied linguistics is linguistics in applications. In other words, theoretical knowledge of linguistics is applied in other related fields" (Li, 2014, p. 133). The basis for this stand is that AL is only the application of general linguistics theories. On the other hand, the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) asserts that AL is "both an approach to understanding language issues in the real world, drawing on theory and empirical analysis, and an interdisciplinary area of study, in which linguistics is combined with issues, methods and perspectives drawn from other disciplines" (Adolphs et al., 2016, p.2). That is, regardless of the fact that AL draws on general linguistics theories it seeks to solve linguistic problems in different areas, relying on other tools such as methods and perspectives implemented in those areas.

Bygate (2005, p. 568) observes that applied linguistics has for a long time been related to language teaching, which has gradually turned to be the study of second language acquisition, and more recently, applied linguistics has come to encompass many other areas such as forensic linguistics, speech therapy, sign languages, and so on (Cited in Wray and Wallace, 2015, p. 5). In

other words, AL was and is still concerned with language teaching and learning issues and has firm relations with many other fields.

Todd (1987) presented AL as a branch of linguistics in a third position after sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. According to Todd, the insights gained from research in both sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics had been used to facilitate the task of language teaching and learning. In addition, many techniques such as contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA) evolved in the branch to better teach second and foreign languages. That is, AL comes under the umbrella of linguistics with specific tools and purposes.

To map out the scope of AL from a more scientific perspective, Cook (2003, pp. 7-8) presented the following headings:

 * **Language and education** (first language education, second language education, foreign language education, clinical linguistics, and language testing).

 * **Language, work, and law** (workplace communication, language planning, forensic linguistics).

 * **Language, information, and effect** (literary stylistics, critical discourse analysis, translation and interpretation, information design, typography, and lexicography). Cook (ibid) explained that all the areas mentioned above fall in the definition of AL and are all areas of enquiry though some of them such as clinical linguistics and translation studies are viewed as independent disciplines (p. 8). Cook (2003) is then another example of the views that AL is an interdisciplinary field.

Liddicoat (2010, p. 14.8) settled down three different view about the state of AL. Kramsh (2000, p. 316) stated that AL has always been an interdisciplinary field with a major concern to study all aspects of language in use since its foundation in the 1950s. Whereas, Corder (1973) put emphasis on the relation between AL and Linguistics (p. 7). That is, AL draws principally on general linguistics theories. Widdowson, on the hand, rejected the idea that AL is interdisciplinary.

 According to Liddicoat (ibid, p. 14.9), one may come up with two major ideas based on the debate around the disciplinarity of Applied Linguistics. First, Applied Linguistics could be called interdisciplinary because it takes diverse approaches or methodologies to address language issues. Second, because there is coherence or focus in the themes AL addresses it could be called a discipline.

2.3 Applied Linguistics or Linguistics Applied: What is the difference?

Clapham (2000, p.147) remarked that "It is usually the case with new disciplines that they go through periods of adjustment as the limits of the discipline are realigned. Applied linguistics is going through such a stage at present as its scope widens and its subfields start to impinge on

those of other disciplines". Therefore, it is sometimes difficult to put a clear borderline between AL and other disciplines.

It has been explained in the literature that the difference between AL and LA is that **applied linguistics** looks outward or beyond language in an attempt to solve language-related problems in the real world. However, **linguistics applied** looks inward; i.e. it is concerned with explaining and testing theories about language. Davis and Elder (2004, p. 11) clarify this point as follows

> A-L looks outward, beyond language in an attempt to explain, perhaps even ameliorate social problems, while L-A looks inward, concerned not to solve language problems 'in the real world' but to explicate and test theories about language itself. So L-A uses language data to develop our linguistic knowledge about language, while A-L studies a language problem … with a view to correcting it (cited in Wray and Wallace, 2015 p. 6).

Other scholars, however, attribute an extra characteristic and duty to AL which could make of it an equivalent of LA. These scholars call for an act of cooperation between AL and linguistics in which the job of AL goes beyond solving linguistic problems in the real world to questioning linguistics theories and descriptions when they fail to answer a question or remedy a situation. McCarthy (2001) maintains that: "Applied Linguistics can (and should) not only test the applicability and replicability of linguistic theory and description, but also question and challenge them where they are found wanting" (p. 4). McCarthy (ibid) continues to say that linguistics and applied linguistics should collaborate with each other with regard to theories and practices. Here there is a clear indication that the function of LA could be attributed to AL.

2.4 Applied Linguistics and the other Fields

Richards et al. (1992, p. 19) in their definition of AL, stated that "Applied linguistics uses information from sociology, psychology, anthropology, and information theory as well as from linguistics in order to develop its own theoretical models of language and language use, and then uses this information and theory in practical areas such as syllabus design, speech therapy, language planning, stylistics, etc" (Cited in Hejwowski, 2018, p. 5). This definition gives the idea that AL cannot live without the abovementioned disciplines; the information AL takes from those disciplines is used (input) to offer solutions or remedies (output) to syllabus designers, speech therapists, language planners, stylisticians, and language teachers and learners. That is, AL seeks to give help wherever linguistic issues rise, whether in the immediate or remote setting. A more comprehensive view of AL (Grabe, 2002) sees that:

the field of applied linguistics is mainly focused to give a try in resolving different lingual issues for which people usually face in relation to their real world situations. No doubt, the positions do very at every phase, they may they be the language learners, tutors, who teaches a language, a supervisor to language activities and academicians, the professional outlook may either be concerned with professions of law, along with the services that provides, what is required to deal in many other social services. The example of test takers can also tend to measure the requirements, so are the policy makers, lexicographers, the translators, who translates the business transaction and it is so sum of entire range that acknowledges business clients (Cited in Siddiqui, Sartaj, and Keerio, 2019, p. 620).

However, the relationships between AL and the other disciplines are not only based on information retrieval and the existence of common interests, but they also rest on the methodologies used in these disciplines. There is evidence that the methodologies employed in the different realms of AL vary widely and they figure in other non-applied domains of linguistics; i.e. in fields outside linguistics (Eliasson, 1987, p. 35).

In conclusion, one can say that the field of applied linguistics is interdisciplinary in that it relies on general linguistics theories and knowledge and methods from other fields to solve realistic problems facing people in language and communication situations. One may also say that "Applied linguistics refers to a broad range of activities that involves solving of language-related problems or addressing some language-related issues" (Siddiqui, Sartaj, and Keerio, 2019, p. 623).

Language Learning Theories

3.1 A Theoretical Background

Assaiqeli (2013), in an article entitled "Theories of language learning: A contrasting view", tried to answer four questions which would enlighten the reader and make him synthesize a comprehensive and comprehensible image of the underpinnings of language acquisition and language learning. Assaiqeli asked "Is language a capacity originating primarily from the brain, or a system originating primarily from the environment? Is it genetically endowed and readymade" or "environmentally fashioned and evolving"? "(ibid, p. 34). In Assaiqeli's view, the preliminary answer to the aforementioned questions is that Bloomfield, Skinner, Chomsky, and Halliday are the founding fathers of Structuralism, Behaviourism, Cognitivism, and the Social Semiotic which have respectively tried to explain how people acquire and learn languages. Whereas, other scholars believe that when "speaking of theory in language learning, there are four major and familiar theories of language acquisition and language learning namely behaviorism, cognitivism, humanism, and constructivism (Fauziati, 2016, cited in Budiman, 2017, p. 102).

* **Behaviourism**

From a pure pedagogic point of view, Behaviorism considers learning or language learning in terms of the change of the students' behaviour in the classroom. If they prove to be able to produce language (oral or written) under the control of their teacher who is supposed to offer a reward to those who show positive changes (correct patterns of language) and punish those who show the opposite. Budiman (2017) sates that:

> Behaviorism theory views that learning is changing the behavior of students,
> from being able to produce oral or written product, and the task of the teacher
> is to control the stimulus and the learning environment in order to change the
> desired destination approaching, gift giver sand teachers of students who have
> been able to show significant changes while punishment given to students who
> are notable to show the change of meaning (p. 102)

The same idea was explained by Steinberg and Sciarini (2006, p. 200) by arguing that "Despite the diversity of these anti-Mentalist theorists, they hold one principle in common: they argue for

the study of the physical body (including the brain) where they can relate bodily processes and functioning of the body to situations and events in the physical environment"

The role of Behaviourism and its influence in language learning and teaching lies in the use of many language teaching methods especially the Audiolingual method (ALM). The latter rests heavily on the concepts of (1) Stimulus-Response and (2) an assumption that second language learning relies on the individual's experience with the process of mother tongue learning (Budiman, ibid, pp. 107-108).

* Cognitivism

Cognitivism has been defined as "the study of mental processes such as sensation, perception, attention, encoding and memory that behaviourists were reluctant to study, because cognition occurs inside the 'black box' of the brain"(Jordan, Carlile, and Stack, 2008, p. 36). The development of Cognitivism as a separate discipline owes much to the failure of Behaviourism to fully explain language acquisition (Yilmaz, 2011). Another definition of Cognitivism is that "Cognitive science is an expansive area. It has its roots in the first half of the twentieth century at a time when academics from the disciplines of psychology, artificial intelligence, philosophy, linguistics, neuroscience and anthropology realised that they were all trying to solve problems concerning the mind and the brain (Pritchard, p. 17).

From the above definitions, one may conclude that observable bahaviour alone is not enough to understand how people learn things. In other words, one should not only take into consideration the environment, but the internal (mental) mechanism and their operations which take place when the learner tries to perceive that environment. In other words, it should be admitted that the individual has a role to play in discovering the world around him and in processing the information that he receives. This is, in brief, what Cognitivism has brought as a new way to learning.

As far as language acquisition and language learning are concerned, Tsvetkova (2016) mentions that in their first contact with the world, children start to distinguish and identify both objects and processes; they start using simple words which become more elaborate by the time and so much the same can be observed in learning a second language. Speakers of L2 build sentences using words and items following the language rules (p. 125).

In terms of the discipline's contribution to language teaching and learning, Yilmaz (2011, pp. 208-209) mentions that "Cognitive apprenticeship, reciprocal teaching, anchored instruction, inquiry learning, discovery learning, and problem-based learning are the most distinctive methods of teaching based on a cognitive perspective on learning". Cognitive apprenticeship is the method

which helps students to grasp concepts and procedures; Reciprocal Teaching is the method which helps students to discover the meaning of a text through dialogue and discussion between the students and their teacher; Anchored Instruction refers to urges students and teachers to find answers to questions in realistic contexts; Inquiry Learning as a method has roots in Piaget's theory of cognitive development and aims to help students to develop their higher-order thinking skills through a process of investigating, for instance, an issue so as to find solutions; Discovery Learning, which is also based on Piaget's theory of cognitive development, encourages students to discover principles and relationships by engaging them in asking questions, doing research, and so on; and and Problem-based Learning presents students with a real life problem suggesting many possible solutions and asking them to find answers to that problem (ibid, pp.8-11).

* Mentalism

Demirezen (1989) defines Mentalism as the theory which was advanced by Noam Chomsky in the 1960s and which claimed that it is not the environment that is responsible for language development (acquisition), but the speaker's inborn knowledge of language (p. 153). The basic principle of the mentalist language acquisition theory is that "everyone learns a language, not because they are subject to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity which permits them to acquire a language as a normal Maturational Process" (D. A. Wilkins, 1972, p. 168, cited in Demirezen,1989,153). This inborn capacity which is the property of every human being (universal) is one of the most powerful concepts of Chomsky's theory (Hamza, 2014, p. 10). Hamza (ibid) continues to say that according to Lyon (1997),

> LAD in analogy is that box that contains all those universals. And the linguistic data that the child receives do not shape this device (universal); they only serve as triggers to activate this LAD to work. Consequently, what makes one language different from another (English from Arabic for instance) is the inference at the time linguistic data is available to the child at the time of his acquiring his mother tongue. But at the core level all these latent rules are common to all languages

Correspondingly, in Burner's (2005) view and with more detail,

> The Language Acquisition Device (LAD) and UG are both concepts initiated by the well-known linguist Noam Chomsky. The idea is first of all that all human beings have innate grammar knowledge, which Chomsky called competence, and secondly that there is a universal grammar underlying all languages. The former is based on the argument that learners are indeed able to produce and understand

language constructions which they have never heard before. The latter concept relates to Chomsky's principles and parameters, accounting for what languages have in common and what distinguishes them, respectively (p.44)

The role of Mentalism and its influence in language learning and teaching lies in the emergence of several theories and approaches in methodology such as Generative Grammar (GG) and Monitor Theory (MT). karakaş (2020, p. 58) maintains that these theories and approaches

have contributed to the field of English Language teaching and highlighted many points of grammar like syntax. They all have many common assumptions related to the human mind or brain. Some of them like MT and LAD were developed with the influence of the main principles of rationalist position towards knowledge, although they were not founded by Chomsky himself. To sum up, the biggest contribution of Rationalism is its emphasis on the internal accounts of language learning that helped the theories stated above to appear within the area of ELT. For example, courses in the ELT programs such as Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition and Approaches and Methods in Language teaching often refer to theories drawn out of rationalist view. The study of these mentalist theories may help prospective teachers better understand the language acquisition process and further provides them a scientific foundation for rendering foreign language teaching process to be as similar as to the first language acquisition process.

* Constructivism

Many definitions, in education, have been given to Constructivism. Dagar and Yadav (2016, p.2) present the following:

1. "It is assumed that learners have to construct their own knowledge individually and collectively. Each learner has a tool kit of concepts and skills with which he or she must construct knowledge to solve problems presented by the environment. The role of the community, other learners and teacher is to provide the setting, pose the challenges, and offer the support that will encourage mathematical construction."

2. "The doctrine itself holds that 'language users must individually construct the meaning of words, phrases, sentences and texts."

3. "Constructivists allege that it is we who constitute or construct, on the basis of our theorizing or experience, the allegedly unobservable items postulated in our theories."

4. "The central principles of this approach are that learners can only make sense of new situations in terms of their existing understanding. Learning involves an active process in which learners construct meaning by linking new ideas with their existing knowledge"

Based on the above definitions, the advocates of the theory claim that the learner is responsible for constructing his own knowledge and skills from what surrounds him. The language learner, on this basis, is supposed to construct the meaning or meanings of language items. He theorizes and links idea and new thought through experiencing language in different situations. So, in teaching language in a real constructivist learning classroom, the teacher can use combination of these learning strategies (ibid, p. 4): Use of multimedia/teaching aids, Scaffolding, Case studies, Role plying, Storytelling, Group discussions/Group activities (reciprocal Learning), Probing questions, Project based learning, and Use of learning strategies for social and emotional learning of students. As for the task of assessment, Constructivist learning requires a qualitative approach. The latter is based on real-life tasks and performance which entail completing certain learning assignments to develop the students' learning process and language production (ibid).

3.2 Most Important Achievements of Recent Second Language Learning Research

In the last three decades, there have been a number of studies in the area of second language learning (SLL). From a linguistic perspective, Chomsky's language acquisition device (LAD) and the Universal Grammar approach continue to be used in second language research (Krashen) and to explain and provide evidence about how people learn a second language and how the latter is influenced by their first language. From a cognitive perspective, there have many attempts to explain the acquisition of learning strategies and the rules which underlie language learning and performance, but there has been no clear empirical evidence to support these claims. From the functionalist tradition stance, second language development has been substantially made clear. That is, the role of context, the role of interaction between learners, and the role of society and culture have been added as crucial factors influencing SLL (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, pp. 57-59).

Second Language Acquisition

4.1 Definitions and Scope

In defining Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Saville-Troike (2012, p. 2) states that "refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language" and that "The additional language is called a **second language (L2),** even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also commonly called a **target language (TL),** which refers to any language that is the aim or goal of learning". From these words, one may understand that SLA is mainly concerned with the study of what people could pick up as a language or languages after they fully acquire their first language(s); individuals, children or adults, are meant by acquiring a second language. As for the scope of SLA, Saville-Troike (ibid) points out that the field includes "**informal L2 learning** that takes place in naturalistic contexts, **formal L2 learning** that takes place in classrooms, and L2 learning that involves a mixture of these settings and circumstances".

Long (1990) considers second language acquisition (SLA) to be a new interdisciplinary field though several achievements have appeared since the 1960s by researchers drawing on research and findings of other disciplines such as education, psychology, linguistics, anthropology, foreign languages, ESL and applied linguistics (p. 59). Based on Long's view, it is clear that SLA is regarded as a new discipline by some scholars and is regarded as a subfield of AL because it is interested in language teaching and employs theory and findings from other domains which have to do with language. In support of this stand, Doughty and Long (2003, p. 3) uphold that:

> The scope of second language acquisition (SLA) is broad. It encompasses basic and applied work on the acquisition and loss of second (third, etc.) languages and dialects by children and adults, learning naturalistically and/or with the aid of formal instruction, as individuals or in groups, in foreign, second language, and lingua franca settings.

Summarizing the above literature, Ortega (2009) provides the following thorough description:

> Second language acquisition (SLA, for short) is the scholarly field of inquiry that investigates the human capacity to learn languages other than the first, during late childhood, adolescence or adulthood, and once the first language or languages have been acquired. It studies a wide variety of complex influences and phenomena that contribute to the puzzling range of possible outcomes when learning an additional language in a variety of contexts. SLA began in the late 1960s as an emerging interdisciplinary enterprise that borrowed equally from the feeder fields of language teaching, linguistics, child language acquisition and psychology (Huebner, 1998). During the 1980s and 1990s SLA expanded considerably in scope and methodology, to the point that by the end of the twentieth century, after some 40 years of exponential growth, it had finally reached its coming of age as an autonomous discipline (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The growth of SLA continues to be prodigious today.(pp. 1-2)

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) involves basically the study of how humans learn additional languages other than their first language (s), taking into consideration a wide range of criteria such as the learner characteristics, the various settings and circumstances under which the learning of an L2 takes place. SLA emerged in the 1960s as an interdisciplinary field and has since then drawn on several fields. Since the 1980, it has become stronger and larger in terms of scope and methods, and has gained more independence.

4.2 First language vs. Second language

Saville-Troike (2012, p. 4) remarked that although the concepts of first **language, native language, primary language,** and **mother tongue** are used interchangeably (L1s), there must be a clear distinction between them. These L1s come under the umbrella of **L1** to oppose **L2,** and due to SLA concerns, what should be understood is that they all share the fact that they are languages acquired during early childhood (before three years old). This type of acquisition is known as **simultaneous multilingualism** and is considered to be different from **sequential multilingualism** which refers to the learning of other languages afterL1 has become somewhat complete.

As human beings, we are characterized by the use of language to communicate. We communicate and address specific audiences, unknown audiences, and even ourselves (in self-talk); we then use language to participate in many activities such as political speeches, religious sermons, internet navigation, commercial advertisements, etc (Ortega, 2009, p. 1). Almost all humans do the aforementioned activities using their first or second languages; they use the language or languages they have grown up with as they may use the language or languages acquired or learned at further stages in life. Ortega (ibid) says that:

> We take it for granted that all humans have the potential to accomplish all of these amazing feats in whatever language(s) they happen to grow up with. But many people around the globe also do many of the same things in a language other than their own. In fact, whether we grow up with one, two or several languages, in most cases we will learn additional languages later in life.

From the above quotation, it is clear that humans acquire language and continue to acquire it because it is indispensable in their life. It may be also understood that they may use their first or second language, and the choice of using L1 or L2 depends on many criteria. The latter may then be derived from table (1) and literature below (Raymond Hickey. *First and second language acquisition: A brief comparison, pp. 1-2)*

First language acquisition	Second language acquisition
An instinct, triggered by birth	A personal choice, required motivation
Very rapid	Varies, but never as quick as FLA
Complete	Never as good as a native speaker, though good competence can be achieved
Natural (no instruction)	Natural or guided (for synthetic languages grammatical instruction is required)

Table 1: First and second language acquisition: A brief comparison

Note the following facts concerning first and second language acquisition

1) The level of competence acquired with SLA (second language acquisition) depends not so much on the time spent learning a language as the time at which one begins.

2) In general linguists maintain that a first language is acquired, i.e. that knowledge is stored unconsciously, and that a second language is learned, i.e. that knowledge is gained by conscious study of the second language's structure. However, this distinction is not watertight and SLA can involve acquisition to a certain degree. FLA (first language acquisition) does not, however, learned as no instruction is required. Remember that you know your first language before you start school.

3) There is a critical period, that of puberty, around 12 or 13 years of age, after which it is difficult, if not impossible to acquire a second language with the same degree of competence as the first language. The decline in ability to acquire a second language may also be connected with the lateralisation of the brain just before puberty, i.e. with the fixing of functions in one or other of the two halves of the brain. The decline in acquisitional ability after lateralisation/puberty is a widespread phenomenon and affects other activities such as sports, playing music, etc.

4) Because SLA is very largely conscious it is dependent on factors such as motivation and personality. This does not apply to FLA which is triggered by birth, i.e. it is an instinct in the biological sense of the word. Remember that no-one ever refuses to acquire one's first language and that no-one dislikes one's own first language. Because FLA is an instinct there is no choice involved, contrast this with a second language.

5) Note that something which is acquired does not require conscious decisions when activated. However, if you have learned something, like the rule of chess then you must think consciously about how to move the pieces. An unconscious activity, apart from language, acquired in childhood would, for instance, be the ability to ride a bicycle.

6) Your first language is acquired without too much input from your surroundings. Furthermore, this input does not have to be ordered: children make sense of what they hear and create the order needed to stored knowledge of their first language themselves. It is not necessary to speak to young children in a babyish way: children do not end up speaking like this anyway.

7) First language acquisition is not dependent on intelligence or special ability for languages. Everyone acquires their native language fully and properly. What is true, of course, is that some people have a greater stylistic range and larger vocabulary in their native language, but that is not connected with first language acquisition. You learn style in school when you learn how to write the standard of your language and you learn specialised words consciously after childhood.

8) First language acquisition is connected to cognitive development with the latter preceding the former somewhat. With the second language (acquired after puberty) you have all the cognitive structures necessary to deal with the language.

9) You cannot forget your first language, although it may become inactive if you spend many years speaking just a second language. Backsliding, reverting to a lower level of competence, making mistakes you know mistakes, are features of second language acquisition only.

10) There are certain phases in first language acquisition: one-word, two-word and multi-word stages. Furthermore, in early childhood children make maximally simpler generalizations about

language, e.g. that all verbs are weak. After a while they correct themselves (when they just hear the adult forms). Once they have acquired the latter they remember them.

11) In FLA children make errors, systematic ill-formed structures based on the level of acquisition on which they happen to be. In post-puberty SLA individuals make mistakes which are often random and erratic, though a degree of regularity can be recognized here. With SLA there can be interference from the first language, i.e. structures from L1 are carried over into L2 where they do not occur natively. Interference obviously does not occur in FLA.

12) FLA children build up competence, the internalized knowledge of one's native language, from the performance of others, i.e. by accepting spoken input from those people surrounding them. The parents are obviously important here, but siblings and playmates can play an equally important role if they are present.

13) In the strict sense bilinguals are those individuals who have acquired two languages simultaneously in early childhood. Normally, one of these languages will be dominant, but the degree of competence in the non-dominant language is still very high and far exceeds that of a second language learned after puberty.

4.3 First and Second Language Acquisition: Another perspective

Language acquisition refers to the way a human being obtains his/her first language; therefore the concept of **language acquisition** is much more linked and usually refers to the first language (Arung, 2016, p. 2)**.** Equally important is that "Second language acquisition is just the same as first language acquisition. It is just the time and ages that are the difference between first and second and or third language acquisitions as drawn in Conceptual Framework" (ibid). What could be inferred from this literature is that the term **acquisition** is used in both cases: children and adults. In the first case (children), the process of, let's say, L1 or L1s acquisition seems to be more natural and unconscious. In the second case (adults), however, the process of L2 gives the idea that the learner may be in a natural setting, and is either unaware of or does not the rules of the additional language. But, in both cases the acquirer or the learner is devolving some communicative competence in that language. In this same vein, Hussain (2017) states that during the process of language acquisition (LA) "the acquirer of the language is unaware of the grammatical conventions or the syntactic structure of the language involved. All through the expansion of LA the learner necessitates a source of natural communication. It puts down emphasis on the memo and not the form that is why it is entitled communicative" (p. 1).

One may also infer from Hussain's (2017) below words that the term **learning** is used in both cases: children and adults. For children, when they get to school, and in the presence of a teacher and text book, there will be more focus on the language form or rules and the correction of errors; and in for the adult, the same degree of focus and attention will be given to the rules of the new language, especially when the learning takes place in formal settings. Hussain (2017, p. 3) clarified the fact that:

> LA marks its emergence subliminally in quite a natural order where the acquirer is in tangled in either manner. It is a progression in which the utterer is more concerned with communication rather than the precise usage of syntactical patterns. LL conversely is a premeditated or cognizant activity in which a learner's emphasis is on the form, rules and is mindful of the procedure taking place. Errors rectification, practice and imitation are the prime features of language learning.

In the summary of a section in which L1 learning is compared to L2 learning based on several aspects, Saville-Troike (2012, p. 30) highlights the fact that there are many reasons which make the bulk of people in the world know more than one language, and that:

* The first language is almost always learned effortlessly, and with nearly invariant success;

* Second language learning involves many different conditions and processes, and success is far from certain. Because

* Older learners no longer have the same natural ability to acquire languages as do young children.

* Second language learning is influenced by prior knowledge of the first and by more individual and contextual factors.

According to Mohamad Nor and Rashid (2018), Bahaviourists (Skinner) assume that verbal behaviour (L1) is observable and is not different from other human behaviour; i.e. it is acquired through stimuli and the children's responses (positive or negative) are conditioned through positive reinforcement (reward) or negative reinforcement (punishment)(p. 162).

For the Innatist Theory advocates, there are similarities between L2 learning and L1 acquisition. The child needs interaction with people like the parents who provide him with 'Baby Talk' at his pace and in the way he prefers most. On the other hand, the native language teacher' talk or that other natives is used in the L2 classroom, which helps L2 learners the input in the right way, and thus to produce the target language. Moreover, the more comprehensible ample input is, the more proficient the language produced will be (ibid, p. 165).

Also, on the relationship between L1 and L2, the Interactionist Theory (ibid) calls for a kind of collaboration with others to ensure a firm step in acquiring L1 for the children. Interactionists (Vygostsky) believe that without collaboration, "language development is not possible because children take part intellectually in their community by using language" (ibid). So much same may go for those who are learning L2 in the language classroom; they will receive assistance from the teacher and their classmates, and the latter turn to be identical to the child's community (home).

Other experts and researchers, on the other hand, tried to highlight the major differences between L1 and L2 acquisition. Poshi (2013) claims that a look at the surface of a child's L1 acquisition and an adult's L2 acquisition shows that there are almost only similarities between the two processes. Namely, in both cases the acquirer gradually learns how to make sounds, words, phrases and sentences until his language production becomes more elaborate. But, the outcomes indicate that there are several differences. Poshi (ibid, p. 57) settles down the following factors:

* The first area of difference between first (L1) and second (L2) language learning is **input** – specifically the quality and quantity of input. It is the idea of the "connectionist model that implies... (that the) language learning process depends on the quantity of exposure to a target language a child gets is immense compared to the amount an adult receives. A child hears the language all day every day, whereas an adult learner may only hear the target language in the classroom.

* The next great and obvious difference between L1 and L2 learning is **age**. A large part of this train of thought is the idea of a "critical period, or the "time after which successful language learning cannot take place" (Gass, Susan M., Larry Selinker. 2001). This time is usually aligned with puberty. This change is significant, "because virtually every learner undergoes significant physical, cognitive, and emotional changes during puberty.

* The final area that puberty changes is within the emotional or affective realm. **Motivation** is much affected by emotional change. A child's motivation is simple. In order to communicate and to be a part of family and society the child must master the target language. This motivation is quite weighty, especially when compared to the motivation that adults have, or rather, must find.

* The final change that takes place, and changes language learning has to do with **egocentricity**. Children are naturally egocentric. While learning their language they are not afraid to make mistakes, and in general, they do not feel abashed when they are corrected. Also, their thoughts usually do not surpass their language ability. Adults, on the other hand usually suffer form a fairly large amount of language learning anxiety. Adults often "feel frustrated or threatened in the struggle of learning a different language" (Holland, R. and Shortall, T. (1997).

The idea that L1 acquisition and L2 acquisition are different due to the factors of age, input, and motivation, among others, has been supported by Andringa and Dabrowska (2019). In presenting a section entitled "Individual Differences in Ultimate Attainment", they state that the majority of researchers take for granted all L1 learners attain the same level of grammar; whereas, L2 adult learners never or rarely achieve never native like competence due to individual differences such as age, input, and motivation (p. 5).

4.4 Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition

Krashen's theory of second-language acquisition consists of a set of five (5) hypotheses, that is: The acquisition learning hypothesis, monitor hypothesis, input hypothesis, natural order hypothesis, and affective filter hypothesis (Hamakali, 2017, p. 205).

The basis for his theory is the distinction between language acquisition and language learning. According to Krashen, the acquisition process is subconscious and the learning process is conscious, but both processes play an important role in developing second-language competence. Krashen believes that acquisition is more important than learning because the acquired knowledge of language helps to generate language and to enhance fluency, and the skills learned (thorough the Monitor), modify the acquired knowledge of language. "In other words, the second-language student can use learned rules to "monitor" or correct his language either before or after the moment of production" (Tricomi, 1986, pp. 59-60).

Hamakali (2017, pp. 205-207) introduces and explains the monitor hypothesis, input hypothesis, natural order hypothesis, and affective filter hypothesis as follows:

The **Monitor** hypothesis highlights the relationship between acquisition and learning; it also explains how the latter influence the former. Krashen (2014) believes that the monitoring function is triggered by the learned grammar. Hence, the acquired system assists in initiating utterance, whereas the learned system enacts as the monitor. He further explains that:

> The monitor acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific
> conditions are met: that is, the second language learner has sufficient time at
> his/her disposal, he/she focuses on form or thinks about correctness, and he/she
> knows the rule.

Krashen (2014) classifies language learners into three groups: Those learners that use the 'monitor' all the time (over-users [usually introverts and perfectionists]); those learners who have not learned or who prefer not to use their conscious knowledge (under-users [usually extroverts]); and those learners that use the 'monitor' appropriately (optimal users). Krashen (2009; Krashen, 2014) marks the lack of self-confidence to be highly linked to the over-use of the 'monitor'. Thus,

he warns that the role of the monitor should supposedly be used minimally and only to correct deviations from intelligible speech.

The **Input** hypothesis explains how the learner acquires a second language and it is only concerned with 'acquisition', not 'learning'. The learners learn the target language when they receive second language 'input' which is sufficient and comprehensible. Comprehensible Input is the target language that the learner would not be able to produce at the time, but can still understand. The meaning successfully conveyed constitutes the learning experience.

The **Natural Order** hypothesis explains that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable. For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early while others late. However, Krashen (2009) points out that the implication of the natural order hypothesis is not that a language program syllabus should be based on the order found in the studies. In fact, he rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition.

The **Affective Filter** hypothesis explains that numerous affective variables (for example, motivation, self-confidence and anxiety) have a facilitative, but non-causal, influence on second language acquisition. Learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. On the other hand, low motivation, low self-esteem, and anxiety can stimulate the affective filter that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is 'up', it impedes language acquisition.

Despite the modifications and the series of revision that Krashen has made to fully and adequately explain the way learners acquire a second language, Many critics find that Krashen' model has failed to be empirically tested. They believe that Krashen himself has not explained those many variations and functions, which gave rise to many biases (Zafar, 2010).

Language Teaching Methods and Approaches

5.1 Brief Overview

The large number of approaches and methods that have been developed so far by experts is a sign of a great interest in second language teaching. Experts with the help of educationalists have always of studying classroom practices to invent pertinent syllabuses and more practical approaches and methods to efficiently teach languages. Today, the language teacher has a variety of methods and techniques to implement. Any serious teacher, who wants to use, or rather opt for any of the available methods has to weigh, thoroughly the strength and weakness of the language teaching method with regard to the learners' needs, the overall learning objectives and time and material constraints. This is only because teaching methods derive essentially from different views about the nature of language, how it works, and how it is acquired or learned. The most important methods and approaches discussed in this chapter are: The Grammar- Translation method, the Direct Method, the Audio-lingual Method, and the communicative Language Teaching.

* The Grammar Translation Method

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) or the Classical Method was first used to teach Latin and Greek, and its aim was to help students read and understand the literatures of these languages through studying their grammars (Sárosdy, J, Bencze, T.F, Poór, Z and Vadnay,M, 2006,p. 11). According to Richards and Rodgers (1986, pp. 3-4), the principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method were as follows:

1. The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign-language study. Grammar translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language.

2. Reading and writing is the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.

3. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorization. In a typical Grammar-Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items are presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises are prescribed.

4. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Much of the lesson is devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language, and it is this focus on the sentence that is a distinctive feature of the method.

5. Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards in translation, because of "the high priority attached to meticulous standards o f accuracy which, as well as having an intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century" (Howatt 1984: 132).

6. Grammar is taught deductively - that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most Grammar-Translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing o f grammar points throughout a text, and there was an attempt to teach grammar in an organized and systematic way.

7. The student's native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language.

In the mid- and late nineteenth century, GTM was harshly criticized and attacked. This resulted in the development of new language teaching methods (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 5). Saroja Kumari K.R. mentions that many scholars like Stern, Sweet and Jesperson "realized that the use of translation as the only means of instructions would be ruinous" (p. 53). In addition, GTM proved to be "not very ineffective in preparing students to use the target language communicatively" (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2013, p. 46).

* The Direct Method

Saroja Kumari K.R. (ibid, p.56) stated that "The language teaching reforms from 1850 to 1900 particularly in Europe attempted to make language teaching more effective by a radical change from grammar-translation". Richards and Rodgers (ibid, p. 9), on the other hand, found that the ideas of scholars like F. Franke, who believed in teaching a language actively in the classroom rather than using and explaining its grammar rules, i.e. encouraging direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language to help Learners to speak and learn new vocabulary, were the basic foundations for the Direct Method (DM). In order to achieve the goal of DM, which is

communication, (Sárosdy, J, Bencze, T.F, Poór, Z and Vadnay,M, 2006,pp. 12-13) describe, among others, these principles:

1. The initiation of the interaction goes both ways, from teacher to students and from students to teacher although the latter is often teacher-directed, at the same time student-student interaction is used as well;

2. The native language should not be used in the classroom;

3. The teacher should demonstrate not explain or translate;

4. The teacher and the students are more like partners in the teaching/learning process;

5. It is desirable that students make a direct association between the target language and meaning;

6. Students should learn to think in the target language as soon as possible;

7. Vocabulary is acquired more naturally if students use it in full sentences rather than memorizing word lists;

8. Pronunciation should be worked on right from the beginning of language instruction;

9. Students should be encouraged to speak as much as possible;

10. Grammar should be taught inductively;

11. Work on all four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) occurs from the start, oral communication is seen as basic;

   Though the Direct Method was successful, it proved to be weak in some aspects. It was mainly successful in private schools such the Berlitz chain; i.e. it was difficult to implement public schools where parents could not pay for their children's better language teaching. Moreover, It overemphasized the similarities between natural first language learning conditions and practical realities of the classroom where the second or foreign language is supposed to be taught and learned (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 10).

* The Audio-lingual Method

   The Audio-lingual Method (ALM) first appeared in the United States at the end of the 1950s because there was a demand for foreign language teaching. ALM which was used mainly between the 1950s and 1960s was founded on some of the DM principles (Renau Renau, 2016, p. 83) and the conceptions of the Grammar Translation Method (Sárosdy, J, Bencze, T.F, Poór, Z and Vadnay,M, 2006,pp. 14). The psychological basis of ALM is "behaviorism which interprets language learning in terms of stimulus and response, operant conditioning, and reinforcement with an emphasis on successful error-free learning" (Qing-xue and Jin-fang, 2007, p. 70). Saroja Kumari

K.R. (ibid, p. 71) settled down the distinctive characteristics of the audio-lingual method as listed by Stern are as follows:

(1) Separation of the skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing - and the primacy of the audio lingual over the graphic skills;

(2) The use of dialogues as the chief means of presenting the language;

(3) Emphasis on certain practice techniques, mimicry, memorization and pattern drills;

(4) The use of language laboratory;

(5) Establishing a linguistic and psychological theory as a basis for the teaching method.

The decline of Audiolingualism coincided with the advent of the new American linguistic theory in the 1960s. The major (theoretical) foundations of Audiolingualism were opposed and vehemently attacked by Chomsky (1966:153) who argued that: "*language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy" (*Cited *in* Renau Renau, ibid). Also, "the practical results fell short of expectations and students were often found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through Audiolingualism to real communication outside the classroom. Therefore, it ignores the communicative competence in teaching practice" (Qing-xue and Jin-fang, ibid, p. 71).

* Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has a major concern an emphasis the teaching of communicative competence rather than the teaching of linguistic competence. CLT highlights more language functions and requires students "to work with authentic materials in small groups on communicative activities" (Intarapanich, 2013, 307). Diana (2014) sees that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been accepted as an effective approach by many language educators due to the major focus on developing learner ability to use the language appropriately in context"(p. 37).

According to Larsen-Freeman (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2013, p. 9), here the core principles CLT in the classroom are:

1. Students are whole persons.

2. People learn best when they feel secure.

3. Students should have the opportunity to generate the language they wish to learn.

4. The teacher should "understand" what the students are feeling.

Thus, CTM emphasizes communicative competence as the goal of language teaching, and develops various ways for teaching the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). It

employs activities which involve real communication situations where students can carry out meaningful tasks. In this method, language learners are considered to be negotiators of meaning with the teachers who plays the role of an organizer and guide (Qing-xue, L. and Jin-fang, 2007)

Larsen-Freeman (1990, p. 169) concludes the presentation of phases of a video lesson based on the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method by saying: "Perhaps the greatest contribution of CLT is asking teachers to look closely at what is involved in communication. If teachers intend students to use the target language, then they must truly understand more than grammar rules and target language vocabulary."

Like the approaches presented above, CLT has not been immune to criticisms. Mustapha and Yahaya(2013, pp.791-792) observed CLT was criticized as follows:

* Swan (1990) sees communicative approach to language teaching (CLT is one example of such approach) as having weaknesses in terms of meaning and use, appropriacy, skills and strategies, syllabus design and methodology.

* Communicative approach is seen to be full of confusion and uncertainty and results to conflicts to teachers (Medgyes, 1990).

* Mangubhai et.al (2007) cite a number of other studies which look at the teachers' uncertainties in about CLT. In their own study, Mangubhai et.al (2007) discovered that teachers are uncertain and confused about the meaning and use of CLT.

* CLT places importance in providing learners with opportunities to practice language in meaningful, authentic setting. However, Morton (1988:41) views that there is no genuine communication that takes place in the classroom because "language classroom can only imitate real-life situations."

* Inconsistency between teaching beliefs and actual teaching practices in the classroom is also another evidence of teacher confusion on communicative approach. Parrish (2004:31) views that "although teachers throughout the world would describe their approach to teaching as CLT, you could walk into classes that look very different in terms of activities, materials, and interactions."

* The Silent Way

After the advent of the Innatist theory and Transformational Generative Grammar by Chomsky, it became clear that language does not necessarily take place through observation, imitation, and reinforcement to form habits because people can create utterances which they have never heard before. Language acquisition, in this sense, is a procedure where people use their own thinking to discover and use the rules governing the language. This new belief led to much emphasis on the

human cognition, which in its turn, led to the creation of the "Cognitive Code Approach" which has been used for years in language teaching (Sárosdy, J, Bencze, T.F, Poór, Z and Vadnay,M.,2006). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2013, pp. 80-81) avow that Gattegno's *Silent Way* did not derive from the Cognitive Code Approach (CCA), but it shares with principles such as:

* Teaching should be subordinated to learning; teachers should not interfere with learning.

* Learning is initiated by the learners themselves through the use of their perception, awareness…

* We (the learners) whatever information or skill in ourselves and rely on it for further learning.

The core principles of the Silent Way are described (Sárosdy, J, Bencze, T.F, Poór, Z and Vadnay,M.,2006,pp. 15-16)as follows :

1. The teacher is a technician or engineer, only the learner can do the learning but the teacher can focus the students' perceptions, force their awareness;

2. For much of the students-teacher interaction the teacher is silent; he is still very active setting up situations to force awareness; when the teacher speaks it is to give clues not to model the language; student-student verbal interaction is desirable and is encouraged;

3. The students' native language can be used to give instructions when necessary to help a student improve his/her pronunciation; the native language is also used during the feed-back sessions;

4. Vocabulary is restricted at first; pronunciation is worked on from the beginning, it is important that students acquire the melody of the language;

5. All four skills are worked on from the beginning of the course, although there is a sequence in that students learn to read or write what they have already produced orally; the skills reinforce what students are learning;

6. The teacher never gives a formal test, he assesses student learning all the time; the teacher must be responsive to immediate learning needs; the teacher does not praise or criticize student behaviour since this would interfere with students developing their own inner criteria; the teacher looks for steady progress, not perfection;

7. Students' errors are seen as a natural, indispensable part of the learning process, errors are inevitable since the students are encouraged to explore the language; the teacher uses student errors as a basis for deciding where further work is necessary.

Despite the fact that in the Silent Way "the learning process was seen as a problem solving activity in which the learner was the center of the classroom" and that" The Silent Way method was focused on structure rather than communicative competence and the main goal was to achieve a near-native fluency and pronunciation" (Renau Renau, 2016, p. 84), it has had many drawbacks. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986, p. 111).

1. The actual practices of the Silent Way are much less revolutionary than might be expected.

2. Working from what is a rather traditional structural and lexical syllabus, the method exemplifies many of the features that characterize more traditional methods, such as Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism.

3. The innovations in Gattegno's method derive primarily from the manner in which classroom activities are organized (the indirect role the teacher is required to assume in directing and monitoring learner performance, the responsibility placed upon learners to figure out and test their hypotheses about how the language works, and the materials used to elicit and practice language).

* Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response (TPR) is the language teaching method or strategy which was developed by Dr. James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University (Er, 2013, p. 1767). It aims at making students perceive or understand the new language before they embark on developing their speaking, writing, and reading skills in it. According to Er (ibid), "Learners' role in TPR is to listen and perform what the teacher says, they monitor and evaluate their own progress. They are encouraged to speak when they feel ready to speak". Ummah (2017) explain this same point saying that in TPR, the teacher's role is to give orders or commands and the learners' role is to listen attentively and respond physically or perform in accordance with the teacher's commands.

Despite the advantages of TPR which can be summed up in providing children with a vast amount of comprehensible input before beginning to speak; helping children to learn by using physical movements, and giving children, at the beginning stages, the freedom of not learning abstractions, this method has had some shortcomings such as these (Putri, 2016, pp. 18-19):

1. It is not a very creative method. Students are not given the opportunity to express their own views and thoughts in a creative way.

2. It is easy to overuse TPR.

3. It is limited, since everything cannot be explained with this method. It must be combined with other approaches.

4. It is challenging for shy students.

5. It is for children only.

5.2 Towards the Application of many Language Teaching Methods

   In the constant debate about the best method to implement to teach English as a second or foreign language, there are two groups of scholars: those who support form-focused language teaching (Grammar rules) and those who believe more in the acquisition of communicative skills in second language learning. The problem is that each group claims that they are applying the best method, ignoring that each of these methods must have some weakness. The best strategy to follow to make learners acquire the target language well is to combine the two methods in the teaching practice (Marzuki, 2014). This new way of teaching language (combination) is known today as the eclectic approach which, according to Mwanza (2019, p. 2) ," was born out of the realization that each of the individual methods of language teaching had strengths and weaknesses and that no one method was responsive to the dynamic classroom context". It was then based on the shortcomings of all the methods and their limited scope of activities and flexibility. This new approach is intended to enable the teacher to select what works within his classroom context, especially in terms of covering all learners' types (ibid).

   All the previous methods had noticeable shortcomings. The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) could not help learners to speak the language because there was much focus on form at the expense of meaning. The Audio-lingual Method (AM) failed to enable learners to use the communication skills learnt in the class in situations outside the classroom. The Cognitive Code Approach (CCA) was criticized because it emphasized the teaching of the language rules, overlooking the use of language in real situations. As for the Situational Approach (SA), there was an argument against real life communication, for one cannot predict the convenient language forms (words, structures…) to use; i.e. their selection depends heavily on other criteria such as the topic and the interlocutors. Even the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLTA), which has received wider acceptance, was not an exception. Many scholars argue that there has never been one universal way to teach language (Mwanza, 2017, pp. 53-55).

Performance in Language

6.1 Competence and Performance

According to Wales (1987) and de Valenzuela (1998), Noam Chomsky (1965) linguistic competence refers to the system of linguistic knowledge that is the property of all native speakers of a language and that helps them to produce and understand sentences in their language. This system also facilitates for speakers to distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. Chomsky simply considers linguistic competence to be the use of language, while, linguistic competence is the speakers' unconscious knowledge of the native language's grammatical rules (Cited in Akinjobi, 2011).

Fifty years before the contribution of Chomsky to the field of linguistics in general and that of applied linguistics in particular, Ferdinand de Saussure had a similar distinction, but with different vocabulary. Reda (2016) stated that in addition to de Saussure's conceptualization of language as a system of signs and his early structuralist views on the relationships between linguistic items, he also "also distinguished between the abstract knowledge of the language system ("langue") and the concrete application of this system by speakers ("parole"). To him, linguistics should concern itself with the study of langue" (p. 91).

* Speaking performance

Today, Speaking performance, or oral production, and its assessment is becoming more and more the subject matter of many researchers. Scholars and experts in the field of SLA and other areas where language use is a central component are making efforts in studying and testing Speaking performance to facilitate the task of language teaching (Koizumi, 2005). Speaking then is "the skill that learners should master most. Nunan (1991) claims that the success of learning a second or foreign language is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation. Therefore, speaking is considered as the most demanding skill since the ability to speak a language is considered the same as mastering that language"(Hanifa, Fajrina, and Gani, 2016,p.199-200). The most important point about speaking is that speaking is a productive skill and an interactive process of communication which helps the listener to follow and understand messages (Abdul Samad, Bustari and Ahmad , 2017, p. 99).

In terms of language learning and use, writing and speaking are the two productive skills which need to be enhanced for effective communication. Compared to all language skills, and as far as communication is concerned, the speaking skill is undoubtedly is mostly required because it has many benefits for speakers in qualifying them for speaking activities, job interviews and employment (Boonkit, 2010; Rao, 2019). To enhance English speaking performance, students should be provided with situations and tasks which emphasize the learning of pronunciation, vocabulary, and collocations (Boonkit, 2010). Students should also have some grammatical competence or some knowledge of the formation of words and sentences (Rao, 2019). This is only because "It is quite difficult for foreign or second language learners to produce sentences without learning the grammatical structures and having proper knowledge of adequate vocabulary" (ibid).

Among the important advantages of developed speaking abilities in the second or foreign language speaker's life as described by Rao (2019, p. 12) are:

 * To participate actively in pair or group activities in the classrooms.

* To participate actively in debates and group discussions.

* To develop critical thinking among the learners.

* To pursue higher studies in foreign countries.

* To interact with people all around the globe.

* To make living abroad simpler and easier.

* To get better employment opportunities.

* To acquire more knowledge.

* Writing performance

Yi (2009) views that there is not a single definition of writing ability due to the big number of approaches to the teaching of writing. Because each approach focuses more on one aspect or perspective from which it deems writing must be tackled, all definitions of writing complete each other. Therefore, it is of crucial importance that one should consider each approach and definition. Pursuing this same stand, **Yi** (ibid), maintains that the product/text-oriented approach focuses on the surface structures of writing (sentence or discourse); process/cognitive-oriented approach targets the initiation and development of ideas; the reader/genre-oriented approach requires the inclusion of the audience and social context in the teaching of writing (p. 56-60).

Because writing skills are not easy to develop, Shehzadi and Krishnasamy (2018) insist on the fact that "For second and foreign language learners, writing is a demanding activity because this skill helps students to perform better in course work and examinations especially, at the university level. An excellent expertise in English writing is crucial to enhance university students" writing

performance, thus academic success" (p. 145), and in the literature, Shehzadi and Krishnasamy (ibid) indicate that the ESL writing performance of students is highly affected by anxiety the use of their first language (L1). Fareed, Ashraf, and Bilal (2016), in support of these ideas, find that students in English as a second language (ESL) contexts encounter many problems, and though it is an important skill as far as language production is concerned, it has not so far been given the concern it really deserves.

To enhance the students' writing quality, teachers may encourage them to learn more vocabulary. Kiliç (2019, p. 140) shows that several investigative studies have been undertaken to demonstrate the relationship between the use of vocabulary and quality of writing. Examples of these studies are: Astika (1993), Engber (1995), Daller and Phelan (2007), and Laufer and Nation (1995). Listing or mentioning these studies aims at urging teachers to variegate their teaching methods in the course of writing on the one hand and to invite second language learners to widen their knowledge of the sources which might be of some help for them to improve, or at least, ameliorate their writing skills on the other.

* Listening and reading performance

A quick glimpse over the history of language teaching methods would indicate that the Grammar Translation Method (GMT) did not give any importance to the listening skill, and that people became more interested in oral skills after the advent of the Direct Method (DM). Subsequently, The Audio-lingual Method (ALM) emphasized both listening and speaking skills; Asher's Total Physical Response (1977) stated that listening skills development should come first to pave the way for speaking; Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985) called for the inclusion of comprehensible input into the teaching of the second language; and in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), listening was regarded as the main part of daily life communication (Solak and Erdem, 2016, p. 31).

In listening, many operations take place. The listener interprets sounds, picks up words, constructs meaning, predicts and checks new information, and prepares answers and responses through the use of several strategies, and thus listeners are required to work hard so as to understand and be understood (Nemtchinova, 2013, p. 2). On their part, teachers should distinguish between listening to comprehend and listening to acquire the language.

> Teachers teach students strategies to facilitate comprehension and tell them not to
>
> cling to every word but to try to derive meaning from what they recognize. This
>
> approach encourages learners to rely on familiar language and provides little

opportunity to boost linguistic development. It equates listening with listening comprehension, overlooking the important role listening plays in language acquisition. To help learners further their learning of the language, teachers can supplement comprehension goals, which focus on extracting information from the text, with acquisition goals, which draw their attention to linguistic features of the text, so that students explicitly notice them and incorporate them into their speech (ibid, p. 7).

As for the ability to extract meaning from text, second or foreign language learners often struggle to comprehend what they read. That is, they find difficulties at different levels and fail to construct their meaning. Shea and Ceprano (2017) find that reading with understanding is a difficult task, for it requires full and deep comprehension of texts; and that students who show low performances need to be instructed in specific skills and strategies to improve their demonstrated achievement in daily lessons and on global assessments. They state, accordingly, that " Reading is characterized by understanding; although understanding is labeled in different ways (e.g., comprehension, meaning making), success with this language process requires that one fully comprehends the message expressed, interprets between and beyond the lines of text, and constructs personal meaning with the text (e.g., elaborating and extending)"(ibid, p. 48).

The Reading comprehension approaches which have been developed to improve text comprehension focus on the understanding of words, passages and texts by students. These approaches, on the other hand, teach explicitly strategies such as prediction, self-questioning, clarifying, and summarizing to students who encounter problems and difficulties of this kind. But, these approaches may prove to be ineffective if students find difficulties in other areas; i.e. the students' level should be assessed before putting into practice anyone of these approaches or strategies (NEPS, 2019, p. 15). In the same vein, Mckee (2012) pointed out that:

> Most individuals have personal strategies that they develop as ways to understand
> what they read. Reading strategies are often taught by teachers and utilized by
> students as ways to improve reading comprehension. Farrell (2001) stated that
> students can benefit from learning reading strategies and that these strategies can
> be taught. Yang (2006) determined that the procession and utilization of
> comprehension monitoring strategies does provide readers greater help in the
> comprehension of material (p. 48).

6.2 Factors Influencing Performance in Second Language

According to Ellis (1985), factors such as age, aptitude, intelligence, cognitive style, attitudes, motivation and personality greatly influence second language learning (Cited in Khasinah, 2014, p. 257). Other scholars and researchers endorse that the most influential factors that affect performance in second language include vocabulary, grammar, interference of mother tongue (L1), self-efficacy and motivation (Adwani and Shrivastava, 2017).

Regarding the **age** factor, Saddeghi (2013) says that there are two c different views: the first view advocates the idea that children are more efficient and effective second language learners than adults due to early exposure to language; on the other hand, the second view lies in the belief that adults are more efficient and effective second language learners than children which may refer to the fact that adults are more balanced and are decision-makers (Cited in Montero, Chaves and Alvarado, 2014, p. 348).

Neufel (1978, cited in Madrid, 1995) claims that there is evidence that some students are better than others at L2 learning which may refer to some innate abilities (**aptitude**). This fact shout be taken into account by teachers to be to control in their classes what helps students or hinders them to obtain the highest proficiency level through the implementation of tests ().

Many Investigations have addressed the issue of **attitudes**, with much emphasis on training attitude. That is, when an individual faces a new task or an unusual object, a lot of reactions rise, which could be positive or negative reactions. Unfortunately, "negative attitude and lack of motivation of learners can become obstacles to language learning" (Henter, 2014,p. 374).

Motivation is neglected in some second language learning contexts though most learning activities cannot be fully and appropriately done without the students' motivation. It should be considered as an integral part in the classroom; i.e. a part that deserves to be investigated. "Without student motivation, there is no pulse; there is no life in the class" (Adwani and Shrivastava, 2017, p. 159).

Behaviours or rather **personality traits** in the classroom give the impression that some students obtain good results, and other behaviours seem to impede successful learning. But, empirically speaking, many studies proved the opposite; i.e. students with "good" personalikty traits are not always successful and vice versa (Madrid, 1995).

In producing second language (speaking or writing it), learners unconsciously rely on and use their first language structures. If the latter are different from those of the second language, the learners will commit errors in L2 which is known as **L1 interference** with L2 acquisition. If the

structures are similar, then it becomes easy for learners to move to further stages in acquiring the target language (Derakhshan and Karimi, 2015)

6.3 Contrastive Analysis, Error Analaysis, and Interlanguage Theory: Pedagogic Implications

When students commit errors in their acquisition/learning of a second language, the chief duty of linguists is to look for the causes of the students' errors and try to find solutions and remedies. For this reason, the Contrastive analysis, Error analysis, and Inter-language Theory have been proposed. Contrastive analysis compares and contrasts systematically between two languages (L1 and L2) in an attempt to identify their structural differences and similarities, assuming that the similarities facilitate learning; whereas, the differences cause problems. Contrastive analysis is intended to predict problems and consider them in the curriculum. On the other hand, Error Analysis is supposed to treat the problems which cannot be predicted by Contrastive Analysis (Rustipa, 2011). From this literature, it can be inferred that Contrastive Analysis is primarily concerned with areas of interference (negative transfer of L1 rules in L2 learning); While, Error Analysis caters for solutions to intraference problems; i.e. problems resulting from misunderstanding or misuse of the target language rules.

According to Dong (2013), interlanguage is the term which was coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to the features of the language between the learners' first language and L2. It is considered by Ellis (2012) to be both the temporary internal system constructed by a learner and all other interconnected systems which reflect his progress or developmental stages in L2; Ellis sees that the study of interlanguage is what paves the way for explaining the nature of L2 acquisition. Ellis also sees that interlanguage involves five psycholinguistic processes: native language transfer; overgeneralization of target language rules; transfer of training; strategies of communication; and strategies of learning (p. 42). Other scholar believe that interlanguage is a phenomenon in SLA which came as a result of the failure of both Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Error Analysis to explain the influence of the mother tongue and the target language on the target language performance (Whardani and Margana, 2019, p. 31).

Feedback and Error Correction

7.1 Theoretical Background

When humans come to learn language, they tend to commit errors. The latter were forbidden in the past (behaviourism) because only correct forms of language were desired. In the last four decades, however, this attitude has changed (cognitivism). Errors have come to be viewed "as evidence for a creative process in language learning in which learners employ hypothesis testing and various strategies in learning a second language"(Touchie, 1986, p. 75). According to Selinker (1969),

> errors are significant in three respects: (1) errors are important for the language
> teacher because they indicate the learner's progress in language learning; (2) errors
> are also important for the language researcher as they provide insights into how
> language is learnt; and (3) finally, errors are significant to the language learner
> himself/herself as he/she gets involved in hypothesis testing (ibid, p. 76)

Accordingly, based on Corder (1967) and (Ellis, 1994), Hamid and Doan (2014) stated that "in Second language (L2) errors are of significance because errors: (1) are "red flags" that signal learners' L2 knowledge status; (2) serve as "tools" by which learners figure out L2 rules; and (3) help teachers and researchers bring to light learners' L2 learning processes" (p. 123). Therefore, studying the errors committed by Second Language Learners (SLLs) has become an integral part of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research. In the past, experts and researchers used to think that the source of Second language (L2) Learners' errors was their first language (L1) interference in the process of L2 learning, later on (Selinker, 1974) they discovered that the cause was the preliminary form of L2 (interlanguage) which is an essential component of L2 learners' language acquisition (Ali, 2011,p. 131-132)

7.2 Types of Errors

According to Touchie (1986), there are two major types of errors: performance errors which are due to fatigue or inattention and which can be corrected by the learner himself, and competence errors which are serious because they reflect inadequate learning. The former are sometimes called mistakes and the latter are known as errors (Jing, Xiaodong and Yu, 2016). Burt and Kiparsky

(1972) classified errors into two main divisions: "global errors, which affect overall sentence organization and significantly hinder communication, and local errors, which affect a single part of the sentence and are only a minor "irritability" (Johansson, 1975) to communication" (Cited in Shaffer, 2005). Errors could also be classified into interlingual (transfer errors) or intralingual (overgeneralizations) errors. The former class results from the influence of the first language (L1) on the learning of the second one (L2) and they may be phonological, morphological, syntactical, or lexical. The latter class, however, is due to the learner's misunderstanding or wrong use of the L2 rules such as the problem of overgeneralization (Atmaca, 2016).

7.3 Should teachers correct their students' errors?

According to Corder (1967), errors are very important because

> First, errors tell the teacher how far the learner has progressed towards the goal and consequently, how much he still has to learn. Second, errors provide researchers with evidence on how language is acquired (i.e., they reveal the strategies or procedures the learner employs in the process). Third, errors are indispensable to the learner himself because they can be regarded as a device in order to learn; they are a way for the learner to test his or her hypotheses about the Second Language (Cited in Carranza, 2007, p. 84)

Other scholars, however, are against error correction. This seems to stem out of their belief that the ultimate goal of teaching and learning language is communication; i.e. there is an emphasis on understanding the received messages and on being understood through the messages sent. Examples of these approaches are the Natural Approach and Suggestopedia (Botha, 1987). In many previous researches errors were addressed in two different ways or contexts: communication and accuracy. That is, some teachers in the classroom tend to implement activities which target students 'engagement and free language production, while other teachers use activities which highlight discrete syntactic, morphological, or semantic structures. So, in communication activities, teachers should correct the errors which hinder communication and in accuracy activities teachers should correct the errors which have to do with the language structure (Carranza, 2007, p. 85). In addition, aiming to encourage students to communicate, the way of correcting errors is also another important aspect; that is,

> Advocates of communicative teaching argue that explicitly correcting students' errors detracts from language learning, on the grounds that communication rather than accuracy is the goal of language teaching, that acquisition of

language form occurs through a focus on meaning rather than through a focus on form, and that correction produces negative psychological consequences in the learner (Woods, 1989, p. 60-61)

In fact, teachers should not only avoid communication hindrance in the classroom, but they should also consider "the difference between a mistake and an error, how much correction should be made, at what phases the teacher should correct the error and how the teacher can correct the learner without de-motivating him/her"(Amara, 2018, p. 45).

7.4 Feedback

To be competent in a second language means to be able to speak and write well in that language. Yet, being competent requires a lot of efforts and a long process. Both students and teachers should be prepared to encounter situations and face problems such as the errors that the students commit. Both of them should play the right role. In this same line of thought, Klimova (2015) mentions that:

Enthusiastic ELT teachers are always looking for new and effective approaches and methods which would contribute to the overall improvement of their students' learning and their performance. One of the most effective ways of discovering this is collecting students' responses in the form of feedback. Such responses can provide critical and constructive information about the current course, teacher performance, difficulties or challenges students experience/have experienced during the course and indicate steps which should be taken for the improvement of one's performance in future (p. 172)

Feedback is considered "as information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, a book can provide information to clarify ideas, a parent can provide encouragement, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response. Thus, Feedback is a "consequence" of performance" (Hattie and Timperley, 2007, p. 81). That is, feedback is the information that a student may receive from many people on his performance. The aim of feedback is to show, explain, correct, or suggest something for the student.

Because feedback has been associated with assessment (formative assessment) and with the role students are supposed to play to discover their strengths and weaknesses, feedback is considered to be "the way to enhance the students 'self-evaluated accuracy. Feedback can be provided by various sources, for example, instructor, classmate, parents, and even the individual.

Certainly, feedback can be provided by various methods (oral presentation, and paper-based instruction)" (Masantiah, Pasiphol and Tangdhanakanond, 2018, 2018, p. 1). Here, it is clear that there are ways that the teacher can use to give feedback, and the aim of feedback is to indicate whether or not the student is on the right path.

7.4.1 Forms of Feedback

A example of describing the types of feedback was provided by Noor, Aman, Mustaffa, and Seong (2010) in the introduction of a study (article) entitled "*Teacher's Verbal Feedback on Students' Response: A Malaysian ESL Classroom Discourse Analysis".* They mentioned that "In the context of teaching and learning languages, various definitions of the term feedback have been proposed. Most of these definitions indicate that feedback refers to informing learners about their work in progress" (Noor, Aman, Mustaffa, and Seong, 2010, p. 399). Below are three types of feedback which have been taken from this source:

"Feedbacks can be identified as **positive** or **negative**. Positive feedback confirms a correct response from the learner….Examples of teacher's positive feedback include, 'good', yes, and 'well done'. …. In contrast, negative feedback refers to immediate oral feedback which aims at mistake correction (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)" (ibid)

"Feedbacks have also been categorized based on the functions they provide. For example, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) focus on the "**evaluative feedback**" used by the teacher in classroom discourse, which usually consists of the acts of accepting, evaluating and commenting. Richards and Lockhart's (1994) classification includes saying that something is correct or incorrect, praising, modifying a student̓s answer, repeating, summarizing and criticizing" (ibid)

Ur (2003) indicated that there are two types of feedback: the first is **formative** and refers to the immediate correction and assessment of students̓writing assignments. The second is **summative** and is used in evaluating students̓writing at the end of a term (Cited in Rahman, 2017, p. 66).

Khan (2003) collected many types or forms of feedback (Cited in Rahman, 2017, pp. 67-69) from various studies which are listed as follows:

Error Correction (Alwright, 1975: Norish, 1983; Hendrickson, 1984; Chaudron, 1988 cited in Khan 2003): It is a very common and traditional approach of feedback to the teachers which implies coded sign to indicate mistakes and errors in students̓writing.

Peer Feedback (Lynch, 1988; Robinson, 1991; Arndt, 1993; Keh, 1996 cited in Khan 2003): This is comparatively a new concept in our context since it employs students to check and give feedback to each other.

Conferences (Freedman & Sperling, 1985; Hedge, 1988; Keh, 1996; Arndt, 1993 cited in Khan 2003): It is a —face to face meeting between the teacher and the student, and can be arranged individually and or in groups (p.7).

Written Comments (Rairnes, 1983; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Leki, 1990 cited in Khan 2003): Following this approach, teachers give feedback in written comments either —in the margins or between the lines or at the end (p.9)

Reformulation (Cohen, 1982; Alwright, 1988 cited in Khan): Reformation focuses on global errors rather than local errors and applies rewriting strategy keeping the original idea intact.

Text Approximation (Holes, 1984 cited in Khan 2003): This is a process oriented feedback giving method which focuses on multiple drafts and revisions to —approximate an English text of similar type‖ (p. 11).

Taped Commentary (Hyland, 1990; Schriver, 1991; Boswood & Dwyer, 1995 cited in Khan): Following this method, teachers'remarks are recorded on tape. In addition, to make the identifying process easy for the students, numbers are written on students' written text along with teacher's comment.

Grades/Numbers (Khan 2003): This is the most common method for giving feedback where teachers evaluate students' writing giving different grades (A, B, C) or number (7/10, 9/10).

Regardless of its different types, as mentioned earlier, feedback should be weighed in terms of what it offers to both teachers and students. What should also be done is to consider what constitutes a good feedback practice. According to Nicol (2007), good feedback practice should:

1. Help clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, standards).To what extent do students in your course have opportunities to engage actively with goals, criteria and standards, before, during and after an assessment task?

2. Encourage 'time and effort' on challenging learning tasks. To what extent do your assessment tasks encourage regular study in and out of class and deep rather than surface learning?

3. Deliver high quality feedback information that helps learners self-correct. What kind of teacher feedback do you provide – in what ways does it help students self-assess and self-correct?

4. Encourage positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem. To what extent do your assessments and feedback processes activate your students' motivation to learn and be successful?

5. Encourage interaction and dialogue around learning (peer and teacher student. What opportunities are there for feedback dialogue (peer and/or tutor-student) around assessment tasks in your course?

6. Facilitate the development of self-assessment and reflection in learning. To what extent are there formal opportunities for reflection, self-assessment or peer assessment in your course?

7. Give learners choice in assessment – content and processes. To what extent do students have choice in the topics, methods, criteria, weighting and/or timing of learning and assessment tasks in your course?

8. Involve students in decision-making about assessment policy and practice. To what extent are your students in your course kept informed or engaged in consultations regarding assessment decisions?

9. Support the development of learning communities. To what extent do your assessments and feedback processes help support the development of learning communities?

10. Help teachers adapt teaching to student needs. To what extent do your assessment and feedback processes help inform and shape your teaching?

Teacher's Roles and Learner's Styles in the EFL Classroom

8.1 Teacher's Roles

According to Harmer (2007, p. 108) the term facilitator is used to refer to all teachers without exception because each and every teacher is supposed to facilitate learning; i.e. to help learners to be autonomous through groupwork, pairwork, and other techniques. However, the teachers 'effectiveness in the classroom cannot be clearly understood unless their roles are indentified and described in more detail. The latter are as follows (ibid, p. 108-111):

* Controller: when teachers act as controllers, they are in charge of the class and of the activity taking place and are often 'leading from the front'. Controllers take the register, tell students things, organize drills, read aloud and in various other ways exemplify the qualities of a teacher-fronted classroom.

* Prompter: sometimes, when they are involved in a role-play activity for example, students lose the thread of what is going on, or they are 'lost for words' (i.e. they may still have the thread but be unable to proceed productively for lack of vocabulary). They may not be quite sure how to proceed. What should teachers do in these circumstances? Hold back and let them work things out for themselves or, instead, 'nudge' them forward in a discreet and supportive way? If we opt for the latter, we are adopting some kind of a 'prompting' role.

* Participant: the traditional picture of teachers during student discussions, role-plays or group decision-making activities, is of people who 'stand back' from the activity, letting the learners get on with it and only intervening later to offer feedback and/or correct mistakes. However, there are also times when we might want to join in an activity not (only) as a teacher, but also as a participant in our own right.

* Resource: in some activities it is inappropriate for us to take on any of the roles we have suggested so far. Suppose that the students are involved in a piece of group writing, or that they are preparing for a presentation they are to make to the class. In such situations, having the teacher take part, or try to control them, or even turn up to prompt them might be entirely unwelcome. However, the students may still have need of their teacher as a resource. They might

need to ask how to say or write something or ask what a word or phrase means. They might want to know information in the middle of an activity about that activity or they might want information about where to look for something - a book or a website, for example. This is where we can be one of the most important resources they have.

* Tutor: when students are working on longer projects, such as process writing or preparation for a talk or a debate, we can work with individuals or small groups, pointing them in directions they have not yet thought of taking. In such situations, we are combining the roles of prompter and resource - in other words, acting as a tutor.

The teacher's role varies according to the ultimate objective of the lecture. Sometimes, it depends on the type of activity and a lot depends on the type of the learners themselves. "What we can say, with certainty, is that we need to be able to switch between the various roles we have described here, judging when it is appropriate to use one or other of them. And then, when we have made that decision, however consciously or subconsciously it is done, we need to be aware of how we carry out that role, how we perform" (Harmer, 2007, p. 111).

8.2 Learner Differences

The fact that some learners are better than others in learning language gives the idea that these individuals are endowed with special potentials or are naturally born with better capacities and preparedness. "The reason probably is that people are not homogenous! They have different personalities and styles. Thus, each individual is different from the other" (Zafar and Meenakshi, 2012). The individual differences which affect language, in a way or another, second language acquisition are age, sex, aptitude, motivation, learning styles, learning strategies, and personality (ibid). These differences or variables, though they are signs of rapid or slow achievement in second language acquisition, are interlocked and influential on each other. Hurd (2006) states that "Whether classified as cognitive or affective, fixed or modifiable, variables are generally considered to have some bearing on the ways in which a learner is likely to interpret, relate and respond to the learning materials. They also interact with each other in a variety of different ways"(p. 2).

The above notes can be summarized by saying "It is important for teachers to know variables such as physical characteristics, intelligence, perception, gender, ability, learning styles, which are individual differences of the learners. An effective and productive learning-teaching process can be planned by considering these individual differences of the students. Since the learners' own learning speeds and interests vary, these characteristics should be taken into consideration by the teacher" (Kubat, 2018, p. 30). In other words, "The lack of knowledge on such differences amongst

students may cause students not to participate in the learning-teaching process and thus academic failure. Discipline problems in the class can be reduced when the students are directed to meaningful activities and directed to their own interests and abilities" (ibid, 31).

8.3 Learner's Styles

Awla (2014) endorsed the idea that it is very crucial to understand students' learning styles and preferences because they benefit both partners in the classroom. Teachers may adjust their teaching styles to the existing learning styles in their classrooms so as to enhance the teaching learning process. Awla (ibid, p.242) lists the following types:

*** Visual versus verbal**

Visual learners prefer to think in pictures and obtain information through visual means such as diagrams and videos. In contrast verbal learners gain more information through verbal explanations (either spoken or written) (Ldpride, n.d; Felder, 1993).

*** Auditory learners**

Auditory learners gain information through aural channels such as verbal discussions and listening to others speech. These learners understand meaning by concentrating on the pitch, tone and speed of voice. They benefit from reading text out loud and they may not make use of written information (Ldpride,n.d.).

*** Kinesthetic or tactile learners**: they like movement and work with touchable objects. They enjoy regular breaks and move around the room (Oxford, 2001).

*** Intuitive (random) versus Sensing (sequential)**

Intuitive learners prefer information that originates from their imagination, reflection and internal memory. They think in futuristic, no-sequential and large-scale ways and enjoy creating new theories and possibilities. Conversely, sensing learners prefer information that arises from senses. They think about here and now, and prefer facts to theories. They would like to be guided and instructed by teachers (Felder, 1993; Oxford, 2001).

*** Global versus analytic**

Global learners concentrate on the big picture and follow their instincts or guess the main idea of a text. They like short answers rather than long explanations. On the other hand, analytic learners focus on logical analysis and thinking to tackle problems. They break ideas apart and tend to place more emphasis on grammar rules (Dornyei, 2005).

*** Active versus Reflective**

Active learners enjoy doing tasks directly by applying and discussing them with others, while reflective learners understand and remember information best by reflecting on it in advance.

Active learners prefer to work in groups, while reflective learners enjoy working alone or in pairs (Felder, 1993)

*** Individual versus group preferences**

Individual learners prefer to work and learn independently on their own. On the other hand, learners with a group preference like to study and learn in groups (Dornyei, 2005).

Vaseghi, Ramezani, and Gholami (2012), on the importance of students' learning styles or preferences, stated that "The more that teachers know about their students' style preferences, the more effectively they can orient their L2 instruction, as well as the strategy teaching that can be interwoven into language instruction, matched to those style preferences"(p. 448). That is, if teachers have inadequate knowledge of their students' different learning styles in the classroom, they cannot variegate their teaching methods, and thus reach each student. To easily adapt a new situation and adopt a teaching style that may meet almost all learning styles, Zhou (2011) suggested the following teacher's actions:

1) Make liberal use of visuals. Use photographs, drawings, sketches, and cartoons to illustrate and reinforce the meanings of vocabulary words. Show films, videotapes, and live dramatizations to illustrate lessons in text.

2) Assign some repetitive drill exercises to provide practice in basic vocabulary and grammar, but don't overdo it.

3) Do not fill every minute of class time lecturing and writing on the blackboard. Provide intervals for students to think about what they have been told; assign brief writing exercises.

4) Provide explicit instruction in syntax and semantics to facilitate formal language learning and develop skill in written communication and interpretation

Zhou (ibid, p. 77), in this sense, continues to say that "Learning a foreign language without guidance is similar to sailing without a good map. When teachers are aware of the importance of learning styles, they can provide a good map to their students. It's time for teachers to seek a reasonable way to teach English so that students can swim in open seas"

8.4 Learning strategies

Learning strategies are defined as the tactics used by people to control their learning process. Enhancing these strategies for language learners in the classroom has become one of the teachers' crucial roles so that they keep their mission which is to facilitate the students' learning and boost their thinking. Teachers, in this case, are required to be aware of the learners' learning styles and needs to employ the most appropriate methodologies that help students in using strategies which

enhance their L2 learning process (Montaño-González, 2017). Below are some definitions as listed by Lessard-Clouston (1997, p. 2):

* Tarone (1983) defined a LS as "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language -- to incoporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (p. 67).

* Rubin (1987) later wrote that LS "are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly" (p. 22).

* In their seminal study, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) defined LS as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1).

Many researchers and scholars have provided many definitions of language learning strategies (LLSs). So much the same goes for their classification, especially in terms of the approaches used. Chang and Liu (2013) mention that in the scheme proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) there are cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies. According to them, cognitive strategies are used by learners to process information; metacognitive strategies are higher order executive skills which involve planning, monitoring, or evaluating language learning activities; and social/affective strategies are involve interactions with others. In addition, Oxford (1990) produced a classification which included: **(1)Cognitive strategies:** processing information and structuring it, for example, analyzing, summarizing; **(2)Memory strategies:** remembering information by making connections, for example, grouping, and using keywords; **(3)Metacognitive** strategies: managing the learning process and dealing with the task, for ex-ample, planning, identifying and selecting resources; **(4)Compensation strategies:** compensating for knowledge gaps, for example, guessing, gesturing; **(5)Affective strategies:** identifying one's affective traits and knowing how to manage them, for example, reducing anxiety, encouraging one's self; and **(6)Social strategies:** learning from and/or with others, for example, asking for cooperation, working with peers (197).

The choice of LLSs, on the other hand, requires a lot of attention on the part of both teachers and students. There are factors which may directly influence the strategy choice made by learners. Some of the factors suggested by Willing (1987, cited in Martinez, 1996, pp. 107-108) are: personality traits (extroversion vs. introversion); motivation level (highly motivated learners adopt a positive attitude towards teaching and learning); learners' expectations and purpose (for learning the language); sex (male learners use different strategies from those of females); task requirements (some activities are very demanding); age (adults do not use the same strategies as young learners); and stage of learning (advanced learners use different strategies from more elementary ones).

8.5 Gardner's (1983) Multiple Intelligences Theory

Howard Gardner proposed a theory in 1983 which advocates that human beings have various intelligences. The Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT) attempted to explain how people process, learn, and remember information in seven ways (later on the eighth and ninth intelligences were added), indicating that each individual is different from the other individuals in terms of the degree possessed in each intelligence. These intelligences are linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalistic and existential. Knowing the students' diverse intelligences gives teachers the opportunity to prepare the appropriate individualized environments for learners (Maftoon and Sarem, 2012, 1234). One of the pedagogic implications of MIT, according to Gardner, is that:

> …educational methods should be created and adjusted to be more flexible
> for students who have different intellectual capacities, and should be
> redesigned and rearranged to use the multiple intelligences effectively so
> that those changes would benefit students, teachers and society. Multiple
> intelligence theory suggests that there is not just one concrete measure of
> intelligence and by implication a single way of teaching (ibid).

Below are some of Gardner's (1983) intelligences interpretations or meanings as cited in a number of research papers; however, all of the intelligences are demonstrated in Graph 1.

Hasanudin and Fitrianingsih, (2020) stated that "verbal-linguistic intelligence is a verbal ability that has been well developed and sensitive to the sounds, meanings, and rhythms of words (p. 118)

Arum, Kusmayadi, and Pramudya (2018) argued that "logical-mathematical intelligence is the ability of students to identify and classify objects, perform mathematical calculations, solve the problems, think logically and critically, and make conclusions" (p. 2).

According to Safranj and Zivlak (2018) "Visual/Spatial intelligence is the ability to visualise space and objects within the mind´s eye. People who prefer to use this kind of intelligence would rather draw a picture than write a paragraph. They notice colour, shapes and patterns and how light falls on the object, and comprehend mental models" (p.72).

"Bodily-Kinaesthetic intelligence is the ability to use one´s body and mimic another´s actions. People with a preference for this kind of intelligence generally have skills such as strength, balance endurance, flexibility and coordination. They use the body skilfully to express ideas and feelings to solve problems, create products or present emotion" (ibid).

"Interpersonal intelligence is one of the intelligences in Gardner's multiple intelligences. This intelligence is related to respond information, understand information, and build social connections/interactions to others" (Dien and Wustqa, 2018).
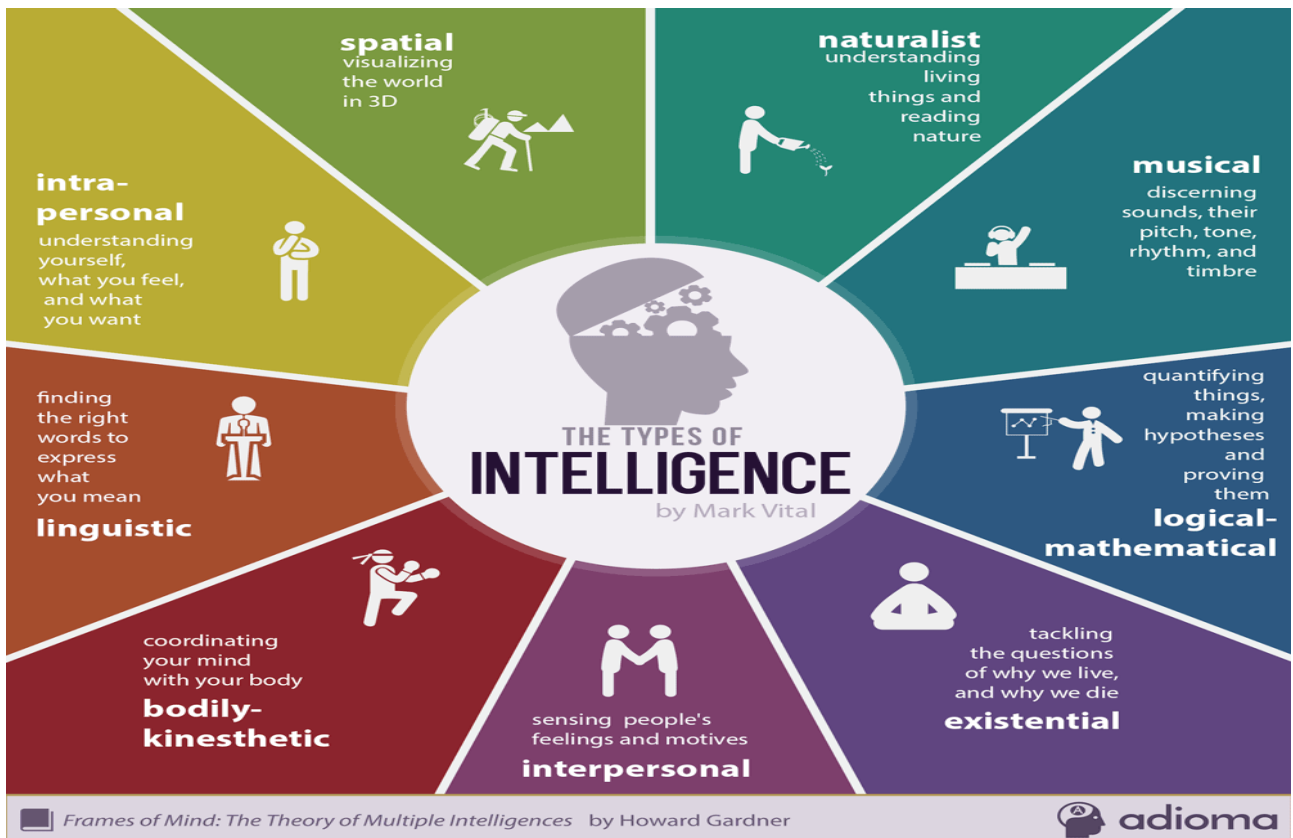

Figure 1: Gardner's Multiple Intelligences (by Mark Vital)
Source: https://blog.adioma.com/9-types-of-intelligence-infographic/

Evaluation and Assessment

9.1 A Quick Overview

Baranovskaya and Shaforostova (2017) in their article entitled "*Assessment and Evaluation Techniques*" attempted to highlight and remind practitioners of the fact that assessment and evaluation are very important components of education in general and language teaching and acquisition in particular. Regardless of their being the responsibility of (ELT) specialists, they have become part and parcel of English language teacher (ELT) training because "Recent studies reveal that the re-conceptualization of English language assessment and evaluation provides systematic information about student learning in relation to their performance and contributes to better understanding of their strengths and weaknesses"(p. 30). Clapham (2000, p.148) adds, in this line, that:

> Language assessment plays a pivotal role in applied linguistics, operationalizing its theories and supplying its researchers with data for their analysis of language knowledge or use. It has itself become a sub-discipline of applied linguistics, which is in some ways unfortunate, since it is has tended to become compartmentalized (Bachman and Cohen 1998) and does not interact as much as it should with the other sub-disciplines.

Even when people finish their studies, they are still concerned with assessment and testing in their life. For instance, when they apply for jobs in fields such as tourism and entertainment their attainment level in the languages will be tested **(**Li Wei, 2014, p. 215)

A clear distinction between evaluation and assessment must be made at this level. Though many scholars maintain that these terms are often used interchangeably, there are technical differences which need to be underlined.

> Assessment of an individual student's progress or achievement is an important component of evaluation: it is that part of evaluation that includes the measurement and analysis of information about student learning. The primary focus of assessment in Teaching English Language has been language assessment and the role of tests in assessing students' language skills.

Evaluation goes beyond student achievement and language assessment to consider all aspects of teaching and learning and to look at how educational decisions can be made by the results of alternative forms of assessment (Jabbarifar, 2009, p. 2).

Besides the above details about assessment, which indicate that assessment is just a part of evaluation and that it is mainly concerned with student achievement, Fulcher and Davidson (2007) uphold that "Teachers are constantly assessing, but the primary purpose of the assessment is to inform better teaching and more efficient learning. In the classroom the assessor is therefore deeply involved in the assessment, and cares about the outcomes of the assessment. There is nothing distant or neutral about intervening in the lives of learners" (pp. 27-28).

9.2 Demystification of Terms

9.2.1 Assessment

Below are some selected definitions of assessment and its role in teaching and learning (https://www.westminster.edu/about/accreditation-assessment/definition.cfm):

1. Assessment involves the use of empirical data on student learning to refine programs and improve student learning. (Assessing Academic Programs in Higher Education by Allen 2004)

2. Assessment is the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences; the process culminates when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning. (Learner-Centered Assessment on College Campuses: shifting the focus from teaching to learning by Huba and Freed 2000)

3. Assessment is the systematic basis for making inferences about the learning and development of students. It is the process of defining, selecting, designing, collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and using information to increase students' learning and development. (Assessing Student Learning and Development: A Guide to the Principles, Goals, and Methods of Determining College Outcomes by Erwin 1991)

4. Assessment is the systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development. (Assessment Essentials: planning, implementing, and improving assessment in higher education by Palomba and Banta 1999)

* Formative assessment: It is an assessment which is carried out by a teacher to find the knowledge of a learner at the end of each chapter or unit. The frequency of assessment will be weekly, fortnight, monthly or quarterly. A learner can adopt new principles to improve his performance in next examination. Example: class test, quiz, assignment, viva, oral presentation, case studies, lab report etc. (Vageriya, 2018, p. 2)

* Summative assessment: It is an assessment which is carried out at the end of semester or year to evaluate the overall performance of a candidate. It is also known as term examination or cumulative examination. It will be in term of percentage, grades or marks. (ibid)

9.2.2 Evaluation

A more comprehensible and comprehensive definition of evaluation has been provided by Desheng and Varghese (2013) when they explained in the following terms that:

> Evaluation is the comparison of actual (project) impacts against the agreed strategic plans. It looks at the original objectives, at what was accomplished, and how it was accomplished. It can be formative that is taking place during the life of a project or organization, with the intention of improving the strategy or way of functioning of the project or organization. It can also be summative, drawing learnings from a completed project or an organization that is no longer functioning (31).

What can be understood form the quote above has to do mainly with comparing projects' accomplishment with a set of standards or norms or plans which have already been agreed on. Evaluation can take place during the project (formative) as it can take place at the end (summative). On the other hand, a more simplistic and specific definition of evaluation has been offered by Vageriya (2018), saying that" Evaluation is the process in which a person observes the performance of someone. It might be direct or indirect evaluation to observe the candidate. It gives an idea about the quality of education and position of learner (p. 2)

9.3 Assessment vs. Evaluation

Vageriya (2018, p. 2) provided the comparison below to display difference between Assessment and Evaluation. The comparison, as shown, is made at different levels. From table (2), it is clear that assessment is a continuous process and its main objective is to improve the learner's level providing him with the necessary feedback on achievement. Whereas, evaluation seems to be more a kind of judgment on the learner's quality juxtaposing his results side by side with standards, with the aim of revealing his failure or bad achievement.

Assessment	Evaluation
Is ongoing process	Provides closure of observation
Improves quality of learner	Judges quality of learner
Individualized approach	Applied against standards
It does not mean grade	It is Grade
Provides feedback	Shows shortfalls
It is completely Process-oriented	It is Product-oriented
It is the means	It is the end

Table 2: Difference between Assessment and Evaluation.

Table (3) also compares and contrasts between Assessment and Evaluation. In addition to what is displayed in table (2), table (3) offers a definition for each concept. It focuses more on the orientation; i.e. assessment is process oriented (it counts on duration and actions); while, evaluation is product oriented (it counts on the final judgment)

Basis for Comparison	Assessment	Evaluation
Meaning	Assessment is a process of collecting, reviewing and using data, for the purpose of improvement in the current performance.	Evaluation is described as an act of passing judgement on the basis of set of standards.
Nature	Diagnostic	Judgemental
What it does?	Provides feedback on performance and areas of improvement.	Determines the extent to which objectives are achieved.
Purpose	Formative	Summative
Orientation	Process Oriented	Product Oriented
Feedback	Based on observation and positive & negative points.	Based on the level of quality as per set standard.
Relationship between parties	Reflective	Prescriptive
Criteria	Set by both the parties jointly.	Set by the evaluator.
Measurement Standards	Absolute	Comparative

Table 3: Comparison between Assessment and Evaluation

(https://keydifferences.com/difference-between-assessment-and-

evaluation.html#ComparisonChart)

9.4 Assessment and Evaluation

The benefits of evaluation and assessment are numerous. Jointly, they inform officials of the actual state of systems, schools, teachers and students. Based on the results obtained, they can be as instrument to boost the live of school managers and representatives in terms of salary progression, rewards, and sanctions. Moreover,

> By measuring student outcomes and holding teachers and schools
>
> responsible for results, accountability systems intend to create incentives

for improved performance and identify "underperforming" schools and school agents. Evaluation and assessment also identify strengths and weaknesses of systems, schools, school leaders, teachers and students which inform areas for development. In addition, evaluation and assessment can have a diagnostic function such as with school readiness assessments or sampled-based standardized assessments to measure the extent to which student learning objectives are being achieved across the education system (OECD Reviews of Evaluation and Assessment in Education, 2013, p. 63)

Because today clear objectives, suitable activities, and necessary feedback increase students' awareness of their achievement and inform teachers of what has been done and what is lagging behind, a combination of assessment and evaluation is needed. Yambi (2018) mentions that

Assessment and evaluation are related to both instructional objectives and classroom learning activities and are indispensable elements in the learning process. They are useful for gathering data/information needed into various interests. The data can be used to make decision about the content and methods of instruction, to make decisions about classrooms climate, to help communicate what is important, and to assign grades (p. 9)

In this same line, Meidasari (2015) emphasizes the point that evaluation and assessment are indispensible components in teaching and learning English, for an effective evaluation programme would facilitate the knowledge of "whether students have learned, whether teaching has been effective, or how best to address student learning needs. The quality of the assessment and evaluation in the educational process has a profound and well-established link to student performance" (p. 224).

Course and Syllabus Design

10.1 An Overview

Before one tackles what a course is and how it is designed, introducing what learning is and how it is perceived seems to be worth mentioning. Learning is viewed as a process which takes place in the mind and which is reflected by the students' performances. Learning is then supposed to make changes in students' knowledge, beliefs, behaviours, and in the way they think and act. In other words, learning rests heavily on what students do; i.e. it results from the way they act and react through their own experiences (Ambrose et al., 2010, p. 3). The principles of learning are also worth mentioning here. From a holistic perspective, there are seven principles which work together to highlight various issues related to student learning (ibid, pp. 4-6). These principles are:

1. Students' prior knowledge can help or hinder learning: Students come into new courses with previous knowledge. When they use this knowledge to deal with a different situation, it influences their learning of new items. If students' prior knowledge is firm and appropriate, it provides facilitates the building new knowledge and vice versa.

2. How students organize knowledge influences how they learn and apply what they know: Naturally, when they learn, students build meaningful and organized structures of knowledge which they use to retrieve and process new information effectively and efficiently. If these structures are accurate or deliberate, students will succeed in the new course or class. However, if these structures are inaccurate or random, they may fail to pursue the new experience.

3. Students' motivation determines, directs, and sustains what they do to learn: Motivation plays a crucial role in guiding the students' leaning and in producing the quality of the learned behaviours or performances. If students are motivated by the learning goal or activity and by the environment, they will achieve better. Motivation determines their actions and reactions.

4. To develop mastery, students must acquire component skills, practice integrating them, and know when to apply what they have learned: Students must not only focus on the skills and knowledge which help them to perform the classroom tasks, but they must also benefit from

these skills and knowledge to develop greater fluency and automaticity. Then, it is the teachers' responsibility to raise the students' awareness about how to learn more effectively.

5. Goal-directed practice coupled with targeted feedback enhances the quality of students' learning: The practice that focuses on a specific goal or criterion is more beneficial for students. This type of practice is better reinforced by the teacher's feedback because students may need explicit guidance and explanation which allow them to perform the tasks required.

6. Students' current level of development interacts with the social, emotional, and intellectual climate of the course to impact learning: While learning, students continue to develop their intellectual, social, and emotional skills. The intervention o teachers here could be at the level of shaping the intellectual, social, emotional, and physical aspects of the classroom climate. The learning climate which teachers may improve or, at least, ameliorate can strengthen students' learning.

7. To become self-directed learners, students must learn to monitor and adjust their approaches to learning: Despite the fact that they not easy to fulfill, students need to develop the skills which enable them to engage in such processes as monitoring and controlling their learning, employing various strategies, and assessing and evaluating the level of their achievement. If they endeavour to do so, they gain intellectual habits that improve both their performance effectiveness as learners.

Based on the above principles, teachers can develop a clear picture of how to design a course or syllabus. Simply stated, designing a course should start by designing real learning experiences on the part of teachers. Larry Spence (2001) stated that" We won't meet the needs for more and better higher education until professors become designers of learning experiences and not teachers" (Cited in Fink, 2013, p. 1). Many studies have shown that the basic problem is that students are required to achieve higher kinds of learning; i.e. officials want to produce students who are able to retain information, develop an ability to transfer knowledge, develop skill in thinking or problem solving, achieve affective outcomes, but teachers are still using traditional and ineffective forms of teaching (ibid, p. 3). Also, it must be perceived that because any act of teaching is preceded by planning, "the most successful teaching begins, therefore, with clarity about desired learning outcomes and about the evidence that will show that learning has occurred"(Wiggins and McTighe,2011p.7). On the other hand, the success of the course is not only

determined by the plan and objectives, but by the syllabus which offers more details. According to Slattery and Carlson (2005),

> The success of the course is determined by how well the objectives and the outline are designed. A carefully planned, clearly written, comprehensive syllabus is one of the most important and valuable resources which can be provided to the students. It may prevent the misunderstandings in terms of course goals and objectives, assessment and evaluation standards, grading policies, student or faculty behavior, assignments, readings, and activities (Cited in Tokatlı and Keúli, 2009, p. 1492)

Course syllabi facilitate communication between the students and their instructors. That is, they are used as a means of contact and a means for learning and teaching between these partners. If these syllabi are prepared based on what students need, they will help to create a lively and inviting atmosphere where students could manage their leaning and successful retrieval of knowledge (ibid, p. 1491). The ultimate goal of a well-prepared, comprehensive, and comprehensible course syllabus is students who understand things or understanding in different situations. "People with an understanding are not limited to "knowing" only what they were taught the way they were taught it; they can use their knowledge and skill to make connections, explore alternative perspectives, and adapt prior learning to new situations" (Wiggins and McTighe,2011, p. 62).

10.2 Definitions

* Programme of study: A set of courses undertaken by a student towards a qualification and the requirements a student must comply with to gain that qualification.

(Centre for Academic Development and Academic Office, 2015, p. 1)

* Course: An individual unit of study towards a qualification, identified by a course code and title carrying a specified points value. (ibid)

* A curriculum defines the learning that is expected to take place during a course or programme of study in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. It specifies teaching, learning and assessment methods and indicates the learning resources required to support effective delivery. One of the primary functions of a curriculum is to provide a framework or design which enables learning to take place. A syllabus is the part of a curriculum that describes the content of a program.

(Mckimm, J. and Barrow, J. M, 2009, p. 714)

* At the lowest level, the syllabus may simply be a reminder or a list of things to do for the busy teacher who has little classroom planning time. However, a good syllabus does much more than

that. A well-written syllabus could provide a doorway into the pedagogical beliefs of the teacher (or the course writer). **(**Murphy, S. R, 2018, p. 1)

* A course presentation or **syllabus** is written by an instructor and given to students at the beginning of a course. It contains information from the course outline and information specific to that particular section of the course. Typically it lists texts and materials, the precise evaluation scheme to be used, the instructor's policy on late assignments, the tentative schedule of topics, the instructor's office hours and …. (Kwantlen Course Outline Manual, 2009, p.3)

* Allen (1984) defines **'Curriculum'** is a very general concept, considering philosophical, social and administrative factors in view of planning of an educational programme. Then 'Syllabus' is referring to the subpart of a curriculum, concerned with the specification of what units will be taught. According to Noss and Rodgers (1976), a language syllabus is a set of justifiable, educational objectives specified in terms of linguistic content. Here the specification of objectives must have something to do with language form or substance, such as the use of language in situations, or language as a means of communication. (Cited in Sekhar and Swathi, 2019, p. 4)

10.3 Main Principles of Syllabus Design

One of the most important definitions of 'SYLLABUS' in which there is a clear distinction between curriculum and syllabus, and between the "*what to teach*" (content) and the "*how to teach it* "(methodology) was given by Allen (1984, p. 61). It says:

> . . . curriculum is a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational program. Syllabus, on the other hand, refers to that subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught (as distinct from how they will be taught, which is a matter for methodology)(Cited in Nunan, 1988,p. 6).

This definition undoubtedly gives the idea that there are many conflicting definitions of syllabus and that there is sometimes confusion between syllabus and curriculum. Equally important, it indicates that some scholars consider the syllabus to be only the content to be taught; while, other scholars see that the syllabus involves the content to be taught and the way it is going to be taught. The former has been known as the narrow view about syllabus design and the latter as the broad one. One example of the elements which constitute the syllabus (van Ek, 1975, pp. 8-9) was presented by Nunan (1988, p. 7) as follows:

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with;

2. The language activities in which the learner will engage;

3. The language functions which the learner will fulfill;

4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;

5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle;

6. The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle;

7. The language forms which the learner will be able to use;

8. The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

According to Nunan (ibid), some of the above components may go beyond the scope of syllabus design, because seem to be derived from both the narrow and the broad view about syllabus design. He concludes (ibid, p. 12) this point by saying:

> A given syllabus will specify all or some of the following: grammatical structures, functions, notions, topics, themes, situations, activities, and tasks. Each of these elements is either product or process oriented, and the inclusion of each will be justified according to beliefs about the nature of language, the needs of the learner, or the nature of learning

10.3. 1 Main Types of Syllabi

Sabbah (2018, p. 129) mentions that according to Long and Crookes (1992) and Long and Robinson (1998) there are two major types of syllabi: Product-Oriented Syllabi and Process-Oriented Syllabi. The former relies on a selection of graded items to be learned and focuses on the students' knowledge as an ultimate objective (reaching a product); whereas, the latter focuses on the pedagogical processes of the outcomes of both teaching and learning (experiencing things). Thakur (2013) explains that "The grammatical, lexical, situational, and notional-functional are the example of synthetic/product-oriented syllabus…..Procedural, process and task syllabuses are examples of analytic/process-oriented syllabi" (p. 207). Below are a few examples of syllabi as described by Thakur (ibid, pp. 209-212)

* Structural/formal Syllabus: The structural syllabus is, doubtless, the most familiar of syllabus types (Krahnke, 1987). The underlying assumption behind grammatical syllabus is that language is system which consists of a set of grammatical rules; learning language means learning these rules and applying them to practical language use. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to his/her grammar collection….

* The Lexical Syllabus: Wills et al, 1990 pleads that "taking lexis as a starting point enabled us to identify the commonest meanings and patterns in English and to offer students a picture which is typical of the way English is used". The emergence of lexical syllabus was a reaction against traditional structural syllabus. The basic principle on which the syllabus is based is that students must be able to understand and use lexical phrases….

* Situational Syllabus: The situational syllabus appeared as an alternative to the grammatical syllabus. Palmer and Hornby believed that a grammatical or structural syllabus was neither efficient, nor effective for language learning since this model offers language sample outside their social and cultural contexts which makes transfer of learning from the classroom to the real world quite difficult…. It is based on the view that language always occurs in a social context and the teaching of language should not be isolated from its context. With this type of syllabus, the essential component of organization is a non-linguistic category i.e. the situation….

* The Procedural Syllabus: The procedural syllabus is based on a "learning centered" approach to language teaching. The syllabus was proposed by Prabhu (1980) in the 'Bangalore Project' in India. His work is based on the principles that the learning is best carried out when attention is concentrated on meaning. The focus shifts from the linguistic aspect to the pedagogical one focusing learning or the learner….The learners are expected to do is to solve problems and complete their tasks by using English. In due course, it is supposed that the grammatical system of the language will be covered through a meaningful interaction between the teacher and the learners. ……

* The Process Syllabus: The design of this syllabus is based on how learners approach learning. It provides a bridge between content and method. This syllabus is designed for classroom work. It explicitly attends to teaching and learning and particularly the interrelationship between subject matter, learning and the potential contributions of a classroom. It gives the participants opportunity to do these things by themselves and create their own syllabus in the classroom (Breen, 1987).

10.4 Course Design

One of the aspects that ensure quality in education is curriculum or course design. Many models, in fact, have so far been proposed to help teachers to teach better and students to reach the institution's or faculty's goals. A good example of these models which attempts to meet the needs of students and expectations of teachers was put forward by Narcisa (2014). It involves nine (9) steps as follows:

1. Identification of determinant factors for a successful design of a course (learning outcomes, course content and structure, teaching-learning processes and evaluation);

2. Establishing fundamental teaching-learning philosophy (student centered approach and/ teacher centered approach);

3. Establishing course goals and objectives according to general outcomes of the study program (Which are the outputs of the study program? Why should students take this course? What should students be able to do at the end of the course?) ;

4. Establishing content and course sequences (arrangement of the topics/subjects of the course in a natural and logical progression);

5. Developing the evaluation strategy of learning outcomes;

6. Designing the teaching and learning process;

7. Identification of possible configurations of the course;

8. Establishing final configuration;

9. Course evaluation (Criúan, 2012).

Following this aim of designing a syllabus or a curriculum, Diamond (2008, p. 6) calls for keeping in mind the important relationship between **goals, outcomes, and assessment**. This relation is always true and valid, be it in a curriculum, a course, or a unit or element within a course (ibid):

1. The outcome statements that are produced for the curriculum will be the basis on which the primary goals of each course within that curriculum are determined.

2. The outcome statements that are produced at the course level will be the basis on which the primary goals of each unit or element within that course are determined.

3. As you move from the curriculum to the courses within it, and to the individual units or elements within each course, the goal and outcome statements become more specific.

4. The success of your effort will be determined by how well your students meet the criteria for success as defined in the outcome statements at the course and unit or course element level.

What could be noticed and understood from the above remarks is that teachers or experts need to identify goals before they tackle the aspects of content and assessment in curriculum or course design. In addition, these goals are characterized by a gradual move from general to specific, which goes hand in hand with the move from curriculum to course to units and elements. It could also be noticed that all efforts should be jointly made to facilitate effective learning in today's classrooms. This can also be ensured, besides the aforementioned elements, by the choice of the teaching methods. Taylor (n. d, p. 6) stated that:

Essentially the curriculum is an interaction between aims and objectives, methods of assessment, teaching methods and content. With respect to the teaching methods to be incorporated into the programme, it is worth noting that the way in which students are taught affects the student experience. Choice, and varying teaching methods and assessment, may even be of greater significance to what students learn than the content that is being taught.

Another model of course and curriculum design was proposed by Stefani (2009, p. 50). It includes these steps:

1. Consider your general aims for the course/programme.

2. Write specific learning outcomes (objectives): what do you want the students to learn?•Plan the assessment framework to match your objectives.

3. Plan the content, i.e. sequence of topics/readings.

4. Plan the teaching/learning design – what kinds of activities will you and your students engage in together?

5. Compile a list of resources.

6. Write the course outline including readings.

7. Consider evaluation of the course (formative and summative) and how best evaluation can be carried out.

Here, the author insists on the idea that the models of curriculum design described in this way "indicate that assessment strategies should be considered once the intended learning outcomes have been agreed upon and articulated. Designing the curriculum in this manner may be considered to be a 'logical' model of curriculum development as opposed to a chronological model." In the 'logical' model approach, assessment is integrated or included in the students' learning; while, in the 'chronological' approach, assessment is placed at the end; it is a fundamental part of the students' learning.

10.4.1 Elements of Course Design

Felder and Brent (2003) told us that course design requires efforts at three levels. First, course content and learning *objectives* must be identified. Next, the methods of *content* delivery must be selected and implemented. Finally, *assessment* and evaluation methods must be selected and employed to check whether the course objectives have been achieved (p. 8-9). The figure below explains the three levels and shows clearly (as it is) that Felder and Brent model could be an example of both the 'chronological' and the 'logical' approaches to course design.
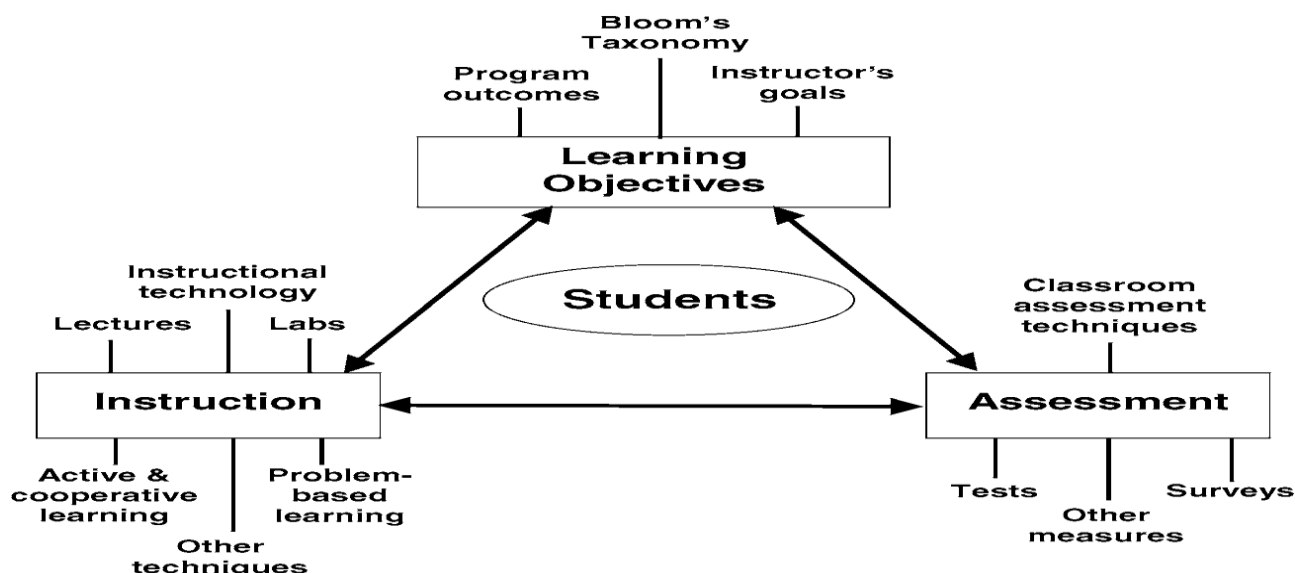
Figure 2: Elements of course design (Felder and Brent, 2003, p. 8)

As it is shown in Figure 2, the sequence or order of the three stages may change. This is due to the fact that information collected in each stage is supposed to feed back to each of the others in a cycle leading to continuous improvement. For instance, if an element of assessment proves to be weak or ineffective, there will be a suggestion to reframe the objective or modify the type of the instruction used. Likewise, if the quality of instruction improves, new objectives may be formulated and the course instruction and assessment may be modified (ibid, p. 9)

In a study entitled *"Designing an EAP Course",* Klimova advocated the idea that English for Academic Purposes (EAP) can play an important role in helping learners to acquire EAP skills. These teachers may start with analyzing their students' needs to select the appropriate content and to decide on the tasks and teaching methods which facilitate for them to achieve the desired goals. This model design of the course is based on several EAP methodological principles and is typically exemplified by Figure 3 (2014, p. 634). This figure gives clear details about the three levels and indicates (as it is) that the model proposed is a good example of the 'chronological' approach to course design.
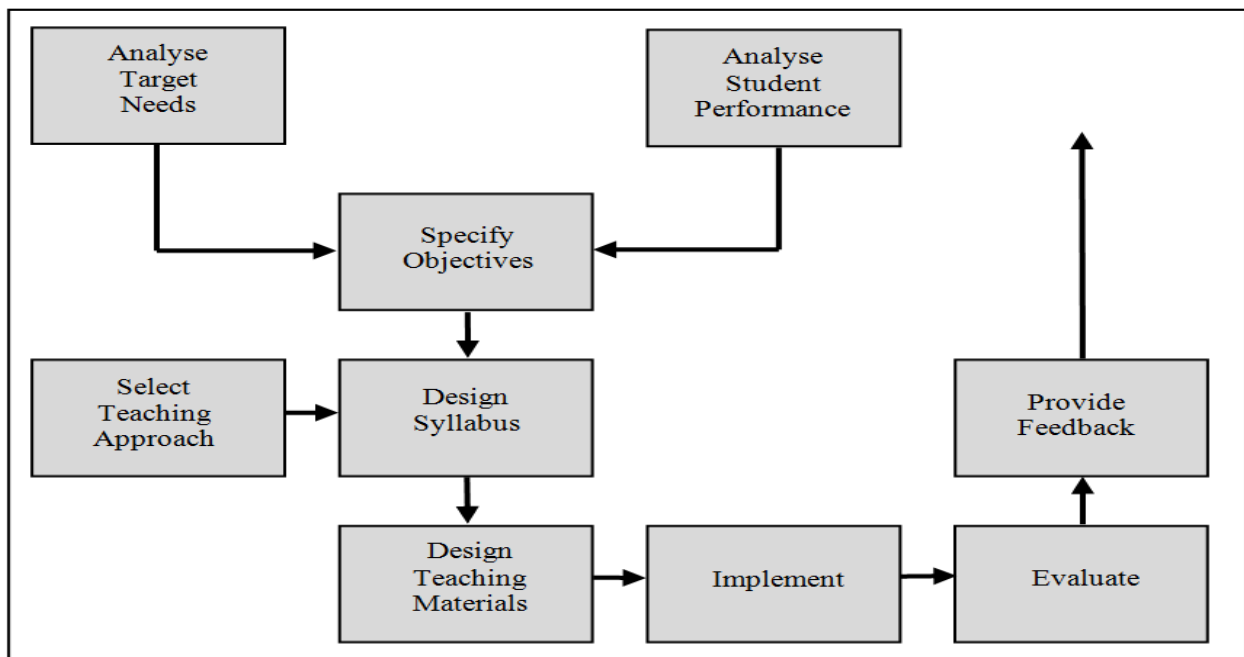
Figure 3: Course Design Model (Klimova, 2014, p. 634)

To help teachers to design this course, the author suggests the procedure below:

1. Conduct needs analysis and set course objectives (data on students' specific needs must be collected);

2. Create syllabus design (a syllabus for an EAP blended writing course is recommended);

3. Develop course materials and tasks (no textbook or workbook are used and the materials and tasks strive to be as authentic as possible);

4. Deliver the course (Blended courses are undoubtedly suitable for the development of writing skills);

5. Set methods of assessment (In writing classes formative and summative assessments are used);

6. Perform the evaluation of the course (ibid, p. 635-636)

Educational Linguistics

11.1 Emergence and History

King (2016) mentions that it was Spolsky who proposed Educational Linguistics in 1972 and introduced it as the subfield of Applied Linguistics which was concerned with the bordering area between formal education and linguistics, and since then the field has been addressing all problems relevant to language education through a combination of theory and practice. On the other hand, Spolsky (2008), in defining Educational Linguistics, maintained that the importance of language education in this age of decolonization and globalization has led to a great interest in training teachers and administrators in all aspects of linguistics that are relevant to education, which in it turn gave rise to this new area of study (p. 1). Hult (ibid, p 10) describes Educational Linguistics as the area that incorporates tools from linguistics and other related disciplines to cater for solutions to problems resulting in the area of language and education, and that "The history of educational linguistics is inextricably linked to applied linguistics, with which it continues to have a symbiotic relationship. At the same time, educational linguistics has developed a unique niche in its directed focus on language and education" (ibid).

11.2 Definitions and Function of Educational Linguistics

Below are some of the definitions of educational linguistics as listed by Andriyani (2016):

1. Hornberger and Spolsky (in Spolsky and Hult 2008) defined educational linguistics as "an area of study that integrates the research tools of linguistics and other related disciplines of the social sciences in order to investigate holistically the broad range of issues related to language and education".

2. Richards and Schmidt (2002) in *Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics* defined educational linguistics as "a term sometimes used to refer to a branch of applied linguistics which deals with the relationship between language and education".

3. Christie and Unsworth stated "educational linguistics is concerned with the study of language in teaching and learning".

From the above definitions, one may say that Educational Linguistics works under the umbrella of AL, endeavouring to address all the issues related to language teaching and learning. Uccelli

and Snow (2008) indicate that the major lines or domains of work that characterize educational linguistics are "using language in classrooms, literacy development, language learning, planning language use in educational settings, and assessing language knowledge"(p. 628). They add (ibid, pp. 628-629) that in the first three domains, it is the classroom teacher who is targeted by Educational Linguistics: he may benefit from insights into whether or not his language use facilitates or hinders students' learning, into understanding the linguistic challenges of texts and classroom discourse, into promoting students' active engagement, and into implementing specific techniques to promote language and literacy development. In the last two domains, however, it is the ministry of education that is meant by Educational Linguistics Outcomes: then ministry or any other local educational authority will strengthen its decisions about choices such as language use, standards imposition, and standards assessment in schools.

11.3 Applied Linguistics or Educational Linguistics?

Some scholars (Bigelow and Ennser-Kananen, 2015) attribute the emergence of Educational Linguistics to two reasons: the recognition of the significance of language-related issues in education and the dissatisfaction with efforts to define Applied Linguistics by Bernard Spolsky in the 1970s. That is, there was a need in the 1970s to put the area which had a major concern to solve problems directly related to the teaching and learning of language in its real position because AL was an overall umbrella which meant many things to many people. There was also a need to make a clear distinction between AL when it assists in designing curricular and devising books for pupils and students, and when it attempts to solve problems and remedy situations in areas which may not have to do with language pedagogy.

Other scholars (Gee, 2003, p. 648) believe that the different theories of language open doors and give rise to perspectives on education problems. Gee (ibid) compares between 'Functional Linguistics' and 'Generativist Linguistics' in terms of how each theory considers the relationship between form and function in language and language acquisition, and whether or not they claim that biology affects the individual's grammar and the acquisition of his/her first language. Gee (ibid) mentions that functional theories argue that there is a close 'fit' between form and function; i.e. the evolution of some forms was due to history and culture, and thus understanding functions paves the way for understanding forms. However, the generativist theories have another stand. They see that there is no close 'connection' between form and function in language; for generativists, first language acquisition is match affected by a biological endowment for language.

The knowledge of how people convey meaning (communicate) through speech or text based on the notion that language is a system of functions may encourage teachers to substitute the teaching of traditional grammar (TG/items in isolation) by functional grammar (FG/items in constituents) in the classroom. "Functional grammar looks at how language works in terms of the functional relationships of its constituent parts, and systems of choice which we make whenever we use language. The term "functional" is used because it describes the approach which sees grammatical categories in terms of their communicative functions" (Feng, 2013, p. 88). Two examples of this new approach are given below (ibid, pp. 87-88):

Example 1

Traditional grammar							
His	good	friend	wrote	this	book	in	America.
Pron.	Adj.	N.	V.	Pron.	N.	Prep.	N.

Functional grammar		
His good friend	wrote this book	in America.
Nominal group	Verbal group	Prepositional group

Example 2

Traditional grammar		
This bridge	was built before	the 19th century.
Subject	Predicator	Adverbial

Functional grammar		
This bridge	was built before	the 19th century.
Theme	Rheme	

Functional grammar		
This bridge	was built before	the 19th century.
Goal	Process	Circumstance

Also, the knowledge of how children acquire their first language could be implemented in the classroom. Despite its weaknesses which result from the assumption that language acquisition is a matter of a language acquisition device (LAD) and that external factors are not the main sources of linguistic knowledge, " the generative approach to learning has proposed solutions for the logical problem of language acquisition……It has inspired cross-linguistic studies on syntax, morphology, phonology and the lexicon, language processing, L2-acquisition, a-typical language developmental, creoles, and language change" (Eisenbeiss, 2009, p. 302), which means language teachers may select for students different types of input such as activities on syntax (especially language rules) which trigger the LAD and invite students to produce language.

Another group of scholars and researchers have had a plain vision of the relationship between linguistics and English language teaching. They believe that many partners, especially teachers and syllabus designers have benefited from a great deal of information from the field of linguistics, which in its turn helped them to acquire methods, techniques, and approaches in order to improve English language teaching both as a second language foreign language. The teachers' Knowledge of linguistics can help them to understand deeply and handle firmly the English language rules in the course of using various teaching-learning strategies (Khansir and Pakdel, 2016, p. 382). Therefore, one may say that linguistics plays a fundamental role in both studying and teaching language, the result which may shed some light on the task of Educational Linguistics.

11.4 Educational Linguistics and other Fields

11.4.1 Educational Linguistics and Forensic Linguistics

One important area in which educational linguistics overlaps with other fields is the close interaction between linguists and lawyers which has resulted from the increasing demand for introducing programs and courses to teach language. Udina (2017) indicates that:

> Foreign language educators at law schools, designing LSP courses take into account language and law relationship. The interdisciplinary approach to learning provide more effective way of language studies, acquainting students with real problems of legal language development and communication in professional setting. The practical application of legal linguistics gave an opportunity to use this rich and exciting material in the e-textbook which has been used in teaching LSP to law-students (p.1337).

Udina (ibid, p. 1338) explains that lawyers consider language to be the main tool and art of their profession. Lawyers need to understand contributes to "law drafting, court procedures, legal expertise, police investigation, lawyer and client communication, law interpretation and comprehension by specialists and public in general".

11.4.2 Educational Linguistics and Discourse Analysis

In an article entitled "*Bringing discourse analysis into the language classroom*", Cots (1996) argued that bringing discourse analysis into the language classroom would be of great advantage, for it describes and explains how language is really used. The author tried to aid learners to consider the concept of discourse and communication through three premises. The problem, in this sense, did not refer to the absence of the communicative approach in the classroom, but to the fact that most of language teachers were still influenced by the structural approach, which favoured the study of language as an independent system of rules, not as a means of communication (pp. 77-78). The premises proposed by the author lied in the three components of his discourse view of language use: communicative competence; context, language variation and real data; and negotiation of intentions and interpretation. For him, " If a teacher wants to adopt a discourse point of view in teaching a language he/she must make an effort to modify some of his/her premises about language, and this will necessarily have an influence on the design of the syllabus and on the methodology employed"(ibid, p. 80). In addition, the author introduced the concepts of speech act (utterance in terms of its function/meaning), turn taking (signals and rules between participants which ensure coordinated performance), Topic management (signals used by the speakers to manage communicative event), and Communicative event (a particular instance of communication) which would allow teachers to describe discourse and explain it to the learners. The author Finalized the study by presenting three issues that need to be taken into account by teachers "when designing a teaching syllabus based on a discourse approach to language: segmentation, sequencing and selection and presentation of discourse" (p. 55-99).

The above study/article revealed another important area where educational linguistics has a role to play. This area is meant to indicate that teachers should learn how to help their students to become efficient and effective participants in real communicative situations by making them acquire knowledge and skills that go beyond the structures of language; i.e. knowledge of language which integrates social, cognitive and linguistic components.

11.4.3 Educational Linguistics and Corpora Linguistics

The history of corpus linguistics and language teaching dates back to the late eighties and early nineties. Higgins and Johns (1984), Higgins (1988), Johns (1988, 1991), among others, are examples of early work in this area where much focus was laid down on English. Moreover, what has so far characterized work in this area is the considerable application of corpus-based approaches at the university level at the expense of primary and secondary schools, especially in the field of languages for specific purposes (LSP)(Flowerdew, 2009). On this same idea, Pérez-Paredes (2010) stated that "…Even when research confirms the usefulness of language corpora in the classroom, it should be said that most of the subjects taking part in such innovative experiences are adult university language learners with a wide array of analytical skills at their disposal" (p. 3). Flowerdew (ibid, pp. 328-329) points out that the most important principles of corpus linguistics that are applicable to language teaching are as follows:

1. A corpus is a large database of language.

2. The linguistic content of corpora is different from what is experienced by individuals in real life, many of them consisting largely of written language.

3. In real life some texts will hold more value and be experienced more times than others (poetry and religious texts, for example, might be highly valued and heard or read many times).

4. The power of the corpus approach lies in the combination of frequency data regarding all the words in a corpus and the verbal environment in which these words occur.

5. Corpus techniques have created new knowledge about the behaviour of lexis, grammar, semantics, pragmatics, and textual features.

6. Because corpus linguistics is based on the theory that language varies according to context – across space and time – the potential for finding out new facts about language is infinite.

Based on the principles above, and more specifically the last three, one may conclude that a corpus can provide the classroom language teacher with various types of information .It can provide him with information about words, phrases, grammatical patterns, and so on. "Knowledge of these features and their relative frequencies can be helpful to language practitioners in deciding what items to teach and when to teach them, as well as, importantly, providing input for reference materials" (ibid, p. 330).

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11.4.4 Educational Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

According to Al-Anisi (2013), the study of second language acquisition and the discipline of language teaching are two separate fields. But, there are implications that should be highlighted: Krashen's Input Hypothesis and Long's hypothesis. The former has brought to light that comprehensible and enough input assists in developing the speaking skill and grammar in the L2. The latter emphasizes the idea that classroom tasks, which can be selected and manipulated, will maximize the opportunities for learners to produce language. On the other hand, the acculturation approach calls for turning classrooms into a socio-cultural setting to increase students' active participation in the target language. Besides this, the interaction hypothesis invites teachers to employ as many interactive activities as possible in the classroom to target all learning styles (pp. 179-180).

Research in the Field of Applied Linguistics

12.1 Core Features

In terms of research, applied linguistics is regarded as a very new field, emerging only in the second half of the twentieth century, and being indentified by common terms such as language, linguistics, language learning, real-world language use, and language in social contexts. Applied linguistics is an umbrella term of several sub-disciplines which include first and second language acquisition/learning, language teaching and education, and language assessment, each of which uses various methods and addresses different research problems (Phakiti, A, De Costa, P, Plonsky, L and Starfield, S, 2018, p. 6). In this vein of light, Al Alami, (2015, p. 1330) maintains that there are five main characteristics of research within applied linguistics. These are empirical (AL highlights accuracy in its investigations), Logical (AL methods reflect logic and credibility), Reductive (AL procedures rely on manageable data), Planned (AL researchers use plans), and imaginative (AL researchers possess powerful imagination).

Also, in terms of research type, applied linguistics researchers may have three choices: they may use quantitative research, qualitative research, or use both (mixed methods research), depending on what they need to collect as data. This could be further explained by the fact that applied linguistics research is language analysis where SLA researchers are, for instance, interested in learners' language errors, or in examining the contexts of language use such as the use of differing degrees of language by immigrant women in their communication with co-workers and so forth (Croker, 2009, pp. 4-5).

12.2 Second Language Acquisition Research

The SLA field overlaps with other disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, sociology, and education though it has always been associated with applied linguistics, or the area whose major focus is to solve practical problems in language teaching, drawing on linguistic theories. The internal relationship between SLA and AL has become richer and more elaborate due to the expansion of each field throughout the years (Pica, 2005). In fact, since its very beginning, SLA research has employed various methods from "general linguistics, psychology, education, sociology, anthropology and, recently, neuroscience and corpus linguistics" (Mackey, 2014, p. 80);

SLA research has been pushing its methodology boundaries because the questions and objectives have expanded to gain a deeper understanding of second language learning (ibid).

Klein (1998) sees that SLA research has recently considerably progressed, but it has not yet produced a theory of its own or a foundation for foreign language teaching. In addition, it has gained independence of linguistic disciplines, which could directly be attributed to the field's perspective on the acquisition process; SLA research focuses more on learners' utterances as deviations from norms, not as manifestations which need to be examined as they are. SLA research, in this sense, seems to be more prescriptive than descriptive in its approach to L2 learning (p. 527).

Because second language acquisition (SLA), studies the learning process of any language other than a person's first language (be it a second, a third, or even a forth /subsequent language), with the idea that acquisition may mean learning, approaches and theories in the field included, among others, Contrastive Linguistics Hypothesis, Error Analysis, Inter-language Theory, Monitor Theory, Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), Universal Grammar and Minimalist Program, Corpus Linguistics, and Cognitive Approach (Chen, 2018, p. 1). Chen (ibid, pp. 2-3) explains that:

Corder (1967) proposes that Error Analysis is a more direct and effective method to study SLA processes. She distinguishes accidental and random errors from those generated by learners at different learning stages. A systematic analysis of learner errors points out at what stage the learner has reached in learning a second language and provides researchers with evidence of how language is learned.

Selinker (1972) puts forward Interlanguage Theory that looks at the learner's language as a relatively independent language system based on Contrastive Linguistics and Error Analysis. Interlanguage refers to the language produced by learners before they reach near-native or native-like fluency in the target language. Selinker uses five processes to describe the causes of Interlanguage: language transfer, transfer caused by training, the generalization of target language rules, learning strategies, and communication strategies.

In the 1980s (McEnery and Wilson, 2001), the field of SLA saw the development of Krashen's Monitor Theory, which includes 5 hypotheses:

1. Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis. It proposes that "adults have two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language" (p.65). Acquisition refers to the subconscious way, while learning is the conscious way.

2. Natural Order Hypothesis. It claims that if learners learn a second language through natural means, their learning order will show a high degree of predictability.

3. Monitor Hypothesis. It states that monitoring or editing is the only purpose for our conscious to learn the rules of a language.

4. Input Hypothesis. In contrast to error analysis, this hypothesis claims that comprehensible input is the most important factor for learners to acquire a second language.

5. Affective Filter Hypothesis. It states that in addition to comprehensible input, the acquisition of a language depends on the learner's emotions, needs, attitude, and motivations for second language learning.

Corpus Linguistics, an interdisciplinary field, has attracted a great deal of attention since the 1980s (McEnery and Wilson, 2001). It studies the collection, storage, processing and statistical analysis of natural language texts in order to engage in linguistic research with objective and informative linguistic evidence provided by large-scale corpora. According to Chen (2016), there are 5 major research streams of corpus linguistic studies in SLA (i.e., lexical acquisition, language acquisition, cognitive studies, vocabulary teaching and learning, and corpora) in the classroom.

Modern SLA research has turned to cognitive approaches, and the most important model in respective a cognitive approach is Ellis's (Ellis, 1997) computational model (VanPatten, 2015). According to Ellis, the learning process starts with a first stage where certain features of the language are deposited in the learner's short-term memory through input (ibid). In the next stage, some of the deposits are converted into second-language knowledge and stored in the learner's long-term memory. In the third stage, the learner uses the second language knowledge to produce output.

In addition, there are linguistic and sociocultural approaches to SLA (i.e., Chomsky's (Chomsky, 1986) Universal Grammar (UG) and Vygotsky's (Vygotsky, 1978) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (ibid). The central idea of UG is that the human brain has a congenitally specific structure or attribute, that is, a language acquisition mechanism, which is the internal reason why humans learn to use language (Chomsky, 1986). Within UG, a major mode of inquiry has developed into the Minimalist Program, basically, a conceptual framework that guides the inquiry of linguistic theory (ibid). On the other hand, ZPD is regarded as a unique sociocultural approach to SLA studies. It suggests that learners who interact with more advanced target language users will learn the language more efficiently than those who learn the language independently (Vygotsky, 1978).

12.3 Determinants of Academic Performance of University Students

Talib and Sansgiry (2012) conducted a study on a sample of 199 undergraduate and graduate university students from Rawalpindi and Islamabad to check if factors such as academic

competence, test competence, time management, strategic studying, and test anxiety were influential in determining students' academic performance. The results indicated that all those factors were dominant determinants of the students' performance and that test competence, academic competence, and test anxiety were the major ones. In other words, students needed firm strategies to be prepared for academic life, to study for exams, and to reduce test anxiety in order to be high university achievers.

Tiruneh and Petros (2014) conducted a study which aimed at assessing the major factors affecting female students' academic performance in Bahir Dar University, Ethiopia. In this case study, qualitative and quantitative data were collected from various sources: students, teachers, management bodies, and so on. The results indicated that factors such as university rules and regulations, peer pressure, lack of female teachers, among others, impact female students' academic performance. Moreover, socio-cultural factors such as female students' background area, educational status of parents, attitudes towards their academic performance are other significant factors influencing the academic achievement of female students. Furthermore, the economic status of parents, drug shops, tourist centers, and night clubs around the university also affect female students' academic performance. Based on these factors, the authors suggest that the government, ministry of education, and the university should give due attention to improve female students academic achievement.

Dukmak and Ishtaiwa (2015) carried out an investigation into the factors that impact students' accomplishment in the preparatory and secondary education in the United Arab Emirates. The study took into consideration child and family socio-demographic characteristics, students' beliefs about their learning, parents' support of children's learning, peer attitudes towards leaning, teacher-students' interaction and curriculum content, with a sample of seventy four students. The results revealed that students' age and parents' education were significantly related to students' achievement. Moreover, the study showed that high achievers, among the other students of the sample, were those who enjoy self-satisfaction and receive parental and teacher support in their learning.

Inegbedion and Eze (2015) examined the extent to which international students from different countries were satisfied with their academic performance. The study aimed primarily to gain an insight into the students' learning experience by exploring the factors that affect their academic performance. Qualitative data were collected from a sample of ten participants. The findings showed that International students studying in the United Kingdom encounter many challenges such as the foreign language, motivation, performance, satisfaction with the academic

environment, adjustment to foreign teaching methodology, pressure from performance expectations, student teacher relationship, study skills, and Culture which tend to hinder their academic performance.

Singh, Malik, and Singh (2016) attempted to investigate the factors influencing the management students' academic performance. Data, in this study, were collected by means of an instrument measuring students' performance. The findings revealed that students' academic performance was highly influenced by learning facilities, communication skills and proper guidance from parents. The authors recommended that the performance of the management students can be improved by providing them with appropriate learning facilities, by guiding them in the classroom (the teacher) and at home (the parents).

Junio and Liwag's (2016) study had as a major objective the identification and examination of the factors affecting students' performance in their physical education class at Lyceum of the Philippines University –Laguna. The factors discussed in this research are socio-economic, aptitude of students', learning facilities and teacher characteristics. The results that the four factors positively affect students' performance. The results also indicated that first year students had a higher expectation of their PE teacher compared to second year students.

In a study which aimed to identify the relationship between factors related to student's background and family background and the academic performance of undergraduate students at Arba Minch University campus students, Yigermal (2017) found, as major result, that there is a solid relationship between gender difference, university entrance exam, studying hours and academic performance. The findings also indicated the existence of an important relationship between students' former academic background, studying hours, and student's taking of alcoholic drug and their academic performance. Therefore, the author recommended that emphasis should be put on female students' performance before they move to university, and that students should be supported to end the use of drug to improve their academic performance.

A deep scrutiny in the aforementioned factors of the studies above will indicate that the categories of factors affecting students' academic performance are environmental (university), psychological (student), and socio-economic (home) respectively. It seems that the new students' milieu or university is significantly influential both in the students' behaviour and academic performance, especially if it lacks learning facilities, qualified teachers, and vigilant control on drugs. In the second position is the student himself; if the student comes to university with no or little knowledge of study skills, time management, and learning strategies; i.e. if he/she is not prepared to cope with the rigors of academic life, he/she simply fails to achieve good learning. As

for the socio-cultural background of the student and his/her beliefs about learning and success, regardless of his/her parents economic status, will certainly, in a way or another, affect his/her performance.

12.4 English Language Teaching (ELT) and Culture

The relationship between language and culture in the field of applied linguistics as an important factor affecting positively English language teaching (ELT) emerged only in the late 1990s. It, in fact, coincided with advances in SLA research (Kramsh and Hua, 2016). Since then, English language teachers have started to consider the importance of this component.

Though it has become known that the culture element should be included in the teaching and learning of language, still there is much emphasis on the four skills: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. This practice may refer to the teachers' previous learning experience, their training process, and the various occasions they have come into contact with the target language culture. But, above all, the main difficulty lies in their unawareness of the meaning of culture and how it must be included in the curriculum (Kovács, 2017, pp. 73-74).

Kuo and Lai (2006) called for the incorporation of culture as an essential component of second language learning and teaching; they affirmed that second language learners could not succeed in language learning unless cultural issues became part and parcel of the curriculum and classroom instruction. They, therefore, advised teachers to pay due attention to the element of culture when they design a curriculum and apply teaching strategies. In addition, they proposed the following six strategies for teachers to teach culture (ibid, pp.6-8):

* **Provide Culturally Learning Materials** (Use of appropriate materials can help students engage in real cultural experiences. Teachers can use films, news broadcasts, television shows, Web sites, magazines, newspapers…).

* **Using Common Proverbs as Transferred Tool** (A discussion of common proverbs in the target language can help students to understand how the proverbs are different from or similar to proverbs in their mother tongues).

* **Apply the Role Play as Socio-cultural Approach** (Role play is also a useful instructional technique in a sociocultural approach. The major objective of a sociocultural approach is to prepare learners for intercultural communication and dialogue between cultures).

* **Encourage Students Search and Present through the Culture Capsules** (The use of culture capsules is one of the best–established and best–known methods for teaching culture. It is a brief description of some aspects of the target language culture alongside contrasting information from the students' native language cultures).

* View Students as Cultural Resources (Currently, second language classrooms are more culturally and ethnically diverse than they have ever been. Teachers can utilize the resources this provides. Teachers can invite exchange students, immigrant students, or international students into the classroom as expert sources to present aspects of their own cultures).

* Use Computer Technology to Help Student Gain Cultural Information (A computer and its attached language learning programs can provide second language learners with more independence in the classrooms and allow learners the option of working on their learning materials at any time of the day).

Teacher- Student Interaction and Classroom Discourse

13.1 A Preliminary Conception

Participation in the classroom is a required behaviour because it helps students to understand the lecture's material and decreases their reluctance to speak. But, students' in-class participation may be impeded by such factors as the teachers' behaviour or students' personality traits. In a study conducted by Ganji and Dabbaghi (2014) on this issue at the tertiary level, the findings revealed that the students' fear of making mistakes in front of their classmates and the tense classroom atmosphere were the most crucial obstacles. It was, therefore, suggested that teachers, especially those who stress classroom participation and consider it to be an activity on its own should implement more practical methods and strategies in order to motivate their students to interact with each and one another, creating an effective classroom discourse. This is only because

> Every classroom is an institutional context, and language classrooms are
>
> not exceptions. The participants come together to achieve the desired
>
> goals of learning and teaching. Thus, classroom discourse is a form of
>
> institutional talk and therefore has some certain characteristics. The
>
> turn taking system in the classrooms is mostly teacher-fronted, highly
>
> constrained, and the relationship between teachers and learners is
>
> asymmetrical (ibid, p. 38)

Rezaee and Farahian (2012) see that there are two types of interaction in the classroom: interaction between the teacher and students and interaction among students, but they emphasize the former "since there is a teacher who initiates by asking questions and there are students who answer" (p. 1237). According to Yanfen and Yuqin (2010, p. 76), in this type of interaction there is "The exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas, between two or more people in a cooperative manner. Through interaction with the teacher, students can increase their language store and so, improve their knowledge of language as much as possible" (Cited in Rezaee and Farahian, 2012, pp. 1237-1238).

13.2 Fostering Interaction in EFL Classrooms

Al-Zahrani and Al-Bargi (2017) claim that classroom interaction does not only involve far the students' capacity to speak and express themselves, but it also covers other types and instances

of classroom participation such as teacher-student, student-student, and group discussions. Among other advantages, classroom interaction helps students to engage socially outside of the classroom and facilitates for teachers the task of measuring student progress (p. 136). To foster classroom interaction, Al-Zahrani and Al-Bargi (ibid, p. 138) proposed the following strategies:

* Encourage students to negotiate meaning when they do not understand what is required of them. Negotiation of meaning is a central aspect of classroom interaction, where learners actively involve themselves in interaction. Negotiation of meaning is defined as the verbal exchanges that occur when speakers seek to prevent the breakdown of communication (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

* The use of scaffolding. Scaffolding is an instructional technique in which the teacher models the desired learning outcome or task, and then gradually shifts responsibility to the students. Teachers can use reformulation, extension or modeling to increase students' interaction and encourage their output.

* Feedback can also be used to promote classroom interaction (Mackey, 2007). It can be written or verbal to indicate approval or disapproval of students' responses. Feedback can be used to encourage or criticize student output performance. Feedback supports learning and allows students to produce additional language during the process.

Taking into account the belief that there are various strategies to promote language teaching and, at the same time, consider effectively course or lesson objectives, Reyes-Chua and Lidawan (2019) state that "Teachers should conceptualize an instruction that can connect learners into their real world. It is believed that through the use of games, favorable outcomes on students' language performances may be generated" (p.112). Reyes-Chua and Lidawan (ibid) argue that "Games are useful in language teaching when they are manipulated pedagogically. Nowadays, teachers need to change and adapt to the new learning environment. Students need new and different pedagogical immersions in order to learn and through the aid of games, students can understand the lessons easily and interestingly" (p. 114).

In addition, in a classroom setting there are roles to be played by the teacher and students. Teachers ask questions (act) and students answer the questions (react); teachers' questions are very important tools for classroom interaction. Ononye (2015) explains that "The context of classroom interaction requires that teachers introduce or present information in conventionally structured ways, while learners respond or react to the information, especially when invited to do so. This is largely achieved through one important aspect of classroom interaction, namely, teachers' questions" (p. 370).

13.3 Classroom Discourse

Based on both classroom interaction types, as it was mentioned earlier, alongside the classroom tasks and activities, the language used by teachers and students "refers to the oral and written discourse norms, expectations, and strategies that members establish …., the language of the classroom is a group of constructed phenomena, a negotiated system of meaning, and a set of conventions for interacting, participating and communicating information and knowledge within a particular classroom" (Behnam and Pouriran, 2009, p. 118). Differently stated,

> Classroom Discourse is a special type of discourse that occurs in classrooms. Special features of classroom discourse include: unequal power relationships, turn-taking at speaking, patterns of interaction, etc. Classroom discourse is often different in form and function from language used in other situations because of particular social roles which learners and teachers have in classrooms and the kind of activities they usually carry out there.

Knowledge of classroom discourse and its distinctive features, its functions and forms for the different pedagogic activities and situations, will certainly enable teachers and students to overcome several difficulties. It will urge and motivate learners to use the language and participate in conversations inside and outside the class. According to Mehan (1979), a pedagogic discourse includes three structural components: an opening phase which aims to prepare the students for learning a lesson, an instructional phase which consists in the exchange of information between the teacher and students, and a closing phase where the teacher reminds students of the major points of a lesson (Cited in Rezaie and Lashkarian, 2015, pp. 449-450). However, the type of students' and teachers' discourse, its patterns, its strategies, students' and teacher's roles, and several other relevant elements are dependable on the setting in which they are developed and practiced. " Therefore, the differences exist in various contexts; the important point is that teachers should make their students aware of these differences, and enhance their awareness of how discourse works to make teaching-learning experience more effective and involve the students in real life communication"(ibid, p. 455).

13.4 Fostering Discourse in EFL Classrooms

Özer and Okran (2018) conducted a study which aimed at determining discourse markers used by Turkish and native teachers in EFL classrooms, especially in terms of their varieties and frequency. The researchers used corpora which were collected through audio-recordings from two Turkish and two native EFL teachers' lectures. The research results indicated that there is a

significant difference in number and type between Turkish teachers' use (27 types) and native teachers' use (37 types) of discourse markers. It was also noticed that Turkish teachers use only a small number of discourse markers compared to native teachers. Based on these findings, the authors suggested the following:

* Pre-service teachers can be informed about the implementation of corpus-based activities in their language classrooms since corpus-based activities introduce the language learners with the ways of analyzing real language data.

* The involvement of discourse markers (DMs) in the syllabuses of foreign language teaching curriculums

*The current study suggests implications for material development in the field of foreign language teaching. Discourse markers seem to be the neglected aspects of language in most language teaching materials. Since language teaching materials are expected to represent samples of authentic language, it is important that they include instances of DMs which are natural elements of language.

As a response to the increasing demand for teaching communicative English in Bangladesh and an attempt to investigate the factors causing students' failure to develop an acceptable level of English speaking proficiency, Choudhury (2006) carried out a study to examine the state of communicative language teaching in Bangladesh universities and spot light on the need for teachers' training. The study also reconsidered a survey conducted with students from Brac University to identify the problems hindering their ESL speaking abilities (p. 85). In the light of the findings and the theories of communicative competence explored beforehand, the researcher recommended the following:

* Oral communicative abilities can only be formed when students learn English in English, and this can be adopted to a great extent by Communicative Language Teaching with an emphasis on grammar.

* Teaching grammar can be considered to be one of the aspects of communication and teachers need to focus on the acquisition of structures and accuracy.

* Students should be provided with opportunities to develop both their fluency and accuracy.

* We must provide students with fluency building practice and make them realize that making mistakes is a part of learning the target language.

* We need to focus on the fact that doing error correction recurrently amplifies the anxiety level of students and discourages them from communication.

Fisher and Frey (2014) believe that students not only need to talk, but they love to do so. However, what is required here; i.e. in classroom discourse, is some balance between the teacher's and students' responsibility for discussions. Namely, students' discussions with their classmates and their exchange of ideas and questions about various issues are the best ways to promote interaction. Equally important, they emphasize that only skilled teachers will make students attain deeper understanding, increased engagement, and significant satisfaction with schooling.

Translanguaging: A New Pedagogy in EFL classrooms

14.1 Definitions and Perceptions

Lewis, Jones and Baker (2012) mentioned that "Translanguaging" is a new Welsh term that was first created and used in the 1980s by Cen Williams in the field of education, and that it refers to the use of two languages in terms of function to facilitate understanding, speaking, literacy, and learning. In addition, the main concern of translanguaging is communication and language production. According to Williams (2002), in this same line of uncovering its origin, "The term *translanguaging* is a relatively recent one used in line with code-switching in the literature. Translanguaging is similar to code-switching in that it refers to multilingual speakers' shuttling between languages in a natural manner. However, it started as a pedagogical practice, where the language mode of input and output in Welsh bilingual classrooms was deliberately switched" (Cited in Park, 2013, p. 50).

14.2 Translanguaging vs. Code-switching

Nikula and Moore (2019)uphold that when it was coined in the 1980s by Williams, the term "*trawsieithu"* or translanguaging (today) was meant to indicate a teaching /learning strategy that is based on intentional switch from English into Welsh and vice versa (exchange of input and output). This strategy aims at promoting the learners' bilingual linguistic competences. Nikula and Moore (ibid) employ Baker's (2000, pp. 104-105) to fully explain this point as follows:

> It is possible in a monolingual context, for students to answer questions or write an essay without fully understanding the subject. Whole sentences or paragraphs can be copied or adapted from a textbook without really understanding them. This is less easy in a bilingual situation. To read and discuss a topic in one language, and then to write about it in another, means that the subject matter has to be properly 'digested' and reconstructed.

Vogel, Hoadley, Ascenzi-Moreno, and Menken (2019) explain "in a single interaction, people may use words from multiple languages, gestures, and even emoji and other resources from the environment and technology to make meaning". Prada and Turnbull (2018) illustrate "learners could read a text in Welsh and discuss it in English or listen to a passage in English and write about it in Welsh" (p. 13).

Code-switching (CS), however, "refers to the mixing, by bilinguals (or multilinguals), of two or more languages in discourse, often with no change of interlocutor or topic. Such mixing may take place at any level of linguistic structure, but its occurrence within the confines of a single sentence, constituent, or even word, has attracted most linguistic attention" (Poplack, 2001, p. 2062). Al Heeti and Al Abdely (2016) observe that "CS is used when the speakers of certain communities have more than one language to communicate with. They use these languages periodically for many reasons which make them shift from their first language to other languages available" (p. 10).

The main difference between Translanguaging and Code-switching, based on the above quotations, is that in Translanguaging bilinguals or multilinguals seek to understand topic in a language (input) by using another; the ultimate aim of translanguaging as a pedagogic strategy is to improve the the learners' linguistic competence in both languages. In contrast, Code-switching bilinguals or multilinguals substitute a sentence, a constituent, or even a word in one language with its equivalent in another language; the role of Code-switching is more social than pedagogical. To understand the social role of CS, one should observe, discover and record the social conventions as they are used in everyday situations. This effort requires identifying the speech community in question and characterizing its social structure in terms of language knowledge and language use. In addition, samples of discourse including CS must be obtained to detect recurrent patterns of speech behaviour so as to have a clear image of the community profile, or "social meaning" of CS (Poplack, 2004, p. 592).

14.3 Translanguaging and Pedagogy

At the very beginning of its emergence, Translanguaging was confined only to the context of Welsh-English bilingual education. "It refers to a pedagogical practice that alternates the use of Welsh and English for input and output in the same lesson. The idea is to get information in one language and to work with that information in the other language. It is important to consider that translanguaging has its origin in a context of bilingual education that aims at developing balanced bilingualism both in Welsh and English" (Cenoz and Gorter, 2017, p. 311). But,"Nowadays translanguaging refers to a linguistic practice with sociolinguistic implications as well as an innovative approach to teaching" (Facciani, 2019, p. 1).

Cartens (2016) indicates that from the 1990s onward, translanguaging in education has gone beyond the traditional association of Welsh and English and gained international popularity. This is due to an emerging conception of Bilingualism/multilingualism as an advantageous trend where translanguaging assists learners in developing different linguistic features in the languages which

they know in order to ease the teaching learning process. Sayer (2013) considers translanguaging to be a label which describes discursive bilingual practices used by students and teachers for both academic and non-academic purposes (Cited in Rivera and Mazak, 2017, p. 124), and the integration of translanguaging practices, according to García and Sylvan (2011), has been recommended as a way to advance instruction (ibid). To illustrate some of what research has identified as translanguaging practices, Karlsson, Larsson, and Jakobsson (2018) indicate that:

> some studies (García, 2011; García & Wei, 2014) found that children who enter school, at five to six years of age, use all semiotic resources to mediate understanding among each other and to co-construct meaning of what others are saying. In another study, García and Kano (2014) found that students who were beginners in a new language naturally tend to use different resources as a support for expanding their opportunities for understanding. Further, Baker (2011) addresses the advantages and the potential of a translanguaging practice as, for example, a tool for deeper and fuller understanding of the subject content, and a faster development of a subject-related language (p. 5).

In a similar vein, Baker (2011, pp. 281-282) identified four benefits of translanguaging as follows:

* It may promote a deeper and fuller understanding of content

* It may help students to develop skills in their weaker language

* It may facilitate home-school cooperation

* It can develop learners' second language ability concurrently with content learning (Cited in Yuvayapan, 2019, p. 680).

He asserts that teachers can solve any problems arising where this pedagogy is implemented if they plan their lessons based on the use of two languages in the classroom. That is, they should utilize variegated situations (in both languages) in the class to give to their students the opportunity to develop their cognitive abilities (ibid).

14.4 What Skills could be taught through Translanguaging?

Hungwe (2019) conducted a study in which paraphrasing as a strategy was combined with a translingual approach to enhance students' reading and understanding of texts. The main impulse for carrying out this study was that the large number of studies which aimed at finding solutions to help students at the tertiary level to comprehend texts did not really cater for practical strategies. The findings revealed how translanguaging can be used as a scaffolding approach to help lecturers

to enhance their instruction in reading classes. The findings also indicated that translanguaging can be used jointly with other strategies such as paraphrasing to create in learners reading metacognitive strategies.

Other studies on the utility of translanguaging in describing vacademic content in different courses and contexts at the university level were described by Caruso (2018) as follows:

> Adamson and Fujimoto-Adamson (2012) studied how the use of translanguaging at a self-access language centre in a Japanese university has changed the students' language learning; Andersson et al. (2013) and Kagwesage (2013) analysed the use of translanguaging in work teams at the University of Rwanda; Madiba (2013) explored the use of translanguaging in an online glossary tool used by students at a South-African University; Mazak and Herbas-Donoso (2014, 2015) focused on the study of translingual practices in science courses at a Puerto Rican University; Kyppö et al. (2015) analysed a university course at a Finnish University designed to develop the multilingual and multicultural competence of the students, including the use of translanguaging; and then there is the recent Mazak and Carroll (2017) which presents studies on translanguaging in various higher education institutions around the world, claiming to fill a gap in research studies (pp.68-69)

Another study conducted by Kabir (2019) tried to outline the confused association of translation and L1 through a review of different language teaching methods and approaches, their place in bilingual settings, and their current role in translanguaging literature. The study claimed that translation and L1 can be used through translanguaging practices that call for reviewing the existing approaches and methods of language teaching based on a more flexible view of language. The core reason behind conducting this study was the increasing demand, by many ELT practitioners in Bangladesh, for the use of translation and L1 in language teaching. In the conclusion, the author suggested that all traditions relevant to curriculum innovation, materials production, and teaching and learning in Bangladesh should be reconsidered from a translanguaging perspective in order to expand the scope of successful and effective language education. In other words, some space should be left for the use of the mother tongue in bilingual classrooms because of certain tasks and activities' requirements. For example, in this study, " … translation does not mean conversion or transfer of meaning from one language to another, but from the language users' existing dynamic linguistic repertoire consisting of different linguistic

features, to the targeted set(s) of linguistic feature(s), required by other users e.g., academia, corporate, community etc" (ibid, p. 42).

14.5 Bilingual Education: A difficult shift

Bilingualism, or the combination of two independent languages in language pedagogy, has been opposed for a long time in the Western Context. Monolinguals have always thought that bi/multilingualism which refers to the alternation between two or more languages was an ineffective strategy; it was refused as an approach to bilingual education until the second half of the 20th century. This referred to the belief that a safe acquisition of a new language would result from separating the two languages; i.e. the first language and the additional one (Hassan and Ahmed, 2015, p. 25). In this same line of difficult development, Garcia (2009, p. 303) argued that teachers and students in bilingual classrooms equally suffer from monolingual beliefs and practices, and thus fail to apply translanguaging. Garcia (ibid) stated that:

> Too often bilingual students who translanguage suffer linguistic shame because they have been burdened with monoglossic ideologies that value only monolingualism. . . . And too often bilingual teachers hide their natural translanguaging practices from administrators and others because they have been taught to believe that only monolingual ways of speaking are "good" and "valuable". Yet, they know that to teach effectively in bilingual classrooms, they must translanguage (Cited in Zein, 2018, p. 37).

In addition, Mwinda and Walt (2015) pointed out that translanguaging (or rather bilingualism) was problematic in the past. The aim was to develop native-like competency in both languages in learners; based on this ultimate goal, there must be a separation of the two languages which can be in terms of time, classroom, teacher, and so on. But, recently it has been shown that both languages can be kept active when one of them is used by bilinguals; i.e. the two languages are not used separately.

Ultimate Attainment in Second Language Acquisition

15.1 Revisiting Old Beliefs

Birdsong (1992), in a paper entitled "*Ultimate Attainment in Second Language Acquisition*", asserted that there are exceptions to the assumption that native competence in language cannot be achieved by learners after puberty (post-pubertal learners). Dwaik and Shehadeh (2015) maintain that, for many decades, there has been no clear consensus about the "best" age to start learning a foreign language; i.e. it is not clear if it has an influence on the rate and course of ultimate attainment though a lot of researches have been conducted on the issue (p. 91). The literature above renders it legitimate to reconsider the 'critical period hypothesis' and all its attendant applications in SLA.

One important point is that the 'critical period hypothesis' (CPH) refers to Lenneberg's (1967) claim that the optimal period for language acquisition ends at puberty, and that the original version of CPH "was based on the relearning of impaired L1 skills, rather than the learning of a second language under normal circumstances" (Abello-Contesse, 2009, p. 170). That is to say, In terms of the ultimate attainment level of acquisition, L1 and L2 are totally different. For each of these languages, "there is a critical period during which it is possible to achieve the same level as natives (Birdsong, 1999, p.1). Once this period is over, the ability to learn language declines (Johnson & Newport, 1989, p.61)" (Du, 2010, p. 219).

15. 2 Previous Studies on the Validity of the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)

It has been generally admitted that the failure of adults attempting to learn a second or foreign language is due to the existence of a critical period. Namely, the supporters of the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) argue that learning after puberty will not end in native-like features; whereas, the opponents of this theory believe that native-like proficiency in a second language is sometimes possible. Another group of scholars have had an in-between stance: they maintain that the critical period exists, but there must be some consideration of age of exposure, sociological, psychological, and physiological factors which may debilitate language acquisition (Schouten, 2009). Some examples of the three groups (Cited in Schouten, 2009, pp. 3-4) are adapted as follows:

Oyama (1978) and Patkowski (1980) focused on the ultimate attainment of certain grammatical structures by immigrants arriving in the United States at diverse ages. These studies' findings indicated that the age of a subjects' arrival was the most influential variable which strongly predicted their ultimate attainment in English, proving that learning a second language after the critical period results in incomplete mastery.

Johnson and Newport (1989) reached an important conclusion regarding the effects of maturation on language acquisition. Their data revealed the correlation between the subjects' age of arrival in the United States and their performance on the test. The ultimate attainment of subjects exposed to English between 3 and 7 years of age was more consistent with the performance of native speakers than those who arrived between the ages of 8 and 10.

The findings of Johnson and Newport's study, along with Oyama's (1978) and Patkowski's (1980) studies showed that a critical period influences the acquisition of morphosyntactic structures in a second language. Others scholars have gone beyond the finding of morphosyntax to examine the effects of maturation on second language pronunciation.

Long (1990) and Patkowski (1994) claim that the achievement of a native-like accent in a second language is impossible, especially if the individual is not exposed to the language at an early age, or, at the very latest, as an adolescent. Scovel (1988) takes a step further as to claim that a critical period exists only in the area of pronunciation.

It is clear now, from the sample studies above, that a second language environment for people learning an L2, whatsoever their age, is not really a strong variable to be considered in their ultimate attainment prediction in language. It is also clear that exposure to the L2 after puberty (adulthood) is rarely or never marked by success to attain native-like competence. However, the factors of age and maturation in second language acquisition are still very crucial and the debate about them and other questions relevant to the CPH is still open.

15.3 Factors Influencing the Validity of the CPH

The CPH which referred at the beginning to first language acquisition, claiming that there is a biological time limit after which it would be impossible to learn a first language (Lenneberg, 1967; Bickerton, 1981), attempting to link ultimate attainment with the brain's lateralization despite the opposition it received, it "has been extended to include second language acquisition; that is, after a certain critical period it is impossible to acquire a second language with native proficiency" (1997, p. 147). This extension of the CPH time has, in fact, been harshly opposed by many researchers. Among the latter are the following examples as cited in Singleton (2007, pp. 49-50):

Ruben (1997) takes a more radical line. On the basis of studies of the effects of very early temporary hearing impairment, he concludes that the CP for phonetics/phonology ends around the twelfth month of infancy. Ruben further reads the research literature as indicating that the CP for syntax ends in the fourth year of life, and for semantics in the fifteenth or sixteenth year of life.

Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson also favour a very early CP offset. Their review of evidence of differences between even very early L2 acquirers and native speakers, leads them to a certain dubiousness about the CPH, and to state in one publication that the CP may be 'une chimère' (2003b: 122). Elsewhere they speculate that the language learning mechanism may be 'designed in such a way that it … inevitably and quickly deteriorates from birth' (2003a: 575), and for this reason 'native-like proficiency in a second language is unattainable' (*ibid*.: 578).

Singleton (2007), after presenting several studies which tested the validity of the CPH in different L2 aspects, he remarked that the CPH cannot be regarded as a scientific hypothesis due its various versions, and even a summary of these versions would lead to the understanding that it is operative only for the period before puberty (p. 53).

Hartshorne, Tenenbaum, and Pinker (2018) state that "People who learned a second language in childhood are difficult to distinguish from native speakers, whereas those who began in adulthood are often saddled with an accent and conspicuous grammatical errors" (p. 1) which indicates that the "critical period" for second language acquisition is vague and there is little agreement between scholars on what makes children more advantageous than adults to acquire a new language. It has not been proved that the easy and proficient children's acquisition of language refers only to factors such as their neural state, their cognitive freshness, their willingness to experiment many 'things' including language, and the starting time which is prior that of adults. Hartshorne, Tenenbaum, and Pinker's (2018) study favours the existence of a critical period for language acquisition, but the age of offset exceeds what has been suggested previously by other CPH studies.

15.4 Educational Implications from Studies on the CPH

It is generally admitted that Children, adolescents and adults are neurologically, cognitively and psychologically different in acquiring a second language. It is also generally accepted that children are better learners, while adolescents and adults tend to be less efficient in the acquisition of a larger volume of comprehensible input which results in low quality and quantity outcome. Adolescents and adults may be affected by other factors in L2A. These differences and influential factor in the acquisition process require the implementation of different approaches to instructing learners of different age groups.

Regardless of the inconsistency of the results of CPH studies, they offer insights for language educators into paying more attention to age differences and learning context as the most powerful factors on the outcomes of language teaching. These studies also enable teachers to realize that besides age and context, affective factors and reasons for learning languages have influence in success. Therefore, language programs of young learners should include the various aspect of foreign language (FL) education (Gürsoy, 2011, p. 762).

Dekeyser (2018) observes that:

> The main practical implication for L2 instruction, then, is very clear: what is needed to improve L2 learning is not simply starting earlier with traditional instruction focused on forms. Instead, what matters more is that instruction be adapted to age. If it can be provided early, it should ensure the activities, input, and atmosphere to maximize implicit learning; if it can be provided only once the learner is an adolescent or adult, the efficiency of instruction can be improved by judicious use of grammar explanation and systematic communicative practice adapted to the aptitudes and interests of the learners; these aptitudes and interests, of course, don't change overnight at a certain age, but evolve gradually in the same timeframe as the decline in implicit learning capacities takes place (p. 3)

From Dekeyser's words, one can understand that the starting age is not the only crucial factor in L2 learning, especially if the traditional ways of teaching continue to be used. What is important in current L2 instruction is the adjustment of instruction to age; i.e. young learners should benefit from comprehensible input and adequate atmosphere to learn the L2 implicitly, and adults should be provided with grammar explanations and communicative practices which match their aptitudes and interests. One can also understand that the author avows that implicit learning (for children) declines while explicit learning is evolving (in adolescence and /adulthood).

Ozfidan and Burlbaw (2019) conducted a study which aimed at examining in SLA the impact of age on children, adolescents and adults. In this study, the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) was considered as the basis for testing the hypothesis that all young learners (before puberty) can acquire native-like proficiency in the target language pronunciation. The results pointed out that children learn language easier than adolescents and adults, especially the aspect of pronunciation and morpho syntax. On the other hand, adolescents are good at syntax and listening skills and are better at reading and writing. Therefore, from a pedagogical perspective, these developmental

differences require a diversity of instructional methods for the three categories: children, adolescents and adults.

Based on the aforementioned literature, what can be said is that L2 acquisition is a complex phenomenon. This is only because it takes time and requires considerable efforts compared to L1 acquisition. In addition, the belief that children are better learners than adults has always been associated with Lenneberg's (1967) Critical Period Hypothesis which upholds that after puberty it becomes impossible, though there rare cases, for any learner of an L2 to achieve native-like proficiency. Therefore, when expanding the CPH to L2 learning, Lenneberg (1967, p. 176) stated that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear (after puberty) and foreign languages have to be taught through a conscious and labored effort. Foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty" (Cited in Lopez, 2017, p. 130). In other words, in the case of adults learning an L2 there are factors such as age, environment, exposure, aptitude and attitude, and motivation that must be considered for expecting the learners' ultimate attainment in L2 acquisition.

General Conclusion

In the first six chapters of this guide, I have dealt with some areas of the Applied Linguistics field, including its different subfields, the advantages of each subfield and practice, the relevant research and practical questions, and the issues that really need to be identified and solved. I have also presented the most well-known research theories and discussed the common features and the methods used for language teaching. I have addressed key issues in employing these methods in the classroom and the way they relate to classroom research, targeting second language acquisition both in terms of theory and in terms of practice, trying to come up with insights into good classroom conduct. I believe that when teachers and students are aware of the subtleties of the method (s) being used, their strong and weak parts, and the proper standards of empirical rigour they are supposed to cater for in the classroom, a higher quality of teaching and learning can be gained and a deeper understanding of the nature of second language acquisition and learning becomes very accessible.

In the three succeeding chapters, I have considered recent views, approaches and attempts to define feedback and error correction as essential parts of modern language learning, the teacher's roles and learners' styles in the EFL classroom, emphasizing their importance in comparison with the lack of a clear understanding of today's language teaching methodology. This is followed by introducing principles of evaluation and assessment of students' performance in the four skills. In the last six chapters, however, I have attempted to tackle other realms which are principally meant to help students and teachers to discover various facts about classroom practices, and to delve into ways of designing courses and syllabi using recent methods and techniques, or rather pedagogies in the classroom.

I hope this guide will provide a firm stand from which students, novice and more experienced teachers can evaluate and improve their learning and teaching respectively. I also hope this guide will add some knowledge and skill which will make a significant contribution to EFL learning and teaching. Moreover, I hope this contribution will pave the way for further efforts at the level of our English language branch.

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