Otto-Friedrich-Universität Bamberg

TEFL Basics
Reader

Theresa Summer (Ed.): first edition: 2020; second edition (slightly modified): 2021

TEFL Basics: Reader

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ABOUT THIS READER

Important information

The reader provides an overview of the most important topics in the field of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language):

1. Introduction: terminology & the TEFL world
2. Developments in teaching methodology and SLA
3. Skills, competences, and strategies
4. Lexis and grammar
5. Intercultural learning, transcultural learning, and global education
6. Media and materials
7. Texts and literature
8. Differentiation, individualisation, and inclusion
9. Assessment

These topics set the theoretical and practice-oriented basis for future teachers and educators of English.

Podcasts

All of the texts are also available as podcasts in which the texts are read aloud by a proficient speaker of English including the important terms and definitions. You can listen to the podcasts in several learning stages – for instance, as an introduction into the topics or during a revision phase.

Good to know

The summaries contain definitions of key terms, an overview of important terms in English and German, an overview of influential researchers, and a list of references that also provides an impulse for preparing for the state exam (*Staatsexamen*).

INTRODUCTORY LITERATURE

Please note: The following books (1 & 2) provide an introduction into TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language). The manuals and encyclopedias (3) can be used to look up important terms. The journals (4) illustrate past and current TEFL research directions (4a) and present teaching materials and ready-to-use worksheets for the classroom (4b). The digital documents (5) are examples of important political documents that can be downloaded online.

1) Introductory books (in English)

Focus: secondary school

Eisenmann, Maria & Summer, Theresa (Eds.). (2013). *Basic issues in EFL teaching and learning.* Winter.

Grimm, Nancy, Meyer, Michael & Volkmann, Laurenz. (2015). *Teaching English.* Narr.

Harmer, Jeremy. (2012). *Essential teacher knowledge: core concepts in English language teaching.* Pearson Longman.

Müller-Hartmann, Andreas & Schocker von Ditfurth, Marita. (^{2}2015). *Introduction to English language teaching*. Klett.

Surkamp, Carola & Viebrock, Britta (Eds.). (2018). *Teaching English as a foreign language: an introduction*. Metzler.

Focus: primary school

Bland, Janice (Ed.). (2015). *Teaching English to young learners: critical issues in language teaching with 3-12 year olds.* Bloomsbury.

Brewster, Jean, Ellis, Gail & Girard, Denis. (2002). *The primary English teacher's guide. New Edition*. Pearson Education.

Legutke, Michael, Müller-Hartmann, Andreas & Schocker-v. Ditfurth, Marita. (^{2}2015). *Teaching English in the primary school*. Klett.

Pinter, Annamaria. (2017). *Teaching young language learners.* OUP.

2) Introductory books (in German)

Focus: secondary school

Bach, Gerhard & Timm, Johannes-Peter (Eds.). (^{5}2013). *Englischunterricht. Grundlagen und Methoden einer handlungsorientierten Unterrichtspraxis*. Francke.

Decke-Cornill, Helene & Küster, Lutz. (^{3}2015). *Fremdsprachendidaktik. Eine Einführung.* Narr.

Doff, Sabine & Klippel, Friederike. (^{3}2012). *Englischdidaktik. Praxishandbuch für die Sekundarstufe I und II.* Cornelsen.

Gehring, Wolfgang (Ed.). (2015). *Praxis Planung Englischunterricht*. Francke.

Haß, Frank (Ed.). (^{2}2017). *Fachdidaktik Englisch. Tradition. Innovation. Praxis.* Klett.

Thaler, Engelbert. (2012). *Englisch unterrichten. Grundlagen, Kompetenzen, Methoden.* Cornelsen.

Focus: primary school

Böttger, Heiner (Ed.). (^{2}2014). *Englisch: Didaktik für die Grundschule*. Cornelsen.

Böttger, Heiner. (^{2}2010; ^{3}2020). *Englisch lernen in der Grundschule*. Klinkhardt.

Elsner, Daniela. (2015). *Englisch 1-4. Kompetenzorientierter Unterricht in der Grundschule.* Oldenbourg.

Elsner, Daniela. (2010). *Englisch in der Grundschule unterrichten: Grundlagen, Methoden, Praxisbeispiele*. Oldenbourg.

3) Manuals & encyclopedias

Burwitz-Melzer, Eva, Mehlhorn, Brit, Riemer, Claudia, Bausch, Karl-Richard & Krumm, Hans-Jürgen. (Eds.). (^{6}2016). *Handbuch Fremdsprachenunterricht.* Francke.

Byram, Michael & Hu, Adelheid (Eds.). (^{2}2013). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. Routledge.

Liontas, John & Margo DelliCarpini (Ed.). (2019). *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Lütge, Christiane (Ed). (^{3}2019). *Englisch Methodik. Handbuch für die Sekundarstufe I und II.* Cornelsen.

4) Journals

a) Research-based/theoretical

- *ELT Journal*
- *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*
- *TESOL Quarterly*
- *TESOL Journal*

b) Practice-oriented

- *Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht Englisch.* Seelze: Friedrich Verlag.
- *Englisch 5 bis 10*. Seelze: Friedrich Verlag.
- *Grundschule Englisch.* Seelze: Friedrich Verlag
- *Grundschulmagazin Englisch.* München: Cornelsen.
- *Praxis Englisch*. München: Cornelsen.

5) Digital documents

Curricula/syllabuses/*Lehrpläne* see https://www.isb.bayern.de/

Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.* Cambridge University Press. https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97

Council of Europe. (2018). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Companion Volume with New Descriptors.* https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989

TOPIC 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Terminology and the TEFL World

In German, the term *Fremdsprachendidaktik* is commonly used to refer to the academic discipline which is concerned with teaching and learning foreign languages in institutional settings, while *Englischdidaktik* specifically refers to the teaching and learning of English in such contexts. In the English language, the term "didactics" (pl.) is sometimes used to refer to the art or science of teaching, but it is much less common and rather misleading. This is because in English the adjective "didactic" typically implies preachy, pedantic, or moralistic teaching (cf. Doff, 2018, p. 12). Consequently, terms such as TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) theory, TEFL methodology, TEFL pedagogy, ELT (English Language Learning and Teaching), or ELE (English Language Education) are used much more frequently in the English language.

As an academic discipline, TEFL or ELE is the study of the *what*, *how*, *why/ what for* and *who* of teaching and learning English as a second or foreign language (ESL/ EFL) in institutional contexts (Doff, 2018, p. 1). More specifically, it is concerned with

- the content and subject matter of learning and teaching ESL/ EFL (*What?*),
- the reasons why a particular subject matter is considered relevant and "teachable", as well as the goals and objectives of learning and teaching ESL/ EFL (*Why/ What for?*),
- "ways" of teaching ESL/ EFL, i.e. methods, techniques, and practices (*How?*), and
- those involved in learning and teaching ESL/ EFL, i.e. learners and educators (*Who?*).

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL): The term/ acronym most commonly used for the academic discipline concerned with the study of the *what*, *how*, *why/ what for* and *who* of teaching and learning English as a second, additional, or foreign language (ESL/ EFL) in institutional contexts.
English Language Learning and Teaching (ELT): The term ELT is often used as an alternative term to refer to TEFL.
English Language Education (ELE): The term ELE favours the term education over teaching. This implies that the focus is not primarily on teaching a language to learners but also on changing learners' worldviews.
Foreign Language Education (FLE): Rather than considering these issues with a specific language in mind (i.e. English, Spanish, Russian), FLE takes a broader, cross-language perspective towards them. FLE serves as an umbrella term including the various language-specific disciplines, much like the German *Fremdsprachendidaktik* (which subsumes *Englischdidaktik, Spanischdidaktik* etc.).

Decke-Cornill & Küster (2015, p. 3) describe TEFL as an analytical, normative, as well as an operative discipline. It is *analytical* because it describes, analyses and interprets processes of teaching and learning English as they occur in institutional settings. However, it is also *normative* in the sense that it is concerned with what teaching and learning English *should* look like, making recommendations about content and methodology. Finally, it is an *operative,* practice-oriented discipline because by making these recommendations, it influences classroom processes and, thus, shapes the ways in which English is taught.

In addition, TEFL may be considered a *transformative* discipline (cf. Decke-Cornill & Küster, 2015, pp. 7f.). Broadly speaking, it occurs at the intersection of several other related or *referential disciplines*.

These, for instance, include the various disciplines of English and American Studies, such as Linguistics, Literary and Cultural Studies, as well as Media Studies, Educational Studies (*Erziehungswissenschaften*), Sociology, and Neurolinguistics (cf. Doff, 2018, pp. 13f.; Grimm, Meyer & Volkmann, 2015, pp. 38f.). However, rather than simply borrowing content from these and "breaking it down" for the classroom context, TEFL integrates concepts, ideas and findings from various referential disciplines and transforms them in light of what is relevant for this discipline.

1.2 The importance of English as a foreign language

In a globalized world, being able to communicate in at least one foreign language has become a key competence of private and professional lives in and outside of Europe. While there are more native speakers of Chinese or Spanish, **English** is **accepted as the most common *lingua franca* worldwide**, shared by millions of speakers with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

The importance of English as a foreign language is mirrored by its role in both German and European education systems: According to Eurostat 2016, more than 90% of European students learn English as their first foreign language. Most German students start their foreign language career with English (usually in grade 1 or 3 of primary school). In German secondary schools, learning one or two foreign languages is mandatory. One of these has to be English and continuously studied for at least five years in secondary school (at middle schools such as *Mittelschule Realschule* or a grammar/high schools, i.e. *Gymnasium*) (cf. Elsner, 2018, p.18).

1.3 Overall aims and objectives of TEFL

The aims of TEFL are manifold. An inspection of English curricula (*Englischlehrpläne*) across different school types reveals that four key competence areas are central: 1) communicative competence, 2) text and media competence, 3) intercultural competence, and 4) methodological competence. These competence domains can be described as follows (cf. Elsner, 2018, pp. 19ff.; Doff, 2018, p. 9):

1) Communicative competence: Since the *communicative turn* in the late 1970s, communicative competence has become the main goal of foreign language education. The main objective is to **enable learners to actively use the foreign language in meaningful communicative situations**. More specifically, the different dimensions of communicative competence include the ability to use language for a range of different purposes and functions, in different contexts and with different participants; the ability to produce and understand different types of (oral and written) texts and communication strategies which help to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's linguistic knowledge.

2) Text and media competence: This competence refers to the ability to decode, understand and produce all forms of text and media. A traditionally narrow view of what constitutes a "text" has increasingly given way in recent years to a broader, more open concept of texts which includes new and alternative forms such as pictures, audio formats and audio-visual media such as films, discontinuous texts like charts, graphs or maps as well as digital, interactive, and multimodal texts.

3) Intercultural competence: Because of the interrelation of language and culture, intercultural competence plays an important role in FLE. It has become a major objective of the EFL classroom to enable learners to become "**intercultural speakers**" who are aware of and respect other cultures as

well as their own and are able to successfully **mediate** between interlocutors with different lingua-cultural backgrounds in intercultural encounters.

4) Methodological competence: The more we understand how (language) learning processes work, the clearer it becomes that we not only have to teach linguistic items or communicative skills to our students; we also have to help them become *successful* **language learners.** In addition to incorporating learning scenarios which offer the potential for autonomous and individualised learning, this includes helping learners develop individual learning strategies, become more aware of their own language learning process and organise it in keeping with their own needs and individual strengths.

1.4 Standards, competences and the CEFR (cf. Elsner 2018, pp. 21ff.; Grimm, Meyer & Volkmann, 2015, pp. 8ff.)

In 2000, the so-called "PISA shock" caused a fundamental shift in German education systems and curricula. PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) was initiated in order to test the learning outcomes of 15-year-old learners in reading, mathematical and scientific literacy. Germany was shocked to learn that the overall performance of its learners was below average in several areas. PISA and other similar large-scale assessments also revealed that there was a considerable variation in terms of learners' competences. It was concluded that the traditional, input-oriented syllabuses and guidelines, which listed learning objectives for each school year as well as topics and contents that had to be taught, were no guarantee for students' achievements of certain minimal standards (Elsner 2018, 21). As a result, the **Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the German Länder** (*Ständige Konferenz der Kultusminister der Länder in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland* = KMK) developed and published **national educational standards** (*Bildungsstandards*) for different school types and subjects. These new standards were focused on *learning outcomes* (rather than input and content) and the *testing of functional competences*, and have been adopted into school curricula in all 16 federal states over the past two decades.

In the case of FLE, this shift in educational policy roughly coincided with the publication of the **Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)** in 2001. As a result, in the field of foreign language learning, this document served as a primary reference source for both the German educational standards and the federal curricula. The CEFR "was designed to provide a transparent, coherent and comprehensive basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses and curriculum guidelines, the design of teaching and learning materials and the assessment of foreign language proficiency" across Europe. It describes the development of **foreign language proficiency** on a global scale of six levels: A1 and A2 (Basic User), B1 and B2 (Independent User), C1 and C2 (Proficient User). The levels are specified by **"can do"-descriptors** and follow the general trend to focus on *competences* and *learning outcomes.* In 2018, the *Companion Volume with New Descriptors* was published representing an update of the CEFR illustrative descriptors.

1.5 Recent developments / Current state of affairs (cf. Elsner, 2018, pp. 34ff.)

Early foreign language learning: Over the course of the past two decades, early foreign language learning has been introduced in primary schools across all federal states in Germany. While there is a lot of variation between the different states with regard to the specific forms of organisation of early foreign language learning (i.e. start in grade 1 or 3, languages taught, whether or not pupils are

graded), and these forms continue to be a subject of educational and political contention, foreign language education at primary level is now firmly established in all federal states.

Bilingual education or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): Hamers & Blanc (2000, p. 321) use the term bilingual education for "any system of school education in which […] instruction is planned and given in at least two languages". Internationally, and academically, the acronym CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is used as an umbrella term for different forms of "bilingual education" to describe more adequately what is actually happening in these settings: entire subjects or individual projects across the curriculum are **taught in the target language** so that content and language learning occur simultaneously, with the target language being used to varying degrees. In Germany, these programmes were initially offered mainly by *Gymnasien* and a few primary schools but are now increasingly implemented in all school types.

Multilingual approaches to foreign language learning: In recent years, FLE researchers as well as policy makers have been called upon to develop strategies and teaching ideas which cater to both the **European tenet of a multilingual society** and the **diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds of learners** in order to appreciate and actively promote all languages that are spoken by any individual. Some pilot projects as well as small scale studies have been conducted in this area. However, comprehensive, integrative multilingual approaches to foreign language learning, which appreciate and actively engage with students' prior language knowledge in order to help develop language awareness and foster multilingual learning processes, remain scarce.

Inclusive classrooms: Catering to individual learner needs is an educational principle which has become increasingly important in all subjects across the curriculum. While classrooms have always been heterogeneous, the various dimensions of diversity, such as gender, nationality, socio-economic status, religion, worldviews, languages, abilities/ disabilities or learning preferences, have come to the forefront of educators' as well as policy makers' attention in recent years. The principles of **differentiation** and **individualisation** of classroom content and teaching materials are not unique to foreign language teaching; however, specific strategies need to be implemented in the EFL classroom to enable learners to develop their individual language skills according to their own strengths and help them develop strategies to overcome their weaknesses.

Important terms

ENGLISH	GERMAN
TEFL = Teaching English as a Foreign Language *or* ELT = English Language Learning and Teaching	Englischdidaktik
ELE = English Language Education	Englischdidaktik / Bildung in englischer Sprache
FLE = Foreign Language Education	Fremdsprachendidaktik
EFL = English as a Foreign Language	Englisch als Fremdsprache
ESL = English as a Second Language	Englisch als Zweitsprache
Methodology	Methodik
Educational Studies	Erziehungswissenschaften
Referential/related disciplines	Bezugswissenschaften
Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany	KMK = Ständige Konferenz der Kultusminister der Länder in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland

tri-partite school system	dreigliedriges Schulsystem
syllabus (sing.), syllabuses/syllabuses (pl.) curriculum (sing.), curricula (pl.)	Lehrplan
Guidelines	Richtlinien
CEFR = Common European Framework of Reference for Languages	GER = Gemeinsamer Europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen

Further reading

1. Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97.

2. Council of Europe. (2018). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Companion Volume with New Descriptors.* https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989.

3. Decke-Cornill, Helene & Küster, Lutz. (³2015). Sprachenpolitik. In Helene Decke-Cornill & Lutz Küster (Eds.), *Fremdsprachendidaktik* (pp. 1-9; 143-162). Narr.

4. Methods. In Carola Surkamp & Britta Viebrock (Eds.), *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (pp. 1-16). J.B. Metzler.

5. Elsner, Daniela. (2018). Institutionalised Foreign Language Learning: Teaching English at Different Levels. In Carola Surkamp & Britta Viebrock (Eds.), *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (pp. 17-23; 34-37). J.B. Metzler.

6. Doff, Sabine. (2018). English Language Teaching and English Language Education: History and

7. Grimm, Nancy, Michael Meyer & Laurenz Volkmann. (2015). The Framework: History and Politics. In Nancy Grimm, Michael Meyer & Laurenz Volkmann (Eds.), *Teaching English* (pp. 1-16). Narr.

8. Curricula/Lehrpläne see https://www.isb.bayern.de/

TOPIC 2: Developments in Teaching Methodology and SLA

3.1 Important terms: Method, Approach, and Postmethod

Foreign language education is characterised by a variety of innovations that sought to revolutionise teaching practice. Many of these innovations were brought about by the development of different teaching methods. The term *method*, however, is a rather hybrid term. On the one hand, the term *method* is often used in a very broad sense to refer to a particular plan in the teaching and learning process, and it is thereby equated with the term *activity* referring to a plan or action carried out in practice. On the other hand, in academic discussions and historical outlines of language teaching, the term *method* refers to an instructional design that is based on a specific theory of language learning.

An example of a teaching method would be TPR, Total Physical Response, a method proposed by James Asher in the 1960s. Observing that children respond physically to the speech of their parents, he developed various hypotheses as a theoretical grounding for a method that focuses on the teacher giving commands to students, who are required to respond with physical actions – thus called Total Physical Response. This method is only one example of various methods that have been presented in the 20th century and not a single method has been universally accepted for foreign language teaching. This is not surprising given the diversity of learners, languages, and educational contexts. Instead, more flexible approaches were presented that were based on a set of principles. While these were not considered suitable in all teaching contexts, the concept of postmethod developed in the acknowledgement that we must stop searching for the best method or approach. Consequently, today, numerous principles and pedagogic guidelines set the theoretical basis for English language education. General methods and activities, however, provide tools for teaching practice that should always be grounded in pedagogical principles (e.g. learner-centredness, differentiation).

Method: The term *method* either very broadly refers to something that is (or can be) carried out in the classroom or it refers to an instructional design based on a specific theory.
Approach: A teaching approach is based on a set of principles and thus allows for greater flexibility than a method.
Postmethod: The term *postmethod* refers to a theoretical concept that presents a list of flexible macrostrategies rather than a specific method or approach to cater for different learners, teachers, and educational contexts.

3.2 Influential Teaching Methods and Approaches

A great variety of methods and approaches was developed in the 20th century. Chronologically, three major developmental phases can be identified: 1) traditional methods (Grammar-Translation Method, Reform Method, Audiolingual Method), 2) alternative or humanistic methods (Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia, The Silent Way), and 3) communicative approaches (Communicative Language Teaching, The Natural Approach, Task-Based Language Teaching) (Summer, 2017, p. 4). One of the greatest revolutions that took place in foreign language education is the shift towards a focus on **communicative competence**, for which Dell Hymes's construction of the theory of communicative competence in 1972 played an important role. From this time onwards, it was considered vital to learn through communication and communicative activities rather than by focusing on grammar. In addition to that, Krashen and Terrell propose a learning-centred approach in *The Natural Approach* (1983), which focuses on providing learners with language input (e.g. through listening and reading) and

integrating meaningful practice activities. In the late 1980s, the learner-centred approach **Task-Based Language Teaching and Learning** (TBLT, referred to as *Aufgabenorientierung* in Germany) was developed. Scholars who contributed to the development of this approach through providing a definition of tasks and an outline of a task sequence, for instance, include Rod Ellis and Jane Willis. Whereas the original intention of TBLT was to develop a syllabus that is based on tasks, this was never really implemented as such in English syllabuses. In Germany, scholars such as Andreas Müller-Hartmann, however, promoted the integration of tasks in so-called **Task-Supported Language Learning** (TSLL). As such, TBLT's greatest achievement was the promotion of tasks as language learning activities. Although various definitions of the term *task* exist, a task is commonly described as an activity that is related to real life, focuses on meaning (rather than form), and includes an outcome. Today, tasks comprise popular activities in the EFL classroom because they comply with important pedagogic principles such as learner-centredness and cooperative learning and can be combined with competence-based teaching.

> **Task-Based Language Teaching and Learning (TBLT):** TBLT is a learner-centred approach that promotes the inclusion of tasks in foreign language education. Originally, a task-based syllabus was intended to set the basis for TBLT. As this was never achieved in any syllabuses, the merit of TBLT today lies in the promotion of tasks as language activities.
>
> **Task:** A task is an activity that focuses on meaning (rather than primarily form), is related to real life, and requires learners to produce an outcome.

3.3 The Postmethod Condition

In the late 20th century, methods and approaches were criticised by scholars for their prescriptive nature and for restricting teachers. The postmethod concept developed as a response to various criticism aimed at creating a wider framework for teaching. In the paper "The Postmethod Condition" published in 1994, Kumaravadivelu presents a framework that consists of 10 macrostrategies. These are described to be "an open-ended set of options" that can be "continually modified, expanded, and enriched" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 41). These macrostrategies, for instance, include maximising learning opportunities, promoting learner autonomy, and raising cultural consciousness. Although the postmethod concept has also been subject to some criticism, it seems to be widely acknowledged today that it is important to base teaching on a sound set of principles or strategies rather than on one particular method or approach.

3.4 Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

The development of different teaching methods and approaches is closely related to the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The term *SLA* refers to the process of learning or acquiring a second (or additional, other) language. Research in the field of SLA therefore deals with how a second, additional, or foreign language is learnt. An important theme in SLA is *interlanguage development* – a term that was coined by Selinker in 1972. Interlanguage development refers to the "individual mental grammar of each language learner", whereby learners may produce output that involves features of both their native and the target language, and the psycholinguistic processes involved in learning a foreign language.

Various SLA theories and models have tried to explain how second or foreign languages are learnt. The following three comprise some influential SLA theories:

1) **Behaviourist perspective:** According to the behaviourist theory by Skinner, language learning can be equated with other forms of behaviour acquired through given stimuli. Consequently, habit formation through memorising and imitating patterns is considered effective.

2) **Innatist perspective:** The innatist perspective is based on Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar (UG). It states that humans are born with an innate ability containing principles that are universal to all languages. As such, its underlying theory implies that children are programmed to understand and learn languages. For SLA this means that children do not start to learn a foreign language from scratch, but rather acquire it through exposure to language input.

3) **Monitor model:** The monitor model was developed by Krashen in 1982 to explain second language learning. It consists of five hypotheses: 1) acquisition-learning hypothesis, 2) monitor hypothesis, 3) natural order hypothesis, 4) input hypothesis, and 5) affective filter hypothesis. Krashen's monitor model overall emphasises the importance of **comprehensible input** that language learners should be exposed to so that they can improve their linguistic competence. As such, input as such is considered crucial as is the fact that it is comprehensible to learners – often referred to as 'i+1' (input +1), of which '1' refers to the next language item that should be learnt.

In addition to these three SLA theories, various other models and hypotheses have been presented. These, for instance, include the input hypothesis (comprehensible input leads to language acquisition), the output hypothesis (producing language is most relevant to language acquisition), and the processability theory (successful production of language depends on what the individual learner can process) (cf. Keßler, 2018, pp. 75-79). In current SLA theories and research, scholars consider several variables that have an impact on foreign language learning and acquisition. These are closely related to individual learner differences and include, for instance, learners' age and their language background.

The general implications of SLA for the EFL classroom hold the notion that teachers should create situations in which acquisition and learning are facilitated. As such, teachers need to be familiar with theories of SLA because an understanding of what may happen in learners' minds when learning another language can help them to make suitable methodological choices. This, furthermore, illustrates the interconnectedness between SLA theories and teaching methods or approaches in practice.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA): The term *SLA* generally describes learning a second (or foreign) language. More specifically, the term *SLA* refers to a field of research and the theory of the processes through which learners acquire a second (a foreign/an additional foreign) language.
Acquisition versus learning: Whereas the term *acquisition* refers to a subconscious process, the term *learning* suggests a deliberate and conscious process. Both terms are, however, often used interchangeably in SLA discussions.
Interlanguage: *Interlanguage* is a linguistic system used by second (or foreign) language learners who are in the process of second (or foreign) language development. The term *interlanguage development* was coined by Selinker in 1972 and it refers to the psycholinguistic processes involved in foreign language learning and acquisition.

3.5 Implications for teaching practice

When teachers choose or develop an activity for their class, they need to be familiar with the great variety of methods, approaches, macrostrategies and pedagogic principles so that they can make suitable methodological choices. Various method guides (e.g. Grieser-Kindel/Henseler/Möller, 2016) or overviews of warm-ups (Bastkowski/Koic forthcoming) or different learning and teaching methods (*Lehr- und Lernformen* in Kuty, 2018, pp. 72-76) provide useful methodological guidelines for activity and task development. Familiarity with important SLA theories and research can furthermore help teachers develop suitable activities for their learners. By continuously developing their understanding of how foreign language learning works and expanding their knowledge, teachers can make principled choices for teaching practice and their learners.

Important terms and abbreviations

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Teaching Method	Unterrichtsmethode
Teaching Approach	Unterrichtsansatz
Communicative Approaches	Kommunikative Ansätze
Task-Based Language Teaching	Aufgabenorientierter Unterricht
Activity	Aktivität
Task	Aufgabe
Second Language Acquisition (SLA)	Zweitspracherwerb
Interlanguage	Zwischensprache, Interimsprache, Lernersprache

Important researchers

RESEARCHER	CONCEPT & EXPLANATION
Stephen Krashen	Krashen developed the Natural Approach (with Terrell) in 1983 and five hypotheses that set the basis for numerous research projects.
Larry Selinker (1972)	Selinker introduced the concept of interlanguage, which is a key theme in SLA theories and research.
Jane Willis (1996)	Willis is a leading scholar in the field of TBLT, who developed the TBLT lesson sequence (pre-task, during-task, and post-task phase).
Rod Ellis (2003, 2020)	Rod Ellis published widely in the field of TBLT (e.g. the frequently cited book *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching* in 2003) and is a leading theorist of this approach. His research interests also include SLA.
Andreas Müller-Hartmann & Marita Schocker (v. Ditfurth) (2011)	Müller-Hartmann and Schocker v. Ditfurth applied TBLT to English language education in Germany. In adopting the approach of Task Supported Language Learning (TSLL), they suggest using tasks as additional tools for learners to support their language learning.
Balasubramanian Kumaravadivelu (2006)	Kumaravadivelu developed the concept of postmethod, for which he devised an open-ended list of ten macrostrategies for teaching.

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TOPIC 3: Skills, Competences, and Strategies

3.1 Introduction

According to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) the overall purpose/goal of foreign language teaching is aimed at helping learners develop communicative competences. These include proficient lexico-grammatical competences, intercultural competences and a good command of the traditional four **language skills** - *listening, reading, speaking, writing*. In addition*, mediation* is another important language-related skill and **methodological competences, i.e. learning strategies**, play a key role in skills and competence development. Teachers will have to instil in their learners' minds the awareness that communicative competences and learning strategies are clearly interrelated and of utmost importance in the life-long process of autonomous language learning.

Competences/competencies: The term *competences* (or *competencies* – referring to more specific competencies) commonly refers to a learner's abilities and skills to cope with certain situations and solve specific problems. In the context of English language teaching, this could, for instance, refer to the learner's ability to take part in a conversation and present his or her opinion on a certain issue.

Autonomous language learning: The autonomous EFL learner shows full responsibility for the learning process and knows how to initiate/organise/evaluate learning.

3.2 Listening, reading, and viewing

Listening and **reading** are both **receptive skills** because learners do not need to produce language but rather receive and understand it. In spite of this, the mental process of understanding spoken as well as written texts is by no means a passive one; it is rather a highly complex matter. While developing receptive skills, learners are actively engaged in two recurrent processes that can be quite challenging: **Bottom-up processes** require the constant decoding of phonemes/letters, words, sentences to interpret any given text by drawing on linguistic knowledge. **Top-down processes** help learners to gain a full understanding of the meaning of the text through knowledge of the topic and general knowledge of the world ('Weltwissen'). Given that many learners are increasingly visually oriented, the use of video for developing listening and viewing skills has an important motivational value. Moreover, visual cues like body language, gestures, facial expressions and images can facilitate understanding. Yet learners are faced with the challenge to/of decoding the visual and the audio channel simultaneously, which requires much mental effort. Engaging students in a variety of film settings and making them familiar with a wide array of listening strategies is thus a key component of successful instruction of **audio-visual comprehension** ('Hör-Seh-Verstehen').

3.3 Speaking and writing

Speaking and writing are both **productive skills**. The **speaking process** involves conceptualising (the speaker forms an idea in his mind), formulating (linguistic components are provided), articulating ('inner speech' is articulated) and self-control (constant monitoring of speech). Transactional speech conveys ideas and messages, interactive speech serves as a means to initiate and maintain a

conversation. Bringing about language learning benefits requires that students are speaking in a variety of settings like role plays, simulations, interviews, discussions, and various CLT arrangements.

> **Cooperative Language Teaching (CLT)** arrangements include activities in which learners work together in pairs or groups. Examples are: **jigsaw** = *Gruppenpuzzle/STEX-Methode*, **gallery walk** = *Galerierundgang*, **placemat** = *Platzdeckchen*, **zipper technique** = *Reißverschlussverfahren* or **hot seat** = *heißer Stuhl* (cf. Grieser-Kindel, Henseler & Möller, 2016)

Writing is a systematic process which can be described as a sequence of recursively applied activities throughout the stages of pre-writing/planning (generating ideas; dictionary searches), drafting (the first version with reference to specific text genre), writing (the process of formulating while using correct grammar/style), revising/editing (re-examining the text by incorporating the teacher's feedback and comments). Writing serves various purposes including writing to convince (curriculum vitae), to persuade (letter to the editor), to communicate (personal letter) and to entertain (creative writing).

3.4 Mediation

Mediation skills mainly involve interpreting activities in which the learner serves as an intermediary between non-native and native-speaker contexts. Mediation activities comprise oral activities like interpreting ('dolmetschen') and written activities like summing up the most important pieces of information in a given text. Negotiating meaning is always interrelated with intercultural competence. In other words, being aware of the traditions and conventions of the target culture (e.g. politeness) is imperative to becoming a successful intermediary in any kind of cultural setting.

3.5 Teaching language skills: The PWP approach

Skills instruction should not be separated into four discrete skills-sets. Recent research has provided evidence that instructive settings that integrate the four (or five) skills (listening, reading, speaking, writing, and mediation) play a vital role in helping learners become competent language users. Skills instruction typically comprises three stages (**PWP – pre-, while-, and post-activities**):

1) **pre-activities** serve as an introduction to the topic by focussing the learners' attention, creating motivation and reactivating students' prior knowledge (e.g. making predictions about the content of a film by interpreting the trailer/film poster),

2) **while-activities** help learners to check their understanding during the task and to use relevant strategies (e.g. applying various types of reading strategies like skimming and scanning),

3) **post-activities** help to gain a full understanding of the text and to engage students in active participation by presenting incentives to speak/write (e.g. rewriting the original text using a different genre like a novel into a poem).

3.6 Methodological competences

Due to the interrelation of communicative and methodological competences learners need to acquire manifold learning strategies which can be classified in three main types:

1) **meta-cognitive strategies** refer to the ability to understand one's own method for learning (planning/monitoring/evaluating the learning process),

2) **cognitive strategies** are concerned with mental and linguistic abilities related to knowledge of how to process text meaning, such as inferring, summarising, grouping, resourcing, elaborating (e.g. by using memory-enhancing strategies like mind maps or the keyword technique), and

3) **socio-affective strategies** refer to learning by interaction with teachers or peers in order to obtain help or clarification.

Furthermore, positive feelings like enjoyment and motivation can encourage successful learning. Recent studies suggest that good language learners tend to apply learning strategies intensively and that they are well aware of strategies that are most useful for them individually. The most common typology of **learner types** is the one according to the perception of information, i.e. **visual, auditory, kinesthetic.** Other categories have been described as medium-oriented, abstract, analytical, socio-communicative, authority-oriented. The teachers' role in assisting their students' ability to reflect on and improve strategy use is of vital importance. That way students become increasingly aware of their own learning process, which eventually might even make them enjoy the process of learning.

3.7 German curricular guidelines

In Germany, curricula or syllabuses are commonly competence-based (*kompetenzorientiert*). In Bavaria, for instance, the so-called *LehrplanPlus*, which was introduced in primary schools in the school year 2014/15 and in secondary schools in the school year 2017/18, presents a curriculum that is structured around a set of competencies (*Kompetenzstrukturmodell*). These include: **1) communicative competences, 2) methodological competences, 3) intercultural competences,** and **4) text- and media-competences**. The first category is subdivided into skills (= listening, reading, speaking, writing, mediation) and language elements (lexis, grammar, pronunciation, intonation, orthography). In practical teaching, the development of this range of competencies and skills plays a key role.

Important terms

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)	Gemeinsamer europäischer Referenzrahmen (GeR)
Competences/competencies	Kompetenzen
Language skills (listening, reading, speaking, writing, mediation)	Sprachliche Fertigkeiten (Hören, Lesen, Sprechen, Schreiben, Sprachmittlung)
Viewing/audio-visual comprehension	Hör-Sehverstehen
Autonomous (language) learning	Autonomes (Sprachen-) Lernen
Methodological competences	Methodische Kompetenzen
Integrative vs. transactional speech	Monologisches vs. dia-/multilogisches Sprechen
Kinaesthetic learner type	Bewegungsorientierter Lerner
Skimming	Orientierendes Lesen
Scanning	Selektives Lesen
Extensive reading (reading for enjoyment)	Kursorisches Lesen

Intensive reading (reading in detail with specific aims)	Statarisches/verweilendes Lesen

Important researchers / names

RESEARCHER/TERM	CONCEPT & EXPLANATION
CEFR (2001)	The *Common European Framework of reference for language learning, teaching and assessment* published in 2001 by the Council of Europe provides a framework for foreign language learning, teaching, and assessing across Europe. According to the framework, a language user can develop various degrees of competences in six Common References Levels (from A1 to C2).
CEFR Companion Volume with new descriptors (2018)	In 2018, the companion volume was published as a complement to the CEFR. It represents an update of the CEFR illustrative descriptors.
KMK	KMK stands for *Kultusministerkonferenz*, which develops educational standards for Germany.
Wolfgang Hallet (2012)	Hallet developed a model for complex competence-based tasks (*komplexe Kompetenzaufgaben*).
Frank Haß et al. (2017)	A group of researchers developed a structural model for competence-based lesson planning (Planungsraster für kompetenzorientierten Fremdsprachenunterricht). It focuses on identifying various components including 1) competence goals, 2) the topic, and 3) the outcome.

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TOPIC 4: Lexis and grammar

4.1 Perspectives of lexis (vocabulary) and grammar

Generally speaking, lexis (or vocabulary) and grammar can be inspected from three interrelated perspectives:

1) a **linguistic** perspective, which aims to describe how these language elements are used,
2) a **pedagogic** perspective, which describes lexis and grammar as important functional communicative competences, and
3) a **methodological** perspective, which considers how lexis and grammar are acquired and learnt, and, consequently, how they should be taught.

In the field of foreign language education, the pedagogic and the methodological perspective are of key concern to both teachers and researchers.

Vocabulary vs. lexis: The term *vocabulary* typically refers to single words (e.g. book, to read). The terms *lexis, lexical items* or *lexical chunks* are also used when discussing the learning of 'words'. Whereas these terms can be considered more suitable because they imply that words are frequently associated with other words they may occur with (e.g. *to read a book*), the term *vocabulary* is still widespread in syllabuses and literature.

Grammar: The term *grammar* is commonly used to refer to various grammatical/linguistic structures.

4.2 The current state of affairs

The teaching of lexis/vocabulary and grammar has been a hotly disputed topic in foreign language education. Traditionally, these two elements of language were separated: vocabulary was associated with learning word lists and grammar was associated with learning rules. This distinction is still visible today as textbooks often include a section with grammar rules and a vocabulary appendix – both separated. Researchers today, however, by and large agree that practical efforts must be made to combine vocabulary and grammar teaching/learning because they interact in actual language use.

4.3 Description and categorisation

Grammar and vocabulary, as well as phonology/graphology, are commonly described as the three elements of a language in addition to the language skills. Curricula for German schools are commonly based on this categorisation of language elements and skills. In Bavaria, the term competences (*Kompetenzen*) is currently used as an all-encompassing term. In the 'competence structure model' (*Kompetenzstrukturmodell*), vocabulary and grammar are listed under the category 'communicative competences' and are further described in the sub-category 'language elements' (*sprachliche Mittel*).

4.4 Grammatical competence and lexical competence

Grammatical competence and lexical competence both subsume the knowledge of, and ability to use the specific language element. Crucially, a language is considered to consist both of lexical as well as grammatical elements, which is why a separation of lexis and grammar is rather artificial and does not represent real language use. Nonetheless, the teaching of vocabulary and grammar was treated separately before the turn of the century and this is still visible today in teaching materials and in classrooms.

4.5 Vocabulary teaching and learning

English teachers play a crucial role in developing lexical competence. The teacher's role is to plan a vocabulary course, train learners in applying different strategies to learn vocabulary, teach vocabulary, and test it. In effect, although the textbook often plays a key role in presenting new vocabulary, it is also up to the teacher to identify learners' needs and their current level of proficiency. In the classroom, attention should primarily be given to high-frequency words. To help learners deal with low-frequency words, strategy training (e.g. learning how to use a dictionary or translation app) is important.

When teaching vocabulary, teachers should try to anchor words in learners' mental lexicon and help them establish associations between words and structures. Therefore, contextualizing words or lexical items and repetition are crucial. Vocabulary activities, for example, include creating word-ladders, mindmaps, wordclouds, and word-spiders, strategic activities focusing on paraphrasing and categorising, and games such as bingo.

> **High-frequency vs. low-frequency words**: Whereas high-frequency words refer to words that are most commonly used, low-frequency words are those that are less commonly used. In English, there are approx. 2000 high-frequency words.
>
> **The mental lexicon**: This term refers to a theoretical construct. It implies that humans store words systematically in a mental dictionary, i.e. the mental lexicon.

4.6 Grammar teaching and learning

Throughout the history of foreign language teaching, grammar instruction either played a major or a minor role. For example, in the Grammar Translation Method and in the Audiolingual Method, an explicit focus on form and pattern drills served to develop grammatical competence. The focus was on error-free output. Similarly, the traditional model of PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) also focuses on presenting a target structure, followed by practice and, finally, free production. At the other end of the spectrum, in Communicative Language Teaching, activities were favoured that enabled and fostered communication in real-life situations. The principle was 'fluency before accuracy'. This simplified outline of the role of grammar instruction indicates that two positions can be identified: an **interventionist position**, which considers explicit grammar teaching to be beneficial, and a **non-interventionist position**, which focuses on implicit learning and the provision of language input.

Most researchers today agree that there is no best method for teaching grammar because factors such as the learners' age, their level, expectations, and abilities can have an impact on the effectiveness of a particular approach. A balanced selection of various approaches, however, is also insufficient. Rather, teachers today are required to consider the contextual setting of their school as well as their (individual) learners and take into account current theoretical developments in addition to new insights from empirical and neurolinguistic research. A consideration of these factors enables a principled selection of suitable activities. Grammar activities, for example, include tandem activities, milling around (*Marktplatz*), dictation races, and discovery activities.

> **Interventionist (interface) vs. non-interventionist (non-interface) position:** Whereas the interventionist position states that explicit grammar teaching is beneficial, the non-interventionist position states that explicit grammar teaching plays only a minor role. Rather, implicit teaching (e.g. providing learners with input) is considered important.

Explicit vs. implicit knowledge: Explicit knowledge refers to conscious knowledge of grammar that is learnable and verbalizable. Implicit knowledge of grammar refers to procedural knowledge that can only be verbalized if it is made explicit.
Focus on form vs. forms: Researchers distinguish between two ways in which grammar teaching can be integrated in practice: 1) a *focus on form* (singular), which consists mainly of meaning-focused interaction with a brief and more spontaneous attention to grammatical structures (e.g. through tasks and topic-focused activities) and 2) a *focus on forms* (plural), which involves a primary focus on grammatical structures (e.g. through drills and by analysing rules).
Deductive vs. inductive teaching: A deductive approach involves the presentation of a rule that is then applied to language examples and internalised through exercises. An inductive approach involves the discovery and noticing of patterns before practising the target form.

4.7 Combining grammar and vocabulary teaching

Since the turn of the century, researchers have started to look more closely into the ways in which grammar and vocabulary are connected. The lexical approach by Michael Lewis, for instance, proposes the integration of activities that focus on repetition, noticing, and consciousness-raising instead of gap-fills or the explicit study of grammar rules. The aim of this approach is for learners to internalise lexical items or chunks of a language. Integrating grammatical chunks can be one way of combining the teaching of grammar and vocabulary in practice.

Explicit vs. implicit teaching: Explicit teaching of vocabulary and grammar includes a conscious analysis and the learning of grammar rules or vocabulary. Implicit teaching involves providing meaningful input or activities that foster language acquisition.
Chunk: The term *chunk* refers to the frequent combination of two or more words (e.g. *to watch a film*, *salt and pepper*).
Grammatical chunks: Grammatical chunks are frequent combinations of two or more words that contain a grammatical structure (e.g. *Have you ever …?/* present perfect; *If I were /* if-clause type 2).

4.8 Future perspectives

Digital technology can support the development of lexical and grammatical competence in the classroom and encourage learners to practice vocabulary and grammar at home. Web 2.0 tools and edu-apps can potentially enable differentiated practice and offer individual feedback.

Very recently, an outline of new descriptors was recently published by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, which moves away from the matrix of skills and elements. Instead, it promotes four categories for communicative activities: reception, production, interaction, and mediation (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 31). These four categories are considered more appropriate because they reflect how people actually use the language. A move towards such a categorisation places a new role upon grammar and lexis that will need to be examined in the future.

Important terms and abbreviations

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Grammatical competence	Grammatische/Grammatikalische Kompetenz
Lexical competence	Lexikalische Kompetenz
Language elements (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation/ intonation, graphology)	Verfügen über sprachliche Mittel (Wortschatz, Grammatik, Aussprache/Intonation, Orthographie)
Mental lexicon	Mentales Lexikon
Explicit teaching / knowledge	Explizites Unterrichten / Wissen
Implicit teaching / knowledge	Implizites Unterrichten / Wissen
PPP (Presentation – Practice – Production)	Präsentation, Übung, Produktion
Chunk (e.g. *Have you ever …?*)	Chunk/Mehrworteinheit

Important researchers

RESEARCHER	CONCEPT & EXPLANATION
Stephen Krashen (1981)	Krashen argues that exposure to comprehensible input is necessary for language acquisition. Whereas the learning of grammar rules can be useful for monitoring the accuracy of output, it cannot translate into the storage of language for spontaneous use.
Michael Long (1981)	Long distinguishes between a focus on form (a brief and spontaneous attention to structures) and a focus on forms (a planned and primary focus on structures).
Detlef & Margaret von Ziegésar (1992)	These practitioners developed a model for grammar teaching that consists of five phases: *1) Demonstration, 2) Verstehen und Reagieren, 3) Reproduzieren, 4) Produzieren, 5) Bewusstmachen*. Although this model can be easily put into practice, it does not comply with theoretical understandings of how grammatical competence is best acquired.
Michael Lewis (1997, 2008)	Lewis' Lexical Approach proposes an approach to syllabus design based on lexis rather than grammar. His approach favours activities that focus on repetition, noticing, and consciousness-raising rather than an explicit study of the language.
Michael Hoey (2003, 2012)	Hoey's linguistic theory of Lexical Priming suggests that whenever we encounter a word or phrase, this occurs along with its collocates. Priming is said to influence how we use words and phrases in oral and written production.
Andreas Müller-Hartmann & Marita Schocker (2011)	Müller-Hartmann and Schocker propose a lexico-grammatical approach that seeks to combine the teaching and learning of vocabulary and grammar.
Werner Kieweg (2012)	Kieweg suggests a visual approach to grammar teaching that seeks to develop grammatical competence through visual elements.
Susanne Niemeier (2017)	Niemeier offers a task-based approach that integrates grammar teaching implicitly in communicative lessons.

Further reading

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2. Ellis, Rod. (2006). Current Issues in the Teaching of Grammar: An SLA Perspective. *TESOL Quarterly* 40 (1), pp. 83-107.

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5. Hinkel, Eli (Ed.). (2016): *Teaching English grammar to speakers of other languages*. Routledge.
6. Lindstromberg, Seth & Boers, Frank. (2008). *Teaching Chunks of Language: From noticing to remembering*. Helbling.
7. Niemeier, Susanne. (2017). *Task-based grammar teaching of English: where cognitive grammar and task-based language teaching meet.* Narr Francke Attempo.
8. Summer, Theresa. (fc 2020). Grammar Education in the Global Village: A Guideline for Grammar Activity Design. In Roland Ißler & Uwe Küchler (Eds.), *Impulse zur Fremdsprachendidaktik – Issues in Foreign Language Education*, *Wissenschaft und Lehrerbildung Bd. 3*.
9. Timmis, Ivor. (2017). Introduction: Teaching Grammar. In Maria Eisenmann & Theresa Summer (Eds.), *Basic Issues in EFL Teaching and Learning* (pp. 119-130)*. Winter.
10. Webb, Stuart & Nation, Paul. (2017). *How Vocabulary is Learned*. OUP. (Ch. 4: activities)

Practical examples

- *Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht Englisch*: 2016 (140): Wortschatz und Grammatik integriert vermitteln.
- *Englisch 5-10*: e.g. 2020 (51): Grammar in Motion.
- *Praxis Englisch*: 2017 (2): Grammar matters! A communicative approach.
- Selivan, Leo. (2018). *Lexical Grammar: Activities for Teaching Chunks and Exploring Patterns*. CUP.
- Ur, Penny. (2012). *Vocabulary Activities*. CUP.
- Ur, Penny. (2009). *Grammar Practice Activities: A Practical Guide for Teachers*. CUP.

TOPIC 5: Intercultural Learning, Transcultural Learning, and Global Education

5.1 Introduction

The term *intercultural learning* is a buzzword in English language education and signifies the close relationship between culture and language learning. Due to migration and globalisation, the great majority of people today lives in multicultural and multilingual societies. In addition, digitalisation has resulted in online interaction by people across different parts of the world. Consequently, teachers need to raise learners' cultural awareness and help them develop relevant competencies for society. For the English language classroom, this means that learners need to become interculturally competent users of English. The development of intercultural communicative competence is important so that learners can communicate and interact appropriately when using English outside the classroom. Whereas intercultural learning still plays an important component in curricula across Germany, recent developments in scholarly discussions have moved on and started to introduce a new concept referred to as transcultural learning. In addition to that, the movement of global education has also contributed to a reconsideration of the role of intercultural learning.

> **Intercultural learning**: Although no universally acknowledged definition of intercultural learning exists, the term *intercultural learning* is generally used to refer to the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, and attitudes that help learners to understand cultures and interact with people from different cultures.

5.2 Intercultural communicative competence

The goal of intercultural learning in English language education is the development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC). A very influential and frequently cited model of intercultural communicative competence was developed in 1997 by Michael Byram in his book *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence*. Byram's model consists of three components (knowledge, skills, and attitudes) and is supplemented by five values: 1) attitudes, 2) knowledge, 3) skills of interpreting and relating, 4) skills of discovery and interaction, and 5) critical cultural awareness.

	Skills of interpreting and relating: interpret foreign culture, relate it to one's own) (*savoir comprendre*)	
Knowledge: of self and other, of interaction (*savoir*)	**Critical cultural awareness:** evaluate own/foreign culture (*savoir s'engager*)	**Attitudes:** relativise self, value others (*savoir etre*)
	Skills of discovery and interacting: discover facts about foreign culture, apply in interaction (*savoir apprendre/faire*)	

Figure 1: Intercultural communicative competence (based on Byram 1997)

Applying this model in teaching practice means that the focus is on presenting new knowledge to learners and materials that encourage them to discover and interpret other cultures and relate them to their own. Overall, the goal of this model is for learners to become intercultural (rather than native) speakers of English.

In Germany, **intercultural communicative competence** (ICC) (*interkulturelle kommunikative Kompetenz - IKK*) plays a key role in educational standards and curricula of all school types. In primary schools, the focus is mostly on raising learners' interest in other cultures and becoming familiar with the English-speaking world through rhymes, songs, poems and picture books, as well as dealing with cultural traditions and festivities. Secondary school teaching focuses on an increasing complexity of different authentic texts including literary texts, feature films, and exchange projects – also in virtual form.

> **Intercultural communicative competence**: The term *intercultural communicative competence* (ICC) refers to the ability to understand one's own culture(s) and other cultures, and to successfully apply knowledge and understanding while communicating with people from other cultures. Byram's influential model of ICC (1997) includes knowledge, attitudes, skills, and critical cultural awareness.

5.3 Transculturality and transcultural learning

The concept of interculturality is criticised by some scholars for separating cultures into categories of *self* and *other* and viewing culture as a static construct. They propose a concept of transculturality, which focuses on cultural complexity and hybridity. In Germany, the philosopher Wolfgang Welsch developed the model of transculturality (*Transkulturalität*) to describe the complexity of today's societies and cultures that are interconnected with each other and do not necessarily match with borders of national cultures. This model was applied to English language education by some scholars. Wolfgang Hallet (2002), for instance, describes the foreign language classroom as a third space in which transcultural negotiation processes take place. The theory of the third space, which was initially developed by the cultural critic Homi Bhabha in the 1990s, was also discussed by Claire Kramsch (1993). She uses the term **third space** to describe a metaphorical space for dialogue between individuals and a dialogical approach to the learning of (foreign) languages and cultures. The concept of the *third space* thus presents an alternative to the binary model of intercultural communication. Werner Delanoy (2006) combines intercultural learning with transcultural learning by suggesting a focus on cultural differences as well as on hybridity and the negotiation of meaning in transcultural settings.

Whereas transcultural learning is continuously receiving greater attention in academic discussions, English curricula and English classrooms seem to primarily focus on intercultural learning. This indicates that there is a greater need for practice-oriented research in this field to identify the potential of transculturality as a theoretical concept for teaching practice. Nonetheless, scholars generally agree upon the fact that inter- or transcultural learning in English language classrooms should include a focus on cultural diversity and hybrid identities.

> **Transculturality**: The theoretical concept of *transculturality* accounts for the hybridity, complexity, and variation of cultures. A transcultural identity therefore describes an identity that does not reflect one particular culture, but a hybrid mix of different cultures that cannot be attributed to one culture alone.

5.4 Global education

Teaching English today is not only about making learners master the target language and develop intercultural (or transcultural) communicative competence. It should also illustrate social responsibilities to learners and encourage them to be better world citizens by acting appropriately. This is the key notion of global education, which emerged initially in the 1970s and found a more substantial place in foreign language education in the early 21st century.

Politically, the United Nations Conference in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro and the goal of Agenda 21 played an important role in developing an action program for global sustainable development. Today, the global goals (or SDGs – Sustainable Development Goals) by the United Nations provide an opportunity not only for international partnership in addressing global challenges such as poverty, discrimination, and environmental problems, but they should also call for a shift in education. Teachers of all subjects, including English, therefore, are also encouraged to deal with these goals, 17 global goals in total, in their lessons. In Germany, Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) ("Bildung für nachhaltige Entwicklung"; BNE) has found a substantial place in educational curricula.

The goal of global education is to develop learners' global awareness. According to Kip A. Cates, this comprises four target areas:
1) **knowledge** (of global problems, causes, and solutions),
2) **skills** (critical thinking and seeing issues from multiple perspectives),
3) **attitudes** (of global awareness and respect for diversity), and
4) **action** (thinking globally and acting locally) (Cates, [2]2013, p. 278).
In a document published in 2018 titled *OECD PISA Global Competence Framework* a description of measuring global competence is provided. It also highlights the importance of being able to examine global and intercultural issues as well as acting for collective well-being and sustainable development (OECD, 2018, p. 7). Similar to discussions surrounding global education and the development of global competence, Byram developed the concept of Education for Intercultural Citizenship (EIC). It aims to include a greater focus on political, social, and cultural issues in English language education.

Figure 2: Global competence (based on OECD 2018)

Global education and EIC can be implemented in practice in a variety of ways. For instance, the global goals can be dealt with and reflected upon in class and other global issues or problems such as poverty, the climate crisis or discrimination can set the basis for topic-based lesson sequences. Crucially, however, mere discussions or analyses of texts are considered insufficient. A focus on action is considered vital as learners, for instance, carry out experiments in their homes, schools, virtual settings, or local communities. Based on the motto "think globally, act locally", learners should become actively involved in solving global problems by fostering peace, living a sustainable life, and respecting their surroundings.

Important terms and abbreviations

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Intercultural learning	Interkulturelles Lernen
Intercultural communicative competence	Interkulturelle kommunikative Kompetenz
Transcultural learning	Transkulturelles Lernen
Transculturality	Transkulturalität
Global education	Globale Erziehung/Bildung
Global learning	Globales Lernen
Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)	Bildung für nachhaltige Entwicklung (BNE)
Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)	Ziele für nachhaltige Entwicklung
Education for Intercultural Citizenship (EIC)	Bildung für interkulturelle Staatsbürgerschaft/Erziehung zur interkulturellen Staatsbürgerschaft

Important researchers & abbreviations

RESEARCHER	CONCEPT & EXPLANATION
Michael Byram (1997)	Byram is best-known for his outline of the model of ICC (intercultural communicative competence) published in 1997. In recent years, he has been working on the concept of EIC (Education for Intercultural Citizenship), which focuses on identification with people beyond national borders and thus proposes foreign language education for intercultural citizenship.
Homi K. Bhabha (1994)	Bhabha is a cultural critic who argues that difference and hybridity are the essence of culture. Bhabha developed the theory of the *third space*, which explains the uniqueness and hybridity of each individual and context.
Claire Kramsch (1993, 2009)	Kramsch is an applied linguist that supports a more dialogical approach to the learning of foreign languages and cultures. She uses the term *third space* to describe a metaphorical space for dialogue between individuals that is explored in the target language. The notion of third space is thus an alternative to the binary model of intercultural communication.
Wolfgang Welsch (1999)	Welsch is a German philosopher who developed the concept of transculturality in the 1990s. It contests the concept of single cultures. Transculturality considers cultures as interconnected with each other, arguing that lifestyles go beyond national cultures. This understanding was then applied to and discussed in the context of English language education.
Wolfgang Hallet (2002)	Hallet applied the concept of transculturality to foreign language education by describing the classroom as a "third space".
Werner Delanoy (2013)	Delanoy combines intercultural learning with transcultural learning by focusing on cultural differences in addition to the hybridity of cultures.
Kip W. Cates (2009, 2013)	Cates presents a description of global awareness consisting of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and action.
SDGs / global goals	The SDGs (Sustainable Development Goals) comprise 17 so-called *global goals* that aim to achieve a more sustainable future for the world. Set in 2015 by the United Nations, they are intended to be achieved by 2030.
OECD (2018)	The publication OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) PISA Global Competence Framework provides a description of measuring global competence.

Further reading

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4. Delanoy, Werner. (²2013). From the "inter" to "Trans"?. In Maria Eisenmann & Theresa Summer (Eds.), *Basic Issues in EFL Teaching and Learning* (pp. 157-167). Winter.
5. Freitag-Hild, Britta. (2018). Teaching Culture – Intercultural Competence, Transcultural Learning, Global Education. In Carola Surkamp & Britta Viebrock (Eds), *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (pp. 159-177). J.B. Metzler.
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9. OECD. (2018). *Preparing our youth for an inclusive and sustainable world: The OECD PISA global competence framework.* https://www.oecd.org/education/Global-competency-for-an-inclusive-world.pdf, 30 July 2019.
10. Risager, Karen. (²2013). Introduction: Intercultural Learning: Raising Cultural Awareness. In Maria Eisenmann & Theresa Summer (Eds.), *Basic Issues in EFL Teaching and Learning* (pp. 143-154). Winter.
11. Welsch, Wolfgang. (1999). Transculturality. The Puzzling Form of Cultures Today. In, Mike Featherstone & Scott Lash (Eds.), *Spaces of Culture: City, Nation, World* (pp. 194-213). Sage.

Practical examples

- Corbett, John. (2010): *Intercultural language activities*. CUP.
- *Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht Englisch*: e.g. 2019 (161): Cultural mediation; 2019 (159): Seeking refuge; 2014 (129): Ecodidactics
- *Englisch 5-10*: e.g. 2019 (47): Global Goals; 2018 (42): Great Britain; 2017 (38): Discovering NYC
- *Grundschule Englisch:* e.g. All Year Round; 2018 (62)
- *Praxis Englisch*: e.g. 2018 (4): Democracy and why it matters to us; 2017 (6): Celebrate diversity – Embracing our common humanity

TOPIC 6: Media and Materials

6.1 Definition

Films, pictures, games, coursebooks, and worksheets: Media surrounds us in our daily life as well as in schools. It offers teachers and learners many ways to support and enrich teaching and learning. According to Michael Evans (2017), media can be viewed as

> […] the vehicles, or stimuli, that convey a pedagogical message which is linguistic, cultural, literary or other. At a second level, the message is that the media shape our language teaching and language learning behaviour. Media are thus interpreted as textual, visual, or aural resources used for the didactic purpose of, for instance, teaching English as a foreign language.

Helene Decke-Cornill and Lutz Küster (2011) define media as "Mittel, Mittler, Vermittler, Brücken." This definition of imparting and transmitting knowledge includes not only technical media but also language and thus teachers themselves. Media do not per se define good or bad teaching. They are a tool to serve teachers and learners.

Furthermore, it is necessary to distinguish between media and materials. Whereas media include various modes of delivery, materials include a great variety of teaching and learning resources such as worksheets, films, flashcards, and listening texts. Both play an important part in English language classrooms.

The term *media* is often used to refer to different communication channels or to describe a 'carrier of information' (*Informationsträger*). In English language teaching it mostly refers to a specific mode of delivery such as a film, which would be classified as audio-visual media or an app – an interactive medium.
The term *materials* subsumes various resources used for teaching and learning.

6.2 Media and the curriculum

The educational standards for intermediate education in English language teaching are divided into several areas, one of which is the so-called 'methodological competence' (*Methodenkompetenz*). These standards provide an overview of general media skills learners should develop in English lessons. For example, students should be able to select media for presentation purposes or use media for communication. The Bavarian 'LehrplanPLUS' also addresses this field of competence and refers to it as 'text and media competences' (*Text- und Medienkompetenz*) in the so-called 'competence (or competency) structure model' (*Kompetenzstrukturmodell*). Here we find aspects of media literacy like open-mindedness towards different forms of media and the ability to use media for research, repetition, and learning. There are various models of 'media literacy' that illustrate the different dimensions of this competence.

6.3 Models of 'media competence'

One of the aims of modern English teaching is the acquisition of skills in dealing with media. There are several models that describe the concept of 'media competence', of which one of the most relevant is certainly the model by Stefan Aufenanger. He distinguishes six dimensions: the cognitive dimension, the pragmatic dimension, the moral dimension, the social dimension, the affective dimension, and the aesthetic dimension. These dimensions include aspects of knowledge about media and proper media usage.

Gerhard Tulodziecki defines different tasks of media education such as using media, creating media content or critically evaluating the impact of media. (Decke-Cornill/ Küster, 2011, p. 218).

> **Media competence (competency):** The term *media competence* describes the skills that everyone should have as an active producer and/ or passive user of media. In school, both perspectives are important as learners should create media content as well as use media for learning purposes.

6.4 Digital literacy

Just as media and its usage changes in the course of time, competence models must also be adapted to these circumstances. When talking about 21st century teaching and learning, models of media competence must extend to the digital world. EFL learners today need to critically evaluate their internet sources, be aware of how to protect their personal data but at the same time use digital media for effective communication and take part in intercultural exchange. Therefore, the European Commission drafted a paper that provides an outline of various competences that an EU-citizen should acquire in a digital world. This so-called Digital Competence Framework (DigComp 2017) includes five main competence areas:
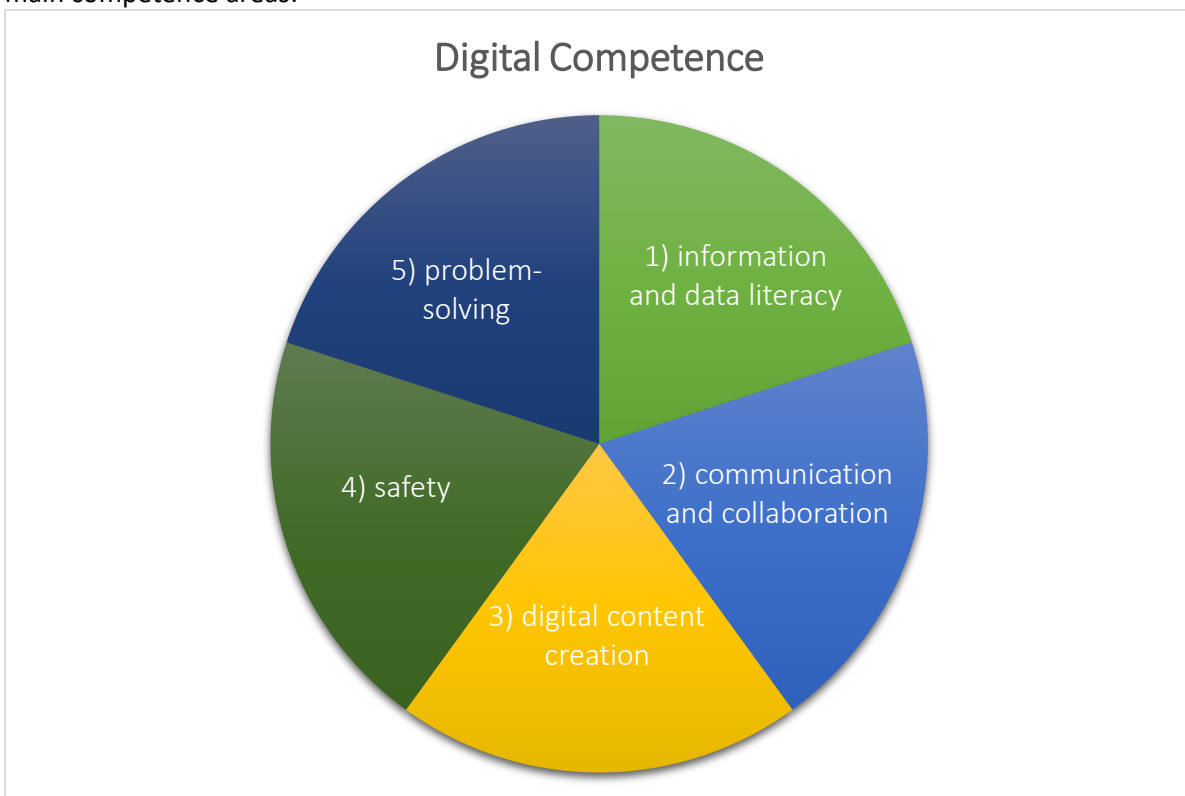

Figure 3: Digital Competence (DigComp 2017)

Overall, this framework offers a tool to improve people's digital competence and for this, various updated lists and examples have been published online.

6.5 Forms of media

In the classroom, we encounter various forms of media and materials such as worksheets, films, apps – not to forget the teachers themselves as well as the learners. They all are essential for EFL teaching and learning. Different types of media can be categorised by looking at the ways in which they are being received. A blackboard, for instance, is a visual medium, whereas a film requires two sensory channels (eyes and ears) and is therefore an audio-visual medium. Another way of categorising media is to examine their historical development. In this case, the textbook, for instance, would be

categorised as traditional media, whereas a film would be classified as modern media, and an educational app or other online tools would be classified as new media. Let us examine these three examples more closely.

6.6 Textbooks

Textbooks continue to be one of the most important media in EFL classrooms and must strictly adhere to curricular outlines to get approved by the Ministry of Education. Therefore, many teachers are keen to work with the textbook because it provides them with a practical tool for putting curricular requirements into practice. Textbooks can, however, be integrated in a rather flexible way and teachers can choose suitable texts and activities for their learners or include other materials and develop their own activities, too. Textbooks aim to develop a range of skills and competencies while also providing options for individualisation and differentiation. Nowadays they are also available in digital form and they offer a broad variety of additional materials. These, for instance, include books or apps for vocabulary and grammar practice, short films, skills training, and exam preparation materials.

6.7 Films

Films are a popular medium in English language teaching as they display the target culture in an accessible way and are potentially motivating for learners. Integrating films in teaching practice requires a careful development of activities so that learners can cope with the language of a film as well as other important film features such as the film genre, the plot, the use of camera, lighting, and colour, and the use of sound and music. As feature films are a rather time-consuming form of media, teachers can opt for a great variety of short films. These, for instance, include trailers, news reports, explainer videos, TV series, and pedagogic short films created for textbooks. It is important thereby to consider criteria for selection and to develop appropriate activities.

6.8 Educational Apps

Smartphones are used widely by children and adolescents. In the annual JIM-study on the media usage behaviour of teenagers, the data on smartphone ownership per household has been between 98% and 99% in the last few years (https://www.mpfs.de/studien/jim-studie/2018/). Literature has had some interesting ideas about how to integrate this everyday world of students into the classroom for some time now. So-called educational apps (edu-apps) are applications that have been specially designed for learners. Most edu-apps are intuitively designed, thus relatively easy to use, and most of them are available free of charge, at least in a limited version. Teachers and students can choose from a variety of digital resources, albeit this can sometimes be overwhelming. There are apps that foster creative and collaborative work among students, for instance, allowing learners to produce their own short films and animations. Politicians have long since recognised the need for digitisation in schools, so improvements in schools' technical equipment can be expected in the years to come.

Important terms and abbreviations

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Educational standards	Bildungsstandards
Media: auditory, visual, audio-visual, interactive	Medien: auditiv, visuell, audio-visuell, interaktiv
Teaching materials	Unterrichtsmaterial
Textbook	Lehrbuch/Schulbuch
Media competence	Medienkompetenz
Digital literacy / competence	Digitale Medienkompetenz/ Digitalkompetenz

Digital competence framework (DigComp 2.0)	Europäischer Referenzrahmen für digitale Kompetenzen

Important researchers

RESEARCHER	CONCEPT & EXPLANATION
Stefan Aufenanger	Aufenanger designed a model of media competence. In this model he distinguishes six dimensions being coequal: the cognitive dimension, the pragmatic dimension, the moral dimension, the social dimension, the affective dimension, and the aesthetic dimension. These dimensions include aspects of knowledge about media or proper media usage.
Gerhard Tulodziecki	In a model of media competence by Tulodziecki, he defines media competence by focusing on two key aspects: "Kenntnisse über Medien, Analyse- und Urteilsfähigkeit" and "Aufgabenbereiche der Medienpädagogik".
Thomas Strasser	Strasser is author of the books *Mind the App* and *Mind the App 2.0*. He presents a taxonomy of digital tools, classifying apps under categories such as "presentation", "Visualisation", and "collaboration".

Further reading

1. Decke-Cornill, Helene & Küster, Lutz. (2010). *Fremdsprachendidaktik. Eine Einführung.* Narr. Here: pp. 93-108.
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Practical examples

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- *Englisch 5-10*, 46, 2019: BYOD
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- *Praxis Fremdsprachenunterricht - Englisch*, 4, 2017: Fernsehserien*;* 1, 2020, OER - Open Educational Resources

TOPIC 7: Texts and Literature

7.1 The term *text*

Traditionally, the term *text* referred to a printed medium consisting primarily of words with no or very few pictures. In the light of digitalisation and the constant development of new, multimodal artefacts, a narrow definition of text as a printed artefact is no longer valid. An open or broad definition of text must therefore include all medial forms of textual and/or pictorial expression. These include online texts, pictures, charts, graphs, comics, audio formats and audio-visual media as well as interactive, discontinuous, and multimodal texts. This open definition of text can also be found in English syllabuses in the description of text and media competence ("*offener Textbegriff*", e.g. LehrplanPLUS Bayern Realschule, Fachprofile, p. 3).

When it comes to introducing literature in different stages of learning, it is possible to distinguish between three different types of text: authentic texts, which were not produced for the classroom context, but for a native speaker audience, simplified or graded texts (= *didaktisierte Texte*), and pedagogic texts (= *didaktische Texte*), which have been created solely for learners of the foreign language). Depending on the learning goals and learners' level of proficiency, different texts can be chosen in practice.

> **Text:** In educational contexts, the term *text* is defined very broadly and includes all medial forms of textual as well as pictorial expression including printed and digital texts, fiction and non-fiction.

7.2 Historical development and current situation

Texts in their great variety have always played an important role in EFL classrooms. Whereas the teaching of literature initially focused on canonized, critically acclaimed texts, the perspective on how to integrate literature in the classroom has since changed considerably. The integration of non-fictional texts and everyday cultural artefacts has led to a markedly broader text selection. Teachers can choose from a wide variety of texts including feature films, documentaries, songs, chat messages, newspaper reports, comics, and picture books. Due to the influence of the reader-response theory and the emphasis on communicative approaches, learners are now viewed as a part of the meaning-making process and are no longer seen as mere recipients of expert knowledge. Learners are also encouraged to create or (re-)design texts themselves and creatively respond to different texts. Moreover, especially literary texts play a major part in promoting the socio- and intercultural aspects of learning as well as global education. These aims are reflected by an opening of the literary canon towards more diverse texts. These include new and varying formats of expression (such as multimodal texts), and texts from different cultures and backgrounds, such as New English literatures.

Overall, perspectives on how to approach literary texts have changed over time. Similar to the postmethod condition that describes current classroom practices, there is a "post-theoretical stance" on teaching literature (Delanoy/Eisenmann/Matz, 2015, p. 8). This combination of different theories necessitates approaching a single text from multiple perspectives, for example, by considering reader response, intertextuality, form, performative aspects, and/or multimodality at the same time.

7.3 Reasons for teaching literature

Whereas numerous authentic texts play an important role in developing different competences, literary texts play a special role in EFL classrooms. Both fictional and non-fictional texts may serve as a starting point for working on the major basic skills in the EFL classroom (listening, speaking, reading, writing, mediating), as well as providing the basis for developing linguistic competences (lexis, grammar, pragmatics). However, literature is also a major tool for fostering critical thinking, triggering emotional responses, developing empathy, influencing their understanding, and supporting cognitive learning goals. The identification with characters and a change in perspective can also play an important role in promoting intercultural communicative competence through literature. Moreover, literary literacy, as a competence, has become a desideratum of its own.

7.4 Literary literacy

Literary literacy means much more than just being literate in a foreign language. It encompasses different categories of skills and reading strategies that enable learners to come to a complex understanding of a text. However, these sets of skills cannot always be clearly distinguished from one another. Models of literary literacy generally include cognitive, pragmatic, and affective aspects, as well as unique additional dimensions depending on the individual researcher's perspective and goals.

Burwitz-Melzer (2007, p. 138), for example, defines five sub-competences of literary literacy. These are based on a model of reading competence and include motivational, cognitive and affective, intercultural, communicational, and reflexive competences. Nünning and Nünning (2007, p. 97) describe six different dimensions of narrative competence, namely a passive, receptionist-aesthetic dimension, a cognitive dimension, a generic dimension, an analytical dimension, an active, productive-aesthetic dimension, and a performative dimension. This model stresses the importance of being able to understand, analyse, and produce complex narrative texts in both written and oral form. It includes knowledge about and recognition of important narrative elements, structures, and genres as well as the ability to critically analyse narrative texts and to break them down into their specific elements.

Lütge (2012, pp. 198f) proposes a model based on Hallet's (2007) four dimensions of literary literacy, namely:

1. **Literary Reading Competence**, which includes general reading skills, close reading, and emotionally responsive reading
2. **Literary as Cultural Competence**, which includes recognising intercultural and historical knowledge in literature, using literary texts as templates for individual and personal narrative responses, readiness and ability of learners to enter into a dialogue with the literary text, accepting differences, and perceiving otherness as an enrichment
3. **Competence of Reflection**, which includes reflecting actions, attitudes, and values as presented in the literary work, with reference to the narrative discourse and its representation and on a meta-level, namely the reading process and the emotions involved with it
4. **Competence of Foreign Language Discourse**, which includes developing foreign language learning, recognising and making use of foreign language discourse in literature for the

learners' communication and interaction, and relating perspectives and world views in literary works to one's own life

7.5 Approaches and methods

No matter which text is integrated in teaching practice, teachers can select from a variety of approaches. A very common approach for including texts, for instance, a poem, a song, or a podcast, is PWP. It stands for three phases: 1) pre-, 2), while-, and 3) post-listening, reading, or viewing. The aim of this approach is to support learners in understanding the text, constructing meaning from it, and interacting with it productively and creatively.

The pre-listening, reading, or viewing phase commonly introduces the topic of a text and provides important language input or information required to understand the text. The **while-phase** serves to promote engagement with the text itself. Common instructions are matching headlines or pictures with the corresponding part of the text or identifying true and false statements. The post-phase encourages learners to reflect upon the text and personally relate to it, transform, or creatively respond to it. Post-activities are often creative and provide learners with different options to choose from.

In literary studies, two main approaches to teaching and analyzing literature have been presented: the New Criticism (focusing on a formal analysis of the text) and the Reader-Response theory (focusing on individual reception processes). Both of these approaches lend different valuable insights into the meaning of a text and should thus be included as complementary processes towards a more complex understanding of the text.

A variety of additional activities is suitable for working with texts in the PWP-sequence (Lütge 2018: 188)

➔ **production-oriented activities:** They are aimed at the creation of new texts, rewriting existing texts and/or creative expansions or transformations of the original.
➔ **action-oriented activities:** Their objective is getting learners engaged in performative acts or creating a representation of the text in a different medium than the original.
➔ **performance-based approaches:** These see learners as "a constitutive part of the literary reception process" (Lütge 2018: 189) by asking them to act out perspectives different from their own (e.g. by presenting a monologue, pantomime, recreating individual scenes, or even staging a full theatre performance).

Additionally, working with texts may include an analysis of aesthetic and cultural aspects of a text with regard to cultural representation or a discussion on how formal aspects of a text (like literary devices, structure, style, ...) impact the reader's impression and shape the meaning of the final product.

The PWP-sequence: The PWP (pre, while, post) model is a popular model for working with texts in the EFL classroom. It divides a lesson or lesson sequence into three phases: 1) pre-, 2) while-, and post-listening, reading, or viewing. Its goal is to prepare learners for the text and its topic (*pre*), support the learners' comprehension process (*while*), and encourage them to actively produce texts themselves (*post*).
New Criticism: New Criticism is an approach in literary studies, which inspired a formal and teacher-centred analysis of texts and films in EFL classrooms. It includes a content summary, an analysis of stylistic devices, a comment on the text's message, and an analysis of the alleged author's intention (Lütge, 2018, p. 186).

Reader-response theory: The reader-response theory has a major influence on contemporary teaching of literature. It "builds on the learners' cognitive and emotional processes of sense-making" (Lütge, 2018, p. 186). Activities therefore focus "on the reception process of a text or film" (ibid.) rather than the product itself. The reader-response theory has laid the ground for valid individual and subjective interpretations in the EFL classroom.

7.6 Future perspectives

Dealing with literary texts has become a central focus at all age levels and levels of language proficiency. Genres such as picturebooks, short poems, nursery rhymes, songs, or short animation films have become popular text formats in the EFL classroom. What is more, the inclusion of CYAL (children's and young adult literature) as well as graded and simplified readers has resulted in an extension of the literary canon. Furthermore, the growing number of suitable multimodal texts has diversified the text selection dramatically, enabling learners to develop critical literacies through visually supported texts. As a great variety of textual, graphic, and audiovisual adaptations of the same story are available, approaches can be adopted that compare the interplay of these adaptations and thus promote media literacy. Finally, the development of digital competence can be fostered by encouraging learners to create and re-create text-related products with digital apps.

Important terms and abbreviations

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Literary competence/literary literacy	Literarische Kompetenz
Pre-, while-, and post-reading/listening/viewing activities	Aufgaben, die vor, während, und nach der Textlektüre/dem Anhören des Textes/dem Ansehen des Filmes ausgeführt werden
Multimodal (i.e. a text which uses more than one mode to convey meaning, e.g. by employing text, pictures, photographs, comics etc.)	multimodal
Non-fiction vs. fiction/literature	Sachtexte vs. fiktionale/literarische Texte
Action-oriented approach	Handlungsorientierung
Production-oriented approach	Produktionsorientierung
Performative approach	Performativer Ansatz
CYAL (children's and young adult literature)	Kinder- und Jugendliteratur
Simplified and graded readers	vereinfachte und/oder annotierte bzw. didaktisierte Lektüren, teils nach Originaltexten welche sprachlich und inhaltlich angepasst wurden (simplified) oder mit Blick auf ein bestimmtes Sprachniveau eigens geschaffene Texte (graded readers)

Important researchers

RESEARCHER	CONCEPT & EXPLANATION
Stephen Krashen	Krashen stresses the importance of extensive reading as the key to language learning and thereby also to literary literacy.
Eva Burwitz-Melzer (2007)	Burwitz-Melzer suggests a model of literary literacy based on a model of reading competence.
Lothar Bredella (2008)	Bredella has put forth a model of skills and reading strategies which may be read as a starting point for literary literacy. He specifically stresses the importance of individual responses and personal reactions to literary texts, and underlines the significance of emotional involvement.
Ansgar Nünning and Vera Nünning (2007)	These practitioners developed a model of narrative competence, stressing the importance of story competence and storytelling as the key to literary literacy.
Wolfgang Hallet (2007); Christiane Lütge (2012)	Hallet proposed a model of four elements that constitute literary literacy in a broader sense. The model has been modified by Lütge into a version that gives more consideration to the progression of each set of skills.

Further reading

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   ➔ Focus on p. 7-9 for a concise overview of the topic

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9. Lütge, Christiane. (2018). Literature and Film: Approaching Fictional Texts and Media. In Carola Surkamp & Britta Viebrock (Eds.), *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (pp. 177-194)*. J.B. Metzler.

10. Nünning, Ansgar & Nünning, Vera. (2007): Erzählungen verstehen – verständlich erzählen. Dimensionen und Funktionen narrativer Kompetenz. In Lothar Bredella & Wolfgang Hallet (Eds.), *Literaturunterricht, Kompetenzen und Bildung* (pp. 87-106). WVT.

Practical examples

- *Grundschule Englisch*: 63/2018 "Picture books", 60/2017 "Drama"
- *Grundschulmagazin Englisch*: 4/2017 "Fantasy & mystery"
- *Englisch 5-10*: 45/2019 "Picture books", 43/2018 "Poetry", 40/2017 "Tell a tale" (fairy tales)
- *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht Englisch*: 162/2019 "Horror films", 160/2019 "Short narrative fiction", 151/2018 „Fantasy", 146/2017 "TV series", 145/2017 "Crime fiction"
- *Praxis Fremdsprachenunterricht*: 1/2019 "Literatur 2.1", 3/2018 "Musik & Lyrik", 6/2017 "Theater", 4/2017 "Fernsehserien"
- Thaler, Engelbert. (2009). *Method Guide: kreative Methoden für den Literaturunterricht in den Klassen 7-12*. Schöningh.

TOPIC 8: Differentiation, individualisation, and learner autonomy

8.1 Current state of affairs

One of the most challenging tasks for teachers is to do justice to the heterogeneity of students.

> **Heterogeneity**: The term *heterogeneity* (Ancient Green *heteros* = "other, different") in education refers to the diversity of learners. It is widely acknowledged thereby that a considerable heterogeneity exists within individuals as well as groups of learners.

Learners can, according to Surkamp and Viebrock (2018), differ in many aspects such as:

Previous experiences	Cognitive abilities (aptitude)	Known languages	Strategies
Social background	Learning styles	Motivation	…

Research has also shown that the process of learning a foreign language is a very individual one. Moreover, this naturally given heterogeneity is reinforced by current developments such as migration or educational reforms (e.g. inclusion).

There are various ways of dealing with heterogeneity in the English language classroom. Surkamp/Viebrock (2018) identify five rather general (teaching) principles: 1) differentiation and individualisation, 2) learner autonomy, 3) holistic learning, 4) multilingualism (dealing with the linguistic diversity of learners), and 5) competence orientation (a focus on competences rather than individual skills). The principles 1) to 3) are discussed below.

8.2 Conceptualisations and objectives

Differentiation "describes the use of strategies and techniques to teach groups of learners with different abilities, interests and learning needs" (Surkamp/Viebrock, 2018, p. 200). The most common classification of differentiation is the division into external and internal differentiation, which has been adopted by many researchers such as Bönsch, Eisenmann, and Surkamp/Viebrock:

> ***External** differentiation* is often referred to as static or fixed. It is predetermined by educational policy guidelines such as certain school structures (*Mittelschule, Realschule, Gymnasium*) and not (or hardly) changeable through individuals (for example teachers).

> ***Internal** differentiation* (also called *Binnendifferenzierung*) is often described as dynamic or flexible. Teachers themselves have an influence on this type of differentiation (see also 8.4) within the classroom by adjusting educational settings to the learning needs of a group. This can be very challenging as it means that a thorough diagnosis of the learners' learning level must be made in order to plan lessons accordingly.

Individualisation is often used as a synonym for internal differentiation, but Eisenmann suggests that it is rather the "maximum form of differentiation" (Eisenmann, 2019, p. 58), which means that the focus lies on each individual learner rather than a group of learners.

Learner autonomy "focuses on the ability to plan, monitor and evaluate one's learning process and is seen as a prerequisite for self-directed learning" (Surkamp/Viebrock, 2018, p. 200). Learners have an active role, such as by being able to make their own choices, e.g. free choice of material, media,

methods and other and having responsibility for their own learning. This means a shift of the teacher's role, who is now an advisor when problems or questions arise rather than an instructor.

8.3 Key principles of differentiation

Before making more concrete proposals on how to implement differentiation in teaching, general principles are often mentioned. Such key principles can be found, for example, in Carol Ann Tomlinson's work, and were further developed by Maria Eisenmann (2019). In addition to a variety of methods, media or materials (see 8.5), the following principles can be identified:

The **holistic approach** originally refers to Pestalozzi ("Learning with head, heart and hand") and represents an approach in which learning should be done with all senses (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic and intellectual) in order to address as many learning styles as possible. Learners have a very active role, which refers to the concept of *action orientation* commonly called "learning by doing". However, elements of *learner-orientation* and *autonomous learning* can also be included.
The term **open forms of teaching and learning** can involve many aspects. The basic methodological principles behind it are *discovery learning*, *action orientation* and *self-responsible learning*. Eisenmann suggests that the most convincing form here is *autonomous learning* whereby learners themselves determine their learning goals, participatory structures, methods and further aspects of learning.
Cooperative learning, which describes interacting with others while learning, is particularly well suited to EFL teaching, as interaction and communicative competence are two of the primary objectives (cf. CEFL) in the EFL classroom and are fostered by this principle. Increasing the speaking time of individual learners (and student-talking-time in general), interacting with each other and coping with authentic communicative situations are thus enabled.

8.4 Possible fields of differentiation

In addition to more general aspects such as readiness, interests, and learning profiles, in parts corresponding with key principles of differentiation, Eisenmann (2019) identifies twelve fields of (inner) differentiation that can be applied to the EFL classroom to meet the demands of a heterogeneous learner group. Teachers, as well as learners to some extent, can have an influence on them (cf. *learner autonomy*):

Learning objectives	Participatory structure (e.g. pair work)	Tools
Content	Quality	Cooperation/flexible grouping
Methods	Quantity	Evaluation
Material/media	Homework	Products

Many teachers fear that more time will have to be spent preparing learning settings (for example by designing material). This does not necessarily have to be the case because it does not mean creating an individual worksheet for each learner, but rather creating a maximum of different choices. However, one cannot deny that there certainly are some challenges: For example, not all learners are equally able to take responsibility for their own learning and may need more control or help by the teacher, who should intervene in this case but must find a balance between challenging learners and encouraging or helping them. In addition, emphasis should be placed on the task quality so that faster learners are not punished with more tasks (*quantity*), but instead can work on tasks with increased complexity (*quality*).

8.5 Methods of differentiation and individualisation

There are many methodological options for implementing differentiation in everyday school life. Sometimes terms are not used uniformly. In the following, several common methods (according to Eisenmann 2019) that are suitable for differentiation and individualisation in English lessons for all school types and allow cooperation and interaction are listed and briefly characterised:

Independent study: Independent study, also called free work, allows learners to choose freely with regard to time, cooperation, methods, content, topics, place, material, and media. It is often used for processing or repeating previously taught aspects and is suitable for all areas of language teaching (e.g. texts or inter-/transcultural learning).
Weekly plans: Weekly plans contain both mandatory and freely selectable tasks. The teacher has a little more control here than with free work. However, the students still have freedom in selecting the optional tasks, the task order, and the pace of work.
Learning at workstations: In learning at workstations (or *station learning/learning stations*) learners are provided with a variety of stations with different tasks (e.g. with thematic, qualitative or quantitative variation) or materials at tables or windowsills. The individual stations can be processed in a free or fixed order in different groupings.
Task-based language learning (TBLL): Central to task-based language learning (TBLL) is a *task*, which is much more complex than an exercise, as Nunan remarks. TBLL promotes a focus on meaning and interaction among learners while working with tasks that represent real-life situations. TBLL typically consists of three phases: pre-task, task cycle, and post-task.
Extensive reading: Extensive reading is a very individualised form of reading as learners read for pleasure and read a lot as fast as possible. Due to the freedom of choice regarding the book and the speed of reading, this way of reading is suitable for a heterogeneous readership. Paired with a writing task afterwards, a reading log can be kept in order to record individual answers to certain tasks.

8.6 Future perspectives

Learner groups are and will always be diverse - regardless of social or any other developments. Differentiation in teaching will always play a key role within the EFL classroom. Different media (e.g. visual, auditive) can potentially play a role in helping to do justice to heterogeneous learning groups. Especially digital technology (or digital tools) might have even more benefits due to their alleged potential with respects to differentiation. Especially adaptive elements or the possibility of immediate, individual feedback (e.g. with apps, web tools) make it possible to respond to very different needs of learners. Nevertheless, this is a field of research that is still relatively little studied, especially on an empirical basis, and thus further research is needed to explore its full potential.

Important terms and abbreviations

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Heterogeneity/heterogeneous groups	Heterogenität/heterogene Lerngruppen
Autonomous learning/learner autonomy	Autonomes Lernen/Lernerautonomie
Differentiation	Differenzierung
External/internal differentiation	Externe/interne (Binnendifferenzierung) Differenzierung

Holistic learning	Ganzheitliches Lernen
Heterogeneity/heterogeneous/homogeneous learner group	Heterogenität/heterogene/homogene Lerngruppe
Individualisation	Individualisierung
Multilingualism	Mehrsprachigkeit
Qualitative/quantitative differentiation	Qualitative/quantitative Differenzierung

Important researchers

RESEARCHER	CONCEPT & EXPLANATION
Manfred Bönsch (1995, 2009)	Bönsch is a German educator and researcher who focuses on heterogeneity and differentiation, especially internal differentiation (*Binnendifferenzierung*); however, from a general pedagogical perspective
Maria Eisenmann (2017, 2019)	Eisenmann is a German researcher and expert on the field of heterogeneity and differentiation in the EFL classroom, discusses differentiation in her book *Teaching English: Differentiation and Individualisation* theoretically as well as practically.
Hans-Jürgen Linser, Liane Paradies (2001)	Linser and Paradies look into differentiation from a general, pedagogical perspective; in their book *Differenzieren im Unterricht* they deal with theoretical aspects of differentiation as well as practical ideas for teaching.
David Little (1990, 2018)	Little is an expert on learner autonomy and regular contributor to the language education projects of the Council of Europe.
David Nunan (1991, 2004, 2006)	Nunan is an Australian linguist who focuses on second language learning and language teaching methodology including task-based language learning (TBLL) as well as different learning styles.
Carol Ann Tomlinson (2014)	Tomlinson is an American educator and expert on differentiation (*The differentiated Classroom: Responding to the Needs of all Learners*). She developed key principles of a differentiated classroom.

Further reading

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Practical examples

- Börner, Otfried. (2010). *Individualisierung und Differenzierung im kommunikativen Englischunterricht. Grundlagen und Beispiele.* Diesterweg.
- *Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht Englisch,* 156, 2018: Inklusion.
- *Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht Englisch,* 143, 2016: Lernerorientierung.
- *Praxis Fremdsprachenunterricht Englisch,* 1, 2016: Differenzierte Leistungseinschätzung.
- *Englisch 5-10*, 44, 2018: Lernstrategien.
- *Grundschule Englisch,* 39, 2012: Differenzieren.
- Theinert, Kerstin. (2018). They are doing WeLL … Wechselseitiges Lehren und Lernen im Englischunterricht: eine kooperative Unterrichtsform für heterogene Lerngruppen? *Praxis Fremdsprachenunterricht*, *5*, pp. 8-14.

TOPIC 9: Assessment

9.1 Language assessment literacy

Due to the emergence of standard and competence orientation, language testing has seen unprecedented expansion during the first part of the 21st century. As a result, there is an increasing need for educators to consider more precisely what is meant by the concept *language assessment literacy* and to articulate this concept's role in the creation of new pedagogic materials and programs in language testing. Language assessment literacy refers to the knowledge, skills, and principles that stakeholders involved in assessment activities are required to master in order to perform assessment tasks.

However, it should be noted that, by far, not everything that we learn or teach can be reasonably measured. For example, we are still in the early stages of developing measurement tools to capture intercultural or methodological skills. There is still considerable need for research, and attention will have to be given to this topic in the next decades.

9.2 Terminology

When defined within an educational setting, the terms *testing, assessment*, and *evaluation* are all used to measure how much of the assigned materials students are mastering, how well the contents are being learned, and how well the stated goals and objectives are being met. Very often, the terms are used interchangeably, most probably because all of them involve the collection of evidence on learner performance. In other words, they refer to the process of figuring out how much about a given topic students know. However, the terms can be defined as follows:

Testing is an umbrella term, encompassing all measurement instruments used to elicit an individual's performance. It measures the level of skill or knowledge that has been reached.
Assessment connotes a broader concept than testing and offers a variety of ways of collecting data and information on a learner's language ability and achievement. It is the process of describing, collecting, recording, scoring, and interpreting information about learning.
Evaluation implies the broadest concept of all three terms and can be seen as an overall language program, not just what an individual student has learnt. It is the process of making judgments based on criteria and evidence.

9.3 Washback

Washback is a (negative or positive) effect that testing can have on the implementation of language learning. The term refers to the extent to which the introduction and use of a test influences language teachers and learners in their teaching and learning approaches. One common assumption is that teachers will teach to the test, i.e. adapt their teaching methodology and lesson contents to reflect the test's demands. Negative washback occurs when there is a mismatch between the stated goals of instruction and the focus of assessment, i.e. when a test's content or format is based on a narrow definition of language ability, and thereby constrains the teaching and learning context. Positive washback happens when a testing procedure encourages any kind of good teaching practice. As a consequence, written or oral teacher or peer feedback plays a major role in testing procedures,

because pointing out which tasks learners did well in and in which they did poorly, with an aim to improve their performance is vital for any kind of assessment.

9.4 Quality Criteria of Assessment

In order to meet the demands for the highest possible quality, assessment tests must fulfil the following criteria:

Validity refers to how accurately a test measures what it is supposed to measure.
Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results, even if it is administered on different occasions or by different people.
Objectivity refers to an evaluation and interpretation of the results, independent of subjective external influences.
Feasibility is closely related to the aspect of practicality, regarding the overall organisation, room situation, time, costs, and effort required.

9.5 Purposes of Assessment

The primary purpose of assessment is to provide information about both relative standing and student growth in their learning progress. In German EFL classrooms, written tests (*schriftliche Leistungen*) and oral performances (*mündliche Leistungen*) play an important role. However, teachers constantly assess their students in the daily teaching process. This often happens not only through praising or encouragement, but even unconsciously and nonverbally, for example, by facial expressions or gestures such as shaking your head or raising your eyebrows. Assessment is an ongoing implicit as well as explicit process. While the implicit forms are primarily intended to inform everyone involved in the lesson (students and teachers), the explicit written or oral forms fulfil a whole series of important functions:

Diagnosis: Students receive feedback on their current performance status. Teachers receive feedback on their teaching success and help with further lesson planning and hints for the design of internal differentiating teaching approaches.
Information: Information is available for learners, (other) teachers, parents and potential future employers.
Selection: Tests are highly selective and can be life- and career-changing inside and outside the classroom.
Motivation: Tests increase the willingness to learn, and good results promote extrinsic student motivation. Nevertheless, bad results can also be highly destructive and traumatising.

9.6 Summative Versus Diagnostic Assessment

Through approaches to a new learning culture (cf. Winter, 2016, p. 4) the perspective on adequate assessment strategies is currently changing towards more individualised diagnostic forms. Unlike traditional, standardised, or summative assessment, which is used at the very end of a learning unit to determine what a student has achieved, diagnostic assessment allows teachers to identify students' previous knowledge and helps teacher and learners to identify problems that they have, e.g. with the language. Diagnostic assessment, closely related to formative assessment (the monitoring of student

learning through formal and informal assessment procedures), is authentic, integrative, and holistic. It is a form of pre-assessment that allows a teacher to determine students' individual strengths, weaknesses, knowledge, and skills prior to instruction. Hence, assessment is an ongoing process and an integral part of EFL teaching, in which evidence is collected and documented directly. It occurs in different student-centred forms, e.g. textbook pre-course tests, diagnostic questionnaires, writing/reading samples, short-answer responses, interest inventories, portfolio work, learning diaries, process observations, self-assessment, peer evaluation, performance presentations, feedback forms, etc. Although all these tools are much more complex and time-consuming in their evaluation than conventional tests, they are better suited not only to determine performance levels, but also to explore their possible causes and include students' metacognitive comments into the diagnosis. All of these assessments have detailed, specific feedback such as exit cards (that require learners to respond to questions on a piece of paper), graphic organisers (e.g. a mindmap), student reflections, or journal entries, so that the students know what areas they need to improve on.

Important terms and abbreviations

ENGLISH	GERMAN
Testing	Leistungsüberprüfung
Assessment	Leistungsmessung
Evaluation	Leistungsbeurteilung
Language assessment literacy	Kompetenz zur Feststellung der Fremdsprachenkenntnisse
Quality criteria of assessment	Gütekriterien für Beurteilung
Validity	Gültigkeit
Reliability	Zuverlässigkeit, Reliabilität
Objectivity	Objektivität
Feasibility	Durchführbarkeit
Summative assessment	Ergebnisevaluation
Formative assessment	Lernfortschrittskontrolle
Diagnostic assessment	diagnostische Bewertungsverfahren
Self and peer assessment	Selbst- und Fremdeinschätzung
Diagnostic questionnaire	diagnostischer Fragebogen
Learning diary	Lerntagebuch
Process observation	Prozessbeobachtung
Feedback forms	Feedbackbögen

Further reading

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