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I/O

Input–Output
The perception–production link
Reading into writing
Shadowing
And more…

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EDITOR'S NOTE

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Our current issue looks at input–output connections: how perception and production are related, how listening leads to speaking, and how writing can benefit from reading. We open with an overview from Charles Nagle "Perception, production, and perception–production: Research findings and implications for language pedagogy", which features a focus on phonology. Christina Cole then digs down into listening, arguing that more attention to the bottom-up details of listening are needed. This, she claims, leads to not only improved listening, but also to improved pronunciation and speaking. In "Shadowing for language teaching", Yo Hamada discusses a technique that involves almost simultaneous listening and speaking. Continuing the theme, Kent Williams shares his research into what expert raters and intermediate- to advanced-level ESL learners identify as the perceptually salient features of speech fluency, and Andrea Liendo discusses various influences on emergent L2 writers, in this case focussing on younger learners.

Rounding out the issue, Amer Ahmed and Iryna Lenchuk share a sample pedagogical task, using it to explicate what language-learning tasks are. Finally, Shahin Nematizadeh reviews David Woods's 2010 book, Formulaic language and second language speech fluency: Background, evidence, and classroom applications.

Thank you to all the authors who contributed to this issue and to all our readers! I look forward to seeing you at TESL Ontario's fall conference, November first and second at Toronto's Sheraton Centre Hotel.

Brett Reynolds
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CONTACT

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PERCEPTION, PRODUCTION, AND PERCEPTION–PRODUCTION

Research findings and implications for language pedagogy

By Charles Nagle, Iowa State University

When we are born our perceptual systems are capable of discriminating sounds that occur in English, Spanish, Hindi, or any other language. During the first year, our perception begins to zero in on the particular set of sounds that are contrastive in our native language(s) (L1s) (Kuhl et al., 2006). For example, a child whose parents are L1 English speakers will pick up on the fact that /b/ and /p/ are contrastive in English (e.g., "bet" vs. "pet") and that the major difference is in the burst of air that occurs when the stop is released (i.e., there is a stronger burst of air, or more aspiration, on /p/ than /b/). A child whose parents are L1 Hindi speakers will pick up on this contrast, which also occurs in Hindi, as well as other contrasts that occur in Hindi but not in English. As our perception becomes attuned to our L1(s), we become more sensitive to L1 contrasts, such as /b/ vs. /p/ for L1 English speakers, and less sensitive to non-native contrasts, even though our ability to discriminate non-native sounds remains intact. When we begin to learn another language (L2) later in life, be it through formal instruction at university or through immersion if we move to another country where a different language is spoken, our L1 acts as a filter, altering our perception of L2 sounds. Consequently, we may not detect differences between contrastive L2 sounds that are not contrastive in our L1, and we may fail to notice the difference between our accented pronunciation of the L2 and the target pronunciation. For example, an English speaker who is learning L2 Hindi would probably perceive dental and retroflex stop consonants /t̪/ and /ʈ/, which are contrastive in Hindi but do not occur in English, as variants of English alveolar stops /t/ and /d/. According to major theories of L2 pronunciation learning such as the Speech Learning Model (Flege, 1995, 2003), if we do not perceive differences between similar L1 and L2 sounds, then we will not produce the corresponding L2 sounds accurately. In other words, accurate perception is a necessary condition for consistent accurate production. At the same time, perception and production involve distinct cognitive and motor skills, so development across the two modalities may not be synchronized.

Key terminology

The following tasks are typically used to assess perception:

1. Identification: Hear a word and select the written word or image to which it corresponds.
2. Discrimination: In an AX task, hear an anchor word (A) and another word (X) and decide if they are the same; in an ABX task, hear two anchor words (A and B) and decide if a third word (X) corresponds to A or B.
3. Oddity or oddball: Hear three words, decide if there is an odd word out, and indicate the position of the odd word (1, 2, or 3). If there is no odd word, indicate that all words are the same.

The following tasks are typically used to assess production:

1. Word & sentence reading: See a word or sentence and read it aloud.
2. Word & sentence repetition: Hear a word or sentence and repeat it.
3. Picture description: See a picture and describe it in a few sentences.
4. Picture narration: See a series of images that tell a story and narrate the story.

Are perception and production related?

Research has shown that perception and production accuracy are related, though the strength of the relationship may vary depending on the proficiency of the speaker-listener and the target sounds (Flege, Bohn, & Jang, 1997; Flege, MacKay, & Meador, 1999; Saito & van Poeteren, 2017). For instance, Saito and van Poeteren studied L1 Japanese speakers' perception and production of the English /l/-/ɹ/ contrast. Japanese speakers typically struggle with this contrast because they perceive these two English sounds as instances of a single Japanese "r" category (an alveolar tap or flap /ɾ/). Saito and van Poeteren assessed perception using an identification task (hear a word containing /l/ or /ɹ/ and select the correct word from two written options, such as "rink" vs. "link") and production through reading and picture description. Production accuracy was defined in terms of acoustic measurements and listener perception. For the latter, native English speakers evaluated the quality of learners' /ɹ/ production using a nine-point scale (1 = "very good /ɹ/", 5 = "neither /ɹ/ nor /l/", and 9 = "very good /l/"), which the authors also recoded into an intelligibility judgment (i.e., scores of 1–4 corresponding to the /ɹ/ portion of the continuum were deemed intelligible). Perception accuracy was correlated with the impressionistic production measures, but results were more variable for the acoustic measurements. These findings suggest that perception was more closely aligned with the production of intelligible L2 sounds than with the production of native-like acoustic characteristics (e.g., the use of F3[1]).

Does the relationship between perception and production change over time?

If accurate perception facilitates accurate production, then the characteristics of the link itself deserve our attention. In other words, exactly what type of relationship is evident between perception and production? One possibility is that the two modalities develop in tandem. Although this view is intuitively appealing, longitudinal studies tracking perception and production in the same sample of learners over time paint a more complex picture. For example, Hanulíková, Dediu, Fang, Bašnaková, and Huettig (2012) trained multilingual L1 Dutch speakers on Slovak consonant clusters such as /vzbl:knuc/ ("to burst"). Over three sessions, participants completed a range of perception measures designed to tap into different skills (e.g., mispronunciation detection), and production was assessed through word reading and word imitation. Participants' production accuracy was subsequently evaluated by native Slovak speakers using a seven-point scale with higher scores indicating better performance. Despite substantial individual variation in performance across all tasks, only mispronunciation detection and word reading were related to one another. On

1 F1, F2, and F3 are acoustic measures that refer to resonances in the vocal tract. F1 and F2 are similar in English /ɹ/ and /l/, but F3 occurs at a much lower frequency in /ɹ/. Native English speakers predominantly rely on F3 when discriminating the two sounds (e.g., *rip* vs. *lip*), but L1 Japanese speakers typically struggle to perceive this acoustic cue.

the basis of these findings, the authors hypothesized that perception and production may dissociate during the early stages of learning or that production might only improve once more accurate perceptual representations form.

As illustrated in Figure 1, three characterizations of the perception–production link are possible: (1) a synchronous relationship: gains in perception feed into production relatively quickly and efficiently; (2) a threshold effect: production begins to improve once perception reaches a certain level of accuracy, as Hanulíková et al. (2012) discussed; and (3) a lagged relationship: perception and production follow similar trajectories but production begins to improve at a slightly later stage.

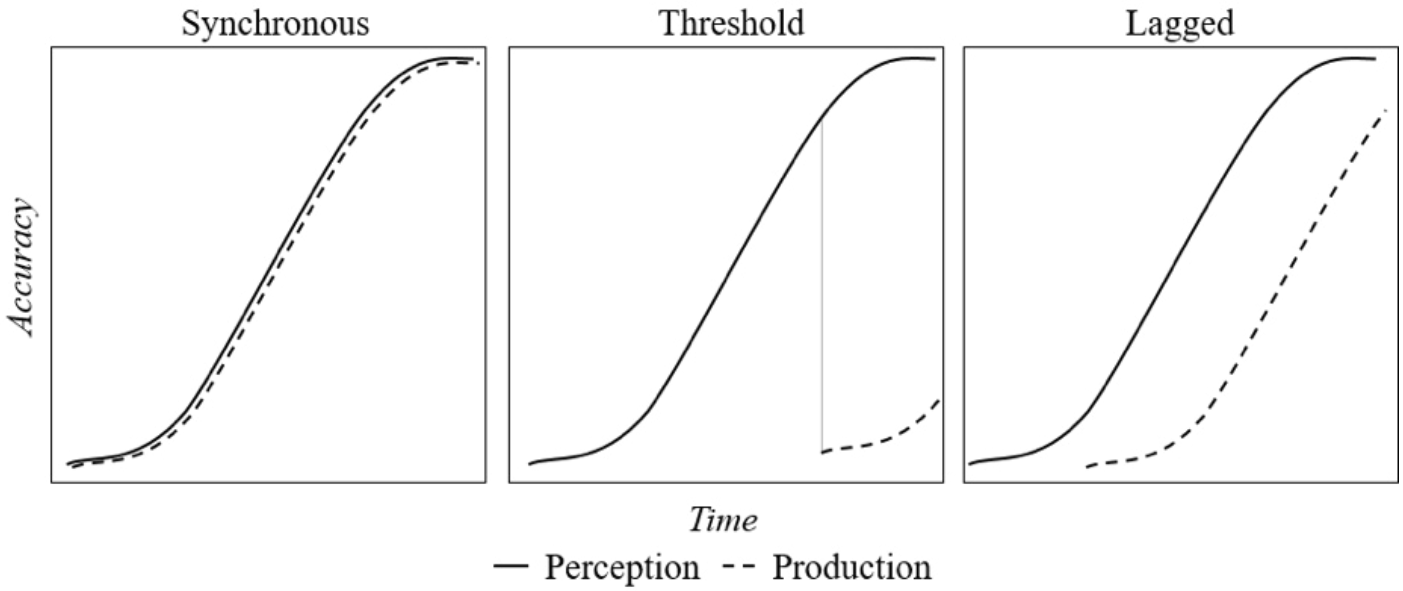

Figure 1. Possible relationships between perception and production.

I tested these different models by investigating how L1 English speakers perceive and produce L2 Spanish stop consonants (Nagle, 2018). As noted above, English voiced and voiceless stops (e.g., /b/ vs. /p/) are differentiated by degree of aspiration: voiceless stops such as /p/ are produced with a stronger burst of air (compare "pat" and "bat" by placing your hand in front of your mouth as you pronounce both words). Put another way, English contrasts unaspirated voiced stops and aspirated voiceless stops. In Spanish, voiced stops are voiced (there is no burst of air) and voiceless stops are produced with a very short burst similar to English /b/. The Spanish system could therefore be described as a voicing/unaspirated contrast. English speakers need to recalibrate their perception to fit the voicing/unaspirated distinction in Spanish, and to improve their production, they need to produce full voicing in voiced stops and reduce aspiration of voiceless stops. Participants completed an identification task and a semi-controlled sentence production task five times while enrolled in second, third, and fourth semester university-level Spanish language courses. Analyses suggested a lagged relationship between the perception and production of Spanish /p/, insofar as gains in identification accuracy were correlated with increased

production accuracy at the subsequent session. However, no relationship was evident between the perception and production of /b/, which could be due to the fact that fully voiced stops are challenging to produce.

Overall, the results of these studies indicate that perception may benefit production when the learning task involves altering a familiar setting such as reducing aspiration of voiceless stops in the case of L1 English/L2 Spanish. In contrast, accurate perception may not be enough to help learners master a new sound whose characteristics are fundamentally distinct from those used in the L1. In terms of the nature of the perception–production link itself, it seems probable that perception will lead production and that targeted training may be needed to boost the latter in some cases.

Does perception training enhance production and vice versa?

In a recent meta-analysis synthesizing findings from 18 studies, Sakai and Moorman (2017) found that perception training leads to medium gains in perception and small but reliable gains in production, especially for obstruents (e.g., stop consonants like /b/ and /p/ and fricatives like /s/ and /z/). Sakai and Moorman furthermore found that certain training characteristics such as a short interval of 3.5 hours or less seem to facilitate production gains. In addition to these variables, recent work demonstrates that sleep may play an important role in phonetic learning. Earle and Myers (2015) trained L1 English listeners on Hindi dental and retroflex stops, which English speakers typically perceive as instances of English alveolar /d/. In a series of experiments, the authors manipulated the timing of the training (i.e., morning vs. evening) and L1 exposure (i.e., exposure to English /b/ or /d/). Listeners' identification of Hindi stops was relatively stable, but their discrimination of the contrast was susceptible to sleep and L1 interference. In particular, discrimination improved after sleep, but if learners were exposed to L1 /d/ tokens after the training but prior to sleep, discrimination did not improve overnight. Production training can also lead to gains in perception. Kartushina, Hervais-Adelman, Frauenfelder, and Golestani (2015) trained L1 French learners on L2 Danish vowels over five sessions, assessing pre- and post-training perception using a discrimination task and production using word repetition. Highlighting perception–production asymmetries, pretraining testing revealed that the vowels that were more challenging to perceive were not necessarily more challenging to produce. Nevertheless, the group that received visual feedback training improved their perception and production of the Danish vowels, and the correlation between gains in perception and production was nearly significant.

Though training in one modality can lead to gains in the other, asking learners to produce sounds during perception training may actually destabilize the emerging perceptual system. In Baese-Berk and Samuel (2016), participants were randomly assigned to a perception only group or a perception and production group. Both groups were trained on an L2 Basque contrast using an ABX discrimination task (hear stimuli A and B and decide

if a third stimulus, X, is more similar to A or B), but the perception and production had to repeat the final token (X) before making the perceptual judgment. In a follow-up study, the combined group read a random letter aloud rather than repeating the target stimulus. The perception only group displayed sensitivity to the contrast, but the combined training group did not, irrespective of whether they repeated the final token or read a letter aloud. This finding indicates that any type of speech production, including production that is not related to the target contrast, can compromise perceptual learning.

How might individual differences affect the perception–production link?

Though individual difference research typically focuses on one modality or the other, we can also imagine how relationships between aptitude and learning (Bowles, Chang, & Karuzis, 2016) or between (in)accurate self-perception and production (Trofimovich, Isaacs, Kennedy, Saito, & Crowther, 2014) might influence the extent to which perception and production are interconnected. For example, individuals who possess an aptitude for distinguishing subtle variations in L2 sounds and encoding those differences might learn to discriminate L2 contrasts more quickly, be it in the language classroom or through explicit training. This, in turn, could set the stage for more rapid gains in production. At the same time, individuals who are able to analyze their own speech and recognize differences between their production and the L2 target may be able to align their perception and production more quickly. At this stage, these relationships are speculative since research has yet to investigate how individual differences in aptitude, self-assessment, and language use shape perception–production when the link is construed as an integrated process. However, these relationships could help explain the substantial variation that is evident in both group-level and individual analyses of the perception–production link.

Summary and take-aways

Research has generally yielded the following set of findings for the perception–production link:

- Accurate perception is a necessary, but in some cases insufficient, condition for accurate production.
- Perception and production are related, but the strength and form of that relationship may vary over time and as a function of the target structure; shared features (features that occur in both the L1 and L2) may exhibit a closer connection than novel features (features that occur only in the L2), which may be more difficult to acquire.
- In certain contexts of learning (perhaps especially in an instructed or classroom context), perception and production will probably change at different rates, with production improving after perception.
- Training one modality can lead to gains in the other, but engaging the production

system during perception training can compromise emerging perceptual representations.

- Sleep seems to enhance perceptual learning, particularly if training occurs immediately beforehand (i.e., limited exposure to the L1 between training and sleep).
- Individual differences associated with more accurate perception and production may also influence the perception–production link.

Drawing upon these findings, we can begin to envision a pedagogical approach that could maximize gains in both modalities and potentially facilitate a closer connection between them. The following example deals with L2 English vowels.

Week 1

Evaluate students' ability to perceive (discriminate and identify) and produce vowels to determine shared and individual needs.

Discuss the characteristics of English vowels, drawing students' attention to important minimal pairs.

Week 2

Drawing upon the results of the vowel analysis, design and implement identification and discrimination tasks involving minimal pairs.

Introduce students to high variability phonetic training available through English Accent Coach (Thomson, 2018) and assign students to complete 30 minutes of training three times per week in the evening, ideally shortly before sleep.

Week 3

Reassess vowel perception and continue perception training as needed inside and outside of class. In all likelihood, multiple weeks of training will be required.

Week 4

Design and implement controlled production activities focusing on the vowels that students struggled to produce, emphasizing intelligibility over nativelike accuracy (Levis, 2005).

Design and implement information gap activities such as map tasks, spot the difference, etc. (for an example, Solon, Long, & Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016) to practice vowels within a communicative framework.

Despite the complexities of the perception–production link, we should not lose sight of the fact that pronunciation instruction is effective (Lee, Jang, & Plonsky, 2014; Thomson & Derwing, 2014). Ultimately, we must strive to take a principled approach to perception and production and to integrate training into our teaching on a systematic basis.

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Charles Nagle is an Assistant Professor of Spanish Linguistics and the Director of the Spanish Language Program at Iowa State University. His research focuses on L2 pronunciation and individual differences, particularly how learners' pronunciation develops over time and the relationship between the perception and production of second language sounds. He is also interested in teachers' beliefs on pronunciation learning and teaching.

WHY TEACHING SECOND LANGUAGE LISTENING IS DIFFICULT AND HOW TO USE BOTTOM-UP LISTENING STRATEGIES TO TEACH LISTENING MORE EFFECTIVELY

By Christina Cole

Listening is the skill that most of our students feel the least confident about and the least control over in terms of what they can do to improve. It is also the skill that is the most widely used, both in academic and non-academic contexts. For these reasons, we owe it to our students to show them how to become successful English language listeners.

Second-language listening is difficult for several reasons, most of which stem from the differences between oral and written channels (Brown, 2011). These include perception problems, issues of memory and attention, and strategy choice.

Perception problems arise because speech is fast and transient; utterances are spoken quickly, and they disappear. We don't pause to separate speech into distinct words; instead it comes out as a stream of sound. Also, words don't usually sound the way they look in writing. Thus, even if our learners are familiar with the printed form of a word they may not recognize its pronunciation, particularly in connected speech. It is also difficult to predict the content of speech and guessing from context is highly over-rated (Douglas, 2013). Real world speech is also full of redundancies, extra language that includes false starts, digressions, and rephrasing, and this extra language confuses learners.

Speech also puts a burden on memory and attention, making it difficult for learners to hold everything in their memory. Attention is diverted by the competing demands of unfamiliar vocabulary, phonological changes, grammatical structures, and the length of the text. This slows learners down and they may spend several seconds trying to figure out a word and miss what comes next.

Studies of second-language listeners have found that poor listeners often have poor listening strategies. They listen word by word and are reluctant to revise an incorrect interpretation (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Field, 2003). On the other hand, poor listeners also fail to implement the metacognitive strategies that successful listeners do such as focusing on key words, self-monitoring, verifying and adapting their interpretation based on new information, problem-solving to adjust their listening, and evaluating their overall comprehension (O'Malley, Chamot & Kupper, 1989).

Process or Product

It is sometimes assumed that listening is acquired effortlessly by osmosis, but listening is actually an active process of meaning-making. Despite this realization, much of what passes for listening instruction is just testing listening ability (Brown, 2011). Siegel found that 70% of classroom activities observed in 30 lessons among 10 EFL instructors in Japan focused on checking comprehension (2014). This finding is likely generalizable to many listening classrooms. Checking comprehension, however, doesn't actually give learners insight on how to listen or show them how to listen better. Instead it focuses on the product of listening not the process. A consequence of this focus on product is anxiety among learners and an association of listening with evaluation.

The alternative to a product-oriented approach is process-oriented (sometimes called learner-oriented) listening. Process-oriented listening is a more holistic approach which raises learners' awareness about the listening process and models the mental processes that take place as they construct their understanding of a listening text (Ngyuen & Abbott, 2016). It advocates spending more time on the actual listening stage, identifying learner difficulties, and giving instruction on how to resolve problems. This is exemplified by Vandergrift and Goh (2012), and Richards' listening as acquisition, which stresses an equal emphasis on production or speaking (Richards, 2005). Indeed, Richards' approach shares much in common with bottom up listening as evidenced by his comments that we have ignored activities that "require accurate recognition and recall of words, syntax, and expression that occurred in the input [such as] dictation, cloze exercises, [and] identifying differences between a spoken and written text" (Richards, 2005, p. 87). In the interests of space, I will focus here primarily on bottom-up listening.

Bottom Up Listening

Bottom up listening refers to a focus on individual sounds, words, grammatical and textual patterns in order to segment the sound stream into recognizable words and create meaning. Learners' attention is drawn to phonological aspects, vocabulary, stress and intonation, thought groups, textual schemata, and grammatical structures. Dictation and simultaneous listening and script reading are used to promote "noticing" of gaps between what is heard and what is understood (Schmidt, 2001; Thornbury, 1997). However, unlike the top-down approach, bottom up listening hasn't received much attention particularly in current textbooks (with some exceptions such as the *Top-up* series by Abax).

Vocabulary knowledge plays a huge role in listening comprehension, accounting for as much as 50% of success in listening (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Learners identify weak vocabulary knowledge as the biggest problem in listening comprehension (Goh, 2000). Vandergrift (2006) has called for a larger role for vocabulary in listening development specifically. Learners need to encounter a word on average 12 times in a non-trivial focused way in order to retain it (Brown, 2011, p. 50). For this reason, learners need

multiple exposures to vocabulary. Moreover, even when a word is known, aural realization is especially important since learners need to recognize it, particularly how it sounds in connected speech, not just its written form or in isolation. Incorporating vocabulary from frequency-based words lists such as the Academic Word List should be employed. In addition, teaching listeners to notice textual elements such as macro markers, discourse markers, and micro markers is valuable as these provide important cues about the internal structure of academic discourse and serve different functions.

Moreover, experts on listening instruction recommend that collocations should also be taught. Although they do not approximate the frequency of high-frequency words, searching a corpus for collocations of words reveals that certain words are more commonly encountered in proximity to other words and knowing the likelihood of these will make it easier for listeners to identify lexical chunks instead of having to listen for each individual word. For example, *rapid* is most frequently collocated with *growth* whereas *speedy* or *fast* is virtually never collocated with *growth* (COCA, 2018). The same rationale can be applied to teaching idioms and fixed phrases (common lexical chunks). When we create gap fills or cloze exercises for our learners we should include gaps for whole phrases not just individual words. Teaching learners to recognize fixed phrases or idioms (along with their stress patterns) means they don't need to work as hard at identifying each word individually.

Pronunciation

More attention to pronunciation and the integration of listening and speaking (Reed & Michaud, 2018) is also part of the bottom-up approach. We often underestimate the importance of teaching pronunciation to improve listening comprehension. By integrating speaking and listening, we help learners acquire the language they hear. Moreover, much of our listening in the real world is reciprocal or two-way in contrast to the focus in the majority of listening classrooms where learners listen to a video or audio file but do not interact with it as in a conversation.

Since speech undergoes many phonological changes, we need to teach learners to listen for such aspects as reductions, deletions, assimilation, and linking. Linking contributes to the stream of sound so it is important that learners identify when and how it occurs. English also is full of consonant blends, and these are frequently created between words.

Another important element of pronunciation when it comes to listening is stress patterns. English speakers depend on stress to interpret meaning. Just as producing incorrect stress patterns in speech may lead to second-language learners being misunderstood, so too they may not decode a word correctly because they haven't learned its correct stress pattern. Additionally, stress and intonation help second-language listeners to hear word segmentation (Brown, 2011). Missing a small reduced syllable can lead to a complete misinterpretation of meaning such as confusing *it's legal* and *it's illegal*.

Pedagogical Principles & Ideas

An important pedagogical principle in listening instruction is not necessarily having learners listen for everything all at once. Instead, we can have learners listen in a focused way multiple times for different aspects. Obviously, the listening text will determine what we will have our learners listen for. We can also vary the response required depending on the difficulty of the text and the level of the learner. A response can be as simple as having learners raise their hands when they hear the target structure. One activity that is useful for teaching linking is having learners listen to a song with the lyrics in front of them marked up for different types of linking. Then, they can listen again with a clean copy of the lyrics and see if they can indicate the linking. This activity can be modified to have learners mark thought groups, stressed words, or complete a gap fill.

Dictation

Dictation is a useful activity in bottom-up listening. It can be used to draw attention to the correspondence between reduced or contracted forms and full forms. It can also be used to have learners pay attention to lexical chunks, grammatical structures or thought groups. Focusing on dictation at either sentence level or beyond allows teachers to see where learners are having difficulties. Brown (2011) outlines several progressive variations on simple dictation such as dictogloss, communicative dictation, and discovery listening, which have their roots in Swain's concept of collaborative dialogue. The key to doing dictation well is to provide multiple attempts and focus on the process, not just the product.

Dictogloss differs from straight dictation in that listeners do not aim for an exact reproduction of the audio text. The text is read twice at normal speed and listeners write whatever words or phrases they can. Then, in groups they pool their efforts and strive to reconstruct the meaning. The goal is to negotiate the original meaning even if the words are slightly different.

Communicative dictation includes multiple variations but essentially it goes beyond simple transcription and is "communicative" because listeners work together after the initial dictation. It can involve listeners finding differences between the audio text and a written text and noticing the gap between what they heard and what was written. This could mean correcting differences in the transcript or in captions, which are often incorrect.

Another variation is jigsaw listening in which listeners hear different parts of a text or different versions of a text and then work together to reconstruct a logical version. Discovery listening (Wilson, 2003) builds on dictogloss. Learners hear an oral text three times, once without note-taking, then noting down key words, and finally expanding on these notes. Wilson adds a step where learners compare their text with the original transcript and classify the cause of their errors or difficulties into categories such as "couldn't hear a sound", "couldn't separate the sounds", "unknown word" etc… . This last phase develops metacognitive awareness and sound-form comparisons.

These activities illustrate that transcripts can be used effectively to build up learners' listening skills and shouldn't be viewed as somehow "cheating". Research has shown that, in fact, this type of activity improves learners' listening scores and also increases their use of complex vocabulary and syntax (Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002; Kim, 2008; Qin, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 2001).

Think Alouds

Let me conclude with one last strategy that teachers can employ: the think aloud. Teachers can model their own internal cognitive process in making sense of a listening text. An example I use is how I arrived at the understanding of *mellow* as a pejorative word in Susan Cain's "The power of introverts" TED talk (March 2012) by considering tone of voice used for the word, its contrast with the word *rowdy* used to designate camp spirit, and the counsellor's advice to be more *outgoing*. All of these clues conflict with the dictionary definition of *mellow* and provide an awareness that *mellow* in this context is a negative attribute. However, it is also vital to listen to learners' think alouds to gain insight into the difficulties they are having and offer feedback and assistance. These think alouds can later be formalized into a written listening journal where learners outline, using specific examples, what aspects gave them problems and what strategies they used to overcome these problems.

In conclusion, listening is hard work and motivating learners is essential. Learners are more motivated to listen to texts they are interested in, so, in choosing listening materials, we should make sure we include appealing listening activities such as songs, TV shows, and short podcasts related to their interests or future areas of study.

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SHADOWING FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

By Yo Hamada, Akita University

In the past decades, shadowing has become quite popular in Japan and in other Asian countries. Recently it has finally caught the attention of researchers and language teachers in North America. The overarching purpose of this paper is to introduce shadowing for the sake of effective teaching. First, the basic idea of what shadowing is is explained. Then, shadowing in terms of listening practice will be discussed with its theoretical background, examples, and teaching tips. Next, shadowing as speaking practice, mainly for pronunciation development, will be discussed.

What is Shadowing?

The basic definition of shadowing is "a paced, auditory tracking task which involves the immediate vocalization of auditorily presented stimuli" (Lambert, 1992, p. 266). The metaphor of shadowing is the shadow that follows you on a street late in the afternoon, copying your every move. Just like this, the shadowers (student) will shadow what they hear as simultaneously and accurately as possible. This is illustrated in Figure 1.

Time:	---------->
Audio stimulus:	*Shadowing is not as easy as it seems.*
Learners:	*Shadowing is not as easy as it seems.*

Figure 1. A schematic illustration of shadowing.

As Figure 1 shows, as soon as students hear the first word, they start repeating it simultaneously, and keep doing so until the end of the text.

At a first glance, it seems to be similar to a repeating exercise. Because of the seemingly similarity, in western cultures, where repetitive trainings, with their association with the Audio Lingual Method, are avoided, shadowing is often not favored. However, the two practices are clearly different if you analyze them carefully. As Figures 1 and 2 show, the difference is that while shadowing requires students to repeat simultaneously, repetition does not require simultaneous repetition.

Time: ---------->

Audio stimulus: *Shadowing is* *not as easy as…*

Learners: *Shadowing is* *not as easy as…*

Figure 2. A schematic illustration of repeating.

Students' cognitive activities when working on repetition and shadowing are different. In shadowing, most of the students' attention is on catching the incoming sounds, so they may not access the meaning of each word they are listening to; in repetition, students typically access the meaning of each chunk. In other words, shadowing blocks learners from accessing meanings and directs most of their attention to the sounds (Kadota, 2007). Being an expert user of the language, you may be able to shadow and understand what you are shadowing simultaneously, but students often cannot, unless they are advanced.

General Rules for Shadowing Use

Shadowing can serve both as practice for listening and for speaking, but there is a general rule: if the student lacks sufficient phoneme perception skills (i.e., the skill to recognize the sounds they are listening to), shadowing should be used only as listening practice (explained below); Once they are able to catch the sounds they are listening to or if the student already has good phoneme perception skills, shadowing can be used as a speaking activity. This is because shadowing is a cognitively complex and demanding task, so an attempt to "kill two birds in one stone" (i.e., attempting to improve both listening and speaking) has the risk of failing to catch one. Consequently, teachers need to know the students' level before implementing shadowing. Lastly, students should generally shadow without a written transcript of the audio stimulus. Shadowing while reading will change the cognitive process, in which they need to split their attention to sounds, letters, and meanings, so it becomes a different practice (see, however the section on IPA shadowing below).

Shadowing for Listening

Why is Shadowing for Listening Needed?

The common listening exercise often observed in classrooms is that students listen to a passage or conversation and answer comprehension questions, but this is often ineffective in helping students acquire a workable representation of the English phonological system. Those who lack the bottom-up listening skills for English, who struggle to perceive the sounds and recognize the words, will rely on their top-down skills, so their bottom-up

listening skills will often be slow to improve. Such an exercise will generally help students' top-down listening skills: use of background knowledge, helpful prediction, and effective note taking. In other words, typical listening exercises improve students' top-down listening skills, but their bottom-up listening skills remain immature, so such students need useful practice that develops their bottom-up listening skills specifically.

The primary role of shadowing for listening is to improve learners' phoneme perception skills. When shadowing, the students' attention is mostly on catching the sounds, not meanings, while when doing most common listening activities, their attention is typically on meaning and understanding what they are listening to. Put simply, when shadowing, students tend to process the audio stimulus by using bottom-up process more than top-down process. Therefore, through the repeated practice of shadowing, they eventually become better at catching the sounds (Hamada, 2016).

How can we Use it in the Classroom?

There are five important rules to use shadowing as listening practice.

- First, because shadowing is demanding, both the teacher and the students should understand the mechanism and purpose of shadowing to keep students concentrated and motivated. Even in Japan, where students are accustomed to repetitive practice and shadowing is widely known, students eventually become tired and lose concentration as they practice. In cultures that are not used to repetitive practice in school, this may be a potentially serious problem. Students need to know what exactly they are practicing shadowing for.

- Second, shadowing should be used intensively for a short period of time only. Research shows a noticeable change in two 10–15 minute sessions a week for a month (Hamada, 2016). Even if students know why they are practicing shadowing, it is difficult for them to maintain motivation for the repetitive and demanding nature of shadowing. Once students acquire competent phoneme perception skills, they can work on other types of practice based on the acquired skill.

- Third, research shows that five or six repetitions of the same passage is enough (Shiki, Mori, Kadota, & Yoshida, 2010). Note that repetitions need not be consecutive, but once learners shadow the same texts five or six times in total, they should move on to a different text.

- Fourth, the source should match, as much as possible, the listening goal. For example, if their goal is to keep up with the natural speed of authentic English, the students should use the fastest source audio they can handle. Use of TV shows and radio news might be helpful. Occasionally, I have seen teachers use shadowing as pair work, in which one student shadows another. This style does not work as shadowing **for listening** because the source phonology is often very different from the target phonology.

- Lastly, students should understand the content of the target material before working on shadowing (Hamada, 2014), but the teacher should remind them to focus on the phonological features rather than meanings while shadowing. To focus on the phonological features exclusively, not the contents, they should know the contents beforehand. If they are asked to shadow an unknown story, it is too demanding and difficult because multiple processes in their brains will lead to cognitive overload.

Further Tips

To make shadowing enjoyable, there are additional options that can add some spice. To check progress accurately, the use of an IC-recorder or a smartphone voice memo app is effective (Hamada, 2015). This way, students can check which words they were able to shadow at their own pace. Also, changing the speed of the audio stimulus would be another way to maintain their motivation. For example, by using Audacity (free audio recording and editing software), we can change the speed from faster to slower, or vice versa. Having them experience shadowing at 1.5x and then at the original speed, allows them to perceive the original speed as slower.

Shadowing for Speaking

Why is Shadowing for Pronunciation Useful?

In the area of speaking, shadowing contributes to students' pronunciation development. In fact, research on pronunciation is still younger than other areas, and development of effective teaching practice is expected. Recently, shadowing has started serving as a unique practice activity for learners' pronunciation development.

The mechanism that explains the contribution of shadowing to pronunciation skills is simple. In the process of copying the model as accurately as possible, students first attend to listening to the detailed features of the incoming sounds, including each phoneme, stress, intonation, and accents. Then, moving their muscle in their mouth, they reproduce them almost simultaneously and unconsciously. Repeating this process, their pronunciation features and fluency develop. Research shows that shadowing does help ESL advanced learners improve their pronunciation and fluency (Foote & McDonough, 2017).

How can we Use it in the Classroom?

To use shadowing for pronunciation development, students need to know what exactly they are practicing shadowing for, distinguishing it from shadowing for listening. In shadowing for listening, their priority is to attend to the phonological information they are listening to, but in shadowing for pronunciation, they need not only to do so, but also to attend to their output. It is necessary to allocate their attention to both input and output.

Research has reported two ways of using shadowing for pronunciation and fluency development. First, Foote and McDonough (2017) report that advanced ESL learners'

pronunciation features improved when they shadowed TV shows (Foote & McDonough, 2017). In their research, shadowing was mainly used as homework assignments, but it can be used in a classroom as well. For example, each student chooses a short video such as a TED talk as a model and practices shadowing it at home. They then bring it to the classroom and perform in pairs or groups to receive feedback from their peers. They should also record their performance at the same time and review it together with the feedback. Any TV shows will work as long as the student is motivated to "speak" like the characters in the TV shows.

To use shadowing to improve students' pronunciation at the segmental levels and fluency, there are two rules. First, students should find a model to copy and then practice shadowing to simulate the model the best they can. Feedback from peers and teachers will be of great help. Second, as repeatedly mentioned, the students need to have reached a high level of English proficiency, especially in listening. Since they need to copy the model stimulus exactly, checking and monitoring if they are actually copying it correctly by comparing the target voice (input) and their voice (output), they need to have "good ears" (phoneme perception skills).

IPA Shadowing

The second way of using shadowing for pronunciation and fluency development is IPA shadowing (Hamada, 2015). In IPA shadowing, students are provided a transcript written in International Phonetic Alphabet before shadowing the material. Prior to or simultaneously, teachers need to teach how each IPA should be pronounced. This way, they attend to both the script and the audio stimuli, eventually matching their knowledge of IPA and its equivalent phonemic smoothly. In theory, IPA shadowing should raise students' awareness of phonemic features, so segmental features of pronunciation will improve. Use of IPA transcript helps teachers give precise feedback. Also, recording and reviewing their shadowing performance with an IC-recorder will be effective in terms of teachers' feedback and students' self-regulated learning.

Conclusion

In this paper, I explained the theoretical background of shadowing and its application in classrooms both for listening and pronunciation development. Shadowing has only been used for the past few decades in language teaching. I believe more students will benefit from shadowing, and more useful shadowing variations will be produced in the future. I hope this paper provides the foundation of the next steps of shadowing practice.

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A MIXED-METHODS STUDY EXPLORING PERCEPTIONS OF SPEECH FLUENCY

By Kent Williams, Carleton University

Enhancing English language learners' speech fluency is often a key learning outcome in communicative language classrooms. Notably, how fluent a learner's speech is has been shown to affect how comprehensible it is (Derwing, Rossiter, Munro, & Thomson, 2004). For this reason, it is not surprising that fluency has long been an integral component of both high-stakes and low-stakes oral proficiency assessment rubrics (Fulcher, 2003). Decisions that are made based on the results of these assessments may have real-world implications on test-takers' lives. Thus, it is important to understand which features of speech influence how fluency is perceived in order to enhance the validity of fluency assessments. In this study, although the participants reported that a wide range of temporal, non-temporal, and even non-linguistic features of speech influenced how they perceive fluency, it would seem as though, the speed of speech and the percentage of time speaking most strongly influenced how they assessed it.

But what exactly is fluency? According to Lennon (1990), fluency is referred to in both broad and narrow terms. In the broadest sense of the term, fluency equates to overall language proficiency as in "I can speak three languages fluently!" However, in the realm of second language instruction and assessment, fluency is often defined much more narrowly as the overall speed and flow of speech. Yet, even within this narrow realm, definitions seem to vary widely, which can be problematic for assessors. Chambers (1997) highlights this problem by stating that "it cannot be assumed that we all share the same definition of fluency. Otherwise the validity of the judgements made by assessors is seriously in question. (p. 543)"

Much research on fluency has involved investigating temporal variables of speech in terms of speed, pauses, and repairs. Since the 1970s, second language researchers have examined a wide variety of temporal measures including speech rate (number of syllables/duration, including silent pauses), articulation rate (number of syllables/duration, excluding silent pauses), mean length of runs (average number of syllables/utterance), the number, length, and location of silent and filled pauses, and the number and type of repairs. In the early 1990s, Lennon (1990), Riggenbach (1991), and Freed (1995) began correlating these temporal measures with overall impressions of fluency, as assessed on Likert scales. Their results revealed that, depending on the context, certain temporal measures of fluency seem to exert a degree of influence over raters' judgements of speech fluency. On the whole, these results indicate that increased speed and less hesitancy may lead to higher fluency

ratings, but the relationship is not necessarily linear (Fulcher, 2003). Moreover, fluency judgements may be complicated by a number of contextual factors including individual speech style, the speech task, the speaker's willingness to communicate, and the speaker's familiarity with the topic, situation, and conversation partner.

So what features of speech do assessors attend to when they make overall judgements about learners' ability to speak fluently? Although much research has examined how quantitative measures of speed, pauses, and repairs affect fluency judgments (See Prefontaine, Kormos, & Johnson 2016, for a review of research), not much research (Brown, 2007 is a notable exception) has examined how raters, in their own words, perceive and assess fluency. Therefore, this study set out to use both quantitative (e.g. temporal variables) and qualitative (e.g. interviews) methods to examine this area further.

It is also not well-known how English as a Second Language (ESL) learners perceive fluency. If fluency attainment is a desired outcome of language instruction, then ESL learners should have a fuller understanding of what fluency is, what it is comprised of, and how to go about attaining it. With some exceptions (Prefontaine, 2013, for example), so far, there has been little research into how ESL learners perceive fluency.

To help to answer these questions, this research sought to understand which features of speech influence both assessors' and learners' perceptions of speech fluency. More specifically, the research aimed to answer two research questions: (1) what are perceptually salient features of speech fluency, according to expert raters and intermediate- to advanced-level ESL learners enrolled in a Canadian university; and (2) are these features reflected in temporal measures of speech?

Method

This study incorporated a two-phase, mixed-methods, convergent parallel design (Creswell, 2009). Through this design, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed simultaneously. Then, the results were merged and interpreted.

All research took place at a medium-sized Canadian university. After the university's research ethics board provided clearance for research to begin, volunteers were invited to participate in the study through emails, in-class recruitment speeches, and in-person. There were two groups of participants: (1) ESL learners (n = 6) and expert raters (n = 2). The ESL learner-participants were enrolled in regular university programs at the undergraduate and graduate level. The rater-participant group had over 15 years of rating experience and over 25 years of ESL teaching, teacher-training, and testing experience.

In phase one, interviews and test simulations of task one of the Oral Language Test (OLT), which is the speaking component of the Canadian Academic English Language (CAEL) assessment, were conducted individually with six ESL speakers. The participants were first asked these pre-test questions: (1) What does speech fluency mean to you? (2) In your

opinion, what is the difference between beginner, intermediate, and advanced levels of fluency?

Then, participants performed the OLT test simulation, which required them to speak for one minute about their previous English language learning experiences. Afterwards, the participants listened to their speeches and rated their performances according to the OLT rubrics (Paragon Testing Enterprises, 2015) and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) rubrics for Fluency (Council of Europe, 2001). The OLT rubrics consisted of a nine-point Likert scale (10–90), which included corresponding descriptors for each level. The descriptors included references to fluency alongside other features of oral proficiency. The CEFR rubrics consisted of performance benchmarks, which were coded by the researcher to a six-point scale (1–6). These descriptors referred specifically to the temporal features of fluency. These rubrics were translated for intermediate-level participants in order to ensure that the rubrics could be understood more accurately. These translations were conducted by associates of the researcher and they were double-checked by a second reviewer. Once the participants assessed their performances according to the OLT rubrics, they were asked these post-test questions: (1) What do you notice about your speech, in terms of fluency? (2) Why did you assign that score to your speech?

In phase two, interviews were conducted with two expert raters who also evaluated the speeches. The raters were asked the same pre-test questions as the learners. Then, the raters were asked to evaluate the learners' speeches using the OLT rubrics. The raters were then asked the same post-test questions as the learners.

The responses from both participant groups were transcribed and then coded according to techniques proposed by Saldaña (2009). In the first cycle coding procedure (in-vivo coding), relevant quotations were extracted from the transcripts. The second-cycle coding technique (pattern coding) involved identifying connections between these quotations, resulting in the development of themes, categories, and sub-categories.

Results and Discussion

Question 1: According to the participants, what are perceptually salient features of speech fluency?

Individually, salient features varied across participants, meaning that some features of speech were more indicative of speech fluency than others. For instance, some participants mentioned that learners' level of fluency was highly related to their range and use of vocabulary and grammar, whereas other participants noted that one's fluency level depended primarily on how comfortable and familiar a person is with the topic, situation, or conversation partner.

Collectively, perceptions can be situated somewhere between Lennon's (1990) broad and narrow senses of fluency. In other words, overall, participants did not equate fluency with

oral proficiency, but they also did not perceive fluency as being comprised solely of its temporal features. These results suggest that the narrowest definition of fluency as "the speed and flow of speech" does not fully represent the fluency construct.

Categorically, participants made inferences about how fluent the speaker is by the perceived degree of: a) automaticity (how efficiently the learner is able to access linguistic resources, such as vocabulary and grammatical structures); b) comfort in one's ability to speak English; c) grammatical competency (the range of available linguistic resources); d) speed and flow; e) contextual and cultural familiarity with the topic, situation, or conversational partner; and f) receptivity of speech (how well the message is received by the listener).

Question 2: Are these features reflected in temporal measures of speech?

Comparing raters' and test-takers' assessments on the OLT scale with temporal measures of speech required the following: (1) examining the interrater reliability of their assessments (r = .92); (2) calculating the temporal measures of individual speeches and their corresponding mean ratings; and (3) correlating the temporal measures with the mean ratings.

The following temporal measures were chosen for this study because they have been used repeatedly in a number of previous studies: Speech Rate (SR); Articulation Rate (AR); Phonation-Time Ratio (PTR) (percentage of time speaking); Mean Length of Runs (MLR); Number of Silent Pauses (SP); and the Number of Filled Pauses (FP).

The results indicated that SR (r = .86, p < .027) and PTR (.85, p < .03) were most strongly, and significantly correlated with raters' assessments on the OLT and the CEFR. Additionally, on both scales, AR (r = .79), MLR (r = .79), and SP (r = -.71) also produced moderately-high correlations. The number of filled pauses was not strongly correlated (r = .52). These results seem to suggest that the speed of speech (SR), and the percentage of time speaking (PTR) influence how raters assess overall proficiency (OLT) and temporal fluency (CEFR).

As for the test-takers' assessments, PTR correlated highly with test-takers' assessments on the OLT (r = .85, p < .03), and SR correlated highly with test-takers assessments on the CEFR (r = .86, p < .02). Moderate to low correlations were discovered for all other temporal measures. Overall, comparing the results from both participant groups, it would seem as though the speed of speech and the percentage of time speaking most strongly influenced participants' assessments on this task.

To review, the qualitative results to the first research question suggest the importance of non-temporal and even non-linguistic (e.g. the participants' perceived level of comfort) features of speech on affecting fluency judgements. The results relating to the second research question suggest the importance of temporal features such as speech rate on affecting fluency judgments. Merging these two results highlights how both temporal and non-temporal features of speech may be interrelated. Table 1 highlights these temporal and non-temporal connections as expressed by the participants in this study.

Table 1: Summary of findings by participant type

Themes	Temporal/Non-temporal Connections	Participant
Automaticity	"Her pace is very slow and ponderous and you can feel her thinking through and trying to speak grammatically."	Rater
	"When I speak some English is very slow. I try not to make any mistake."	Learner
Comfort	"There's a great deal of comfort just speaking. There's no pausing, halting."	Rater
	"Fluent but not as comfortable [as another speaker]. It doesn't flow quite as smoothly."	Rater
Grammatical competency	"Vocabulary range is high, um, you know, cause there's no hesitancy."	Rater
	"It's all packaged units, not that she can't communicate effectively but it doesn't have the same kind of flow."	Rater
Contextual/ cultural familiarity	"But if there's a difficult subject or unfamiliar situation, it can hinder my smooth flow."	Learner
	"When it's certain subject not familiar with me I'm really overwhelmed and I can't control myself. So I answer sometimes too much pause and hesitation."	Learner
Receptivity	"At the advanced level, you're able to relax as an interlocutor because you're actually communicating. You forget that you're in a testing situation because it's (the learner's speech) is just floating. So if I had to take one big holistic charge (about categorizing fluency), I would say it's flow."	Rater
	"When assessing fluency, there's a point in the process where you have to think about what you're doing, how comfortable you are as the interlocutor."	Rater

Pedagogical implications

The purpose of the study was to examine how speech fluency is perceived by expert raters and ESL learners enrolled in a Canadian university. The results indicate that temporal measures and non-temporal measures appear to be inherently interrelated, further revealing the complexity of the speech fluency construct. Therefore, as fluency affects speech comprehensibility, and as it continues to be an integral component of oral proficiency testing rubrics both within and beyond the classroom, it is important to understand which features of speech influence how ESL practitioners define, categorize, analyse, and evaluate speech fluency. It would therefore be worthwhile for instructors to reflect on how they perceive and assess fluency as this reflection could help to increase their confidence in making valid judgments about fluent ability. Additionally, it would be equally worthwhile to elicit how students perceive fluency in order to raise their awareness of how fluency is defined, categorized, analysed, and evaluated. As Chambers (1997) notes, it is not helpful to simply ask students to speak faster and pause less. If both instructors and students become more aware of what fluency is, and what it is comprised of, it is quite possible that instructors and students may have a greater understanding of how to attain it.

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INFLUENCES ON EMERGENT L2 WRITERS

by Andrea Liendo, OISE

As a grade-one teacher in a Toronto inner city elementary school for over 30 years, I have had the privilege of teaching a wide range of second language learners with a variety of different L1s. Most of these young learners were in the emergent writing stage. Emergent writing is a developmental stage of writing that all young L1 and L2 writers pass through. Emergent writers are beginning to understand that print carries a message and they may be familiar with many concepts about print simply from living in a print rich environment (Clay, 1988). These writers may use pictures, single letters to represent words, and inventive spelling to communicate their messages. Literacy acquisition in an L2 is a highly complex process, influenced by a variety of external factors, including parents and home environment, teachers, the classroom environment, prior life experiences, and peers (Cumming, Leki & Silva, 2008). I discuss these factors in relation to my teaching experience.

Buckwalter and Lo (2002) draw upon studies by a number of scholars to argue that children in the emergent stage of writing possess a variety of different skills that they have internalized from experiences with print at home or in their environment. They show that the attitude of parents and the home environment in which a child lives influences the success and attitude a young L2 learner has towards their newfound language. Ming, who was part of a study by Buckwalter and Lo (2002), is a 5 year old boy, from Taiwan, living with his parents in the United States and an emergent writer in English, his L2. Ming's parents, like many L2 parents I have encountered, believe inventive spelling occurs due to "carelessness or ignorance" (Buckwalter & Lo, p.274, 2002). Many parents fail to see the value of inventive spelling as part of the process of learning. This attitude may have detrimental effects on a young L2 learner. For example, one of my L2 students would erase the work on his paper so often he would make a hole right through the paper. His goal was to print the word perfectly and correctly. This student would end up spending 30 minutes simply printing one word, focusing on only this surface skill and not the meaning of his message and what he would like to say. He became perfectionistic and afraid of making errors, which detracted from his ability to learn to read and to write. I spoke with his parents, hoping to assist them with understanding that inventive spelling was part of the emergent writing process at this stage of learning. I explained there were words he could memorize, such as high frequency words. I also discussed how sounding out words and experimenting with letters and their sounds was part of how he would learn about the alphabetical sound system in English. This family came to accept this perception and

assisted their son in ways I suggested. Sadly, some families never embrace this philosophy and I have had occasions where I had to call The Children's Aid Society, as a parent had beaten their child for not printing a word or a sentence neatly and correctly.

Pictures are often considered irrelevant or ignored by both my L1 and L2 parents. Anning (2003) argues that, "drawing and writing are vehicles for both personal reflection and communication with others" (p.8). Parents often fail to see drawings as a part of writing and the meaning a child is attempting to convey. One of my students' mothers drew pictures for her child when an assignment was sent home that required a picture. The mother was afraid that her child's picture 'was not realistic enough' and she would be penalized for this. The child told me she was not allowed to draw. When reading, her parents would cover the pictures, telling her if she could not read the words without looking at the picture, then she did not know how to read or to write. Pictures that young children include with their work are as important in conveying meaning as words and should be valued (Anning, 2003).

I noticed that some children do prefer to begin their communication or message they are writing with a picture and then add print to it, drawing their words from the picture they made. In my experience, children that are punished or forbidden to draw pictures before writing struggle with the writing process. One of my students did not draw because it was forbidden at home. He would say, "No pictures. My mother does not like them." He found it challenging to write freely, and was focussed so intently on printing correctly, that any meaningful message was often lost. He was paralyzed, unable to freely enjoy drawing a picture as part of the writing process. Research indicates that children who are formally taught the difference between writing and drawing too early, have a more difficult time creating stories (Anning, 2004).

Parents who provide a literate home environment and positive attitude towards learning in any language can have a positive effect on L2 students (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002). For example, once Ming's parents believed that he was ready to write in Chinese, he learned to do so rapidly (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002; Cummins, 1991). I have found that parents who are enthusiastic, interested in their children's day, and ask questions, even if they do not speak or write the L2 themselves, can have a positive effect on their children's learning of the new L2. These positive families send their children to class prepared to learn. These parents and students frequently request materials to take home because they want to practise reading and writing at home as much as they can. They are eager to have their extra work displayed on our classroom wall. One of my L2 students who spoke Arabic as her first language drew a picture of her neighbourhood while at home after we had studied maps and created some in a class project. She requested that her work be posted in the classroom. Her map included the word 'Stop', on a stop sign, and 'Walmart', and 'M' for McDonalds. These were all places near her home and that she could explain and write in her L2.

Access to materials in both English and Chinese, assisted Ming in becoming literate in his L2. He did not experience any confusion between the two different language systems (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002). Intuitively, I understood when teaching L2 children that literacy

in L1 supported L2 learning (Cumming, Leki & Silva, 2008). I felt it was important to encourage my L2 students to be proud of any literacy knowledge they may already have in their L1. I would frequently read dual-language books in my classroom to encourage my students to take pride in their L1. At times, I felt students in my classroom seemed to be embarrassed or ashamed of their L1, reluctant to communicate with their parents in that language. Some parents valued learning the L2, English in this case, so highly that they often forced their children to read and write entirely in English, not teaching or exposing them to any reading or writing in their L1, for fear of language confusion. I frequently had to encourage parents to allow their children to read and write in their L1, explaining that they would learn literacy skills in their L1 which would be valuable to learning in their L2 and not detrimental (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002).

To encourage L1 pride, and an understanding of the value of my students' home knowledge, I suggested to my students that we all bring in books, food labels, games, and materials from our L1 (or L2 in my case). I wanted to avoid any of the "narrow versions of literacy" (Anning, p.6, 2003) that can sometimes be present in our school system and the undervaluing of the knowledge my students were bringing with them from home. Parents actually asked if it was really okay for their children to bring in materials in their L1 because they were concerned about their children confusing the two different language systems or not learning English because of their L1 knowledge. I invited parents in for these lessons. With these materials we discussed how languages were similar and how they were different and recorded this information on a class chart. We also examined how books, writing, and the alphabet were the same or how they were different in some L1s and L2s. The students noticed all books had pages, pictures, an author, some form of print, and a story, but some were read in opposite directions. They discussed the fact that their parents could often read in and use both languages and to some extent so could they. We also explored who read to them and from what materials. Students taught me how to read a few words and say numbers in their languages. We chose a different language in the morning from the afternoon lesson on numbers or words. We all learned the words or numbers each student taught. They found it fascinating that I had to relearn some of the words or the numbers in their language the next day. From this experience my young students came to understand they owned knowledge or literacy in their L1s and it was valuable and important. They also saw themselves as literate in their L1s and I was not, which I felt would impact the way in which they would now approach learning their L2. I also shared some of my own experiences with learning to speak and write in another language, and how I too needed to practise.

The more literacy my students were exposed to in their home and world prior to attending school, the easier it seemed to be for them to learn to read and write in their L2. Buckwalter and Lo (2002) drew upon research by Cambourne (1995) that argued "the more learners are exposed to literacy-related behaviours, observable print in the environment, and adequate periods of time to engage in reading and writing, the more likely they are to engage in literacy activities" (p. 272). Students who had used crayons, pencils, and books,

and attended school in their home country came into the classroom prepared and ready to learn.

One of my young students had spent his entire early life escaping persecution with his family. After they did find safety, he spent three years in a refugee camp. Initially I felt as if I was not teaching him so much as simply making him feel safe. This young boy seemed challenged by having missed out on many early emergent literacy and life experiences. In addition, his family confided in me they all had endured many deep traumas. This student struggled with literacy in all forms as he had never attended school and had limited exposure to any literacy in his life prior to walking into my classroom. In class he had more to learn than his peers. He had to learn early emergent skills that other students had already demonstrated. He also needed to learn not only how to speak in English but also how to hold a pencil or marker, how to draw, make shapes, or print the alphabet, how to use scissors, how to cut and paste, as well numerous other skills that were new to his daily life.

It was not about ability so much as lack of experiences with any schooling at all. This little boy loved to build structures at the art table and with blocks or Lego, often appearing relaxed and peaceful most often doing these activities. I recall one incident where he constructed this incredible-looking car out of boxes and tubes at the art table. I encouraged these activities hoping it would assist him in acquiring some confidence and a sense of place in his new classroom. When he completed his car, he chose to label his creation 'car' and print his name on the front and displayed it on our art table in the school hallway. He was now beginning to use and apply simple forms of emergent literacy.

The classroom environment and the peers surrounding the early L2 learner can have a tremendous impact on literacy success and learning (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002). Students in my class often need to learn genre-specific language. They rely on their peers who speak English more fluently to guide them and assist them in determining the correct words and phrases to use. When studying fairy tales in my class, L2 students who had never written a fairy tale were working in small groups, orally sharing their ideas. L1 peers taught them to copy the words, 'Once upon a time…' explaining this as one way to 'begin' or 'retell' a fairy tale. One of my students wrote nothing but those words and then drew a picture to explain the rest of his fairy tale. L1 writers can draw upon and use their oral language to support their writing whereas young L2 students may not have yet developed enough oral language in their L2 to support their writing (Cumming, Leki & Silva, 2008). Younger emergent writers may not have been using their oral language knowledge to learn to write, but they were drawing upon their L1 peers' oral and internal language abilities (Parks and McGuire, 1999).

Mentorship is beneficial at any age. I often pair my younger students up with older, more experienced mentors to assist them in navigating the school and their day more successfully, just as inexperienced L2 nurses were mentored by more experienced L1 and L2 nurses in the study by Parks and McGuire (1999). Older students truly enjoyed this role. One of

my L2 students looked forward to working with her new-found older friend, and shared snacks with her, read books to her, and wrote her cards. The impact on literacy was quite remarkable. This young student made cards and letters for her parents and family members and quickly learned to read simple pattern books in English. From this experience she was exposed to different genres, new vocabulary, English phrases, numbers, drawing, and oral interactions with an English-L1 speaker.

L2 learning is a complex process, but family support at home, paired with teacher support in classrooms and schools that value what knowledge children bring to school, will assist young students in learning to write. Emergent writers need time, practice, and encouragement to learn how to communicate effectively in writing. They also need the acceptance and respect of others for their style of communication, whether it is using pictures, lines that approximate letters, or letters and words themselves. Understanding the impact of past traumatic experiences and putting support systems into place to assist the students who have experienced trauma would also be valuable.

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LET'S GO TO TIM HORTON'S:

A sample of a task

By Amer Ahmed and Iryna Lenchuk, Dhofar University, The Sultanate of Oman

The goal of this paper is to discuss the concept of a task as a pedagogical activity used in the second language (L2) classroom for the purpose of developing the communicative competence of L2 learners. The term *task* has been widely used in the field of applied linguistics (see e.g., Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 2010; Long, 2014; Nunan, 2004; Willis & Willis, 2007). The Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLBs), a document that represents a Canadian language standard for teaching and assessment of English as a Second Language (ESL) in Canada, lists task-based instruction as one of its guiding principles (Center for Canadian Language Benchmarks (CCLB), 2012, p. IX). In addition, Portfolio-Based Language Assessment (PBLA), a new type of assessment recently introduced in federally and provincially funded ESL classes in Canada, uses the concept of a real-world task (Pettis, 2014). Therefore, TESL students trained to become ESL Instructors or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors, as well as practicing ESL/ EFL teachers need to have a clear understanding of what a task is, what the main criteria of a task are and how a task can be used in the ESL/ EFL classroom. This paper attempts to answer these questions by providing and discussing a sample task.

Why TBLT: The rationale behind the approach

Since the 1980s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been known as a leading approach to second language (L2) teaching and learning in the ESL and EFL contexts (see e.g., Harmer & Thornbury, 2013). The goal of this approach is the acquisition of *communicative competence*, which is known as the ability to use language in a variety of communicative contexts taking into account the relationship between speakers (see e.g., Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia, 2008; Hymes, 1967, 1972). From the early days of its introduction in the L2 classroom, the ESL/ EFL curricula have been developed based on the main principle of CLT that emphasizes the primacy of *meaning* over language *form*. In other words, the pedagogical goal of CLT is to teach L2 learners how to communicate meaning rather than to focus on the manipulation of language form (e.g., grammar, vocabulary) in isolation (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 196).

Over the years, many applied linguists (see e.g., Spada, 2007) and practicing ESL/ EFL teachers have noticed that as a result of the application of the strong version of CLT in the L2 classroom, L2 learners develop fluency in their L2, where fluency is understood as

the ability of L2 learners to communicate meaning. At the same time, L2 learners develop interlanguage grammars that lack grammatical accuracy. In other words, L2 learners can convey communicative messages; however, they convey them by using phrases and sentences that would not be judged as grammatical by expert speakers of English. In an attempt to overcome this problem, a new method known as the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has been introduced in the L2 classroom (see e.g., Hummel, 2014, p. 116).

TBLT has been called by some applied linguists the "methodological option" of the CLT (see e.g., Brown & Lee 2015, p. 39). As an approach to language teaching, TBLT targets the learner's ability to accomplish a task; at the same time, it also assumes that while doing a task, L2 learner's attention can be drawn to language forms (i.e. sounds, vocabulary and grammar) that are needed for the successful completion of the task. It is hypothesized that L2 learners will *notice* language forms and structures introduced within the communicative context of the task and *noticing* of language forms can lead to language acquisition, as predicted by the Noticing Hypothesis (see e.g., Schmidt, 1983).

The idea behind TBLT as an approach to L2 teaching and learning has been supported by theoretical and empirical evidence. As an approach to L2 teaching and learning, TBLT is based on a theory of language that emphasizes a cognitive-interactionist perspective to language learning. The Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996, 2014) assumes that by doing a task (e.g., a picture description task), L2 learners *negotiate for meaning,* which can take place through *interactional modification* (i.e. through clarification requests, requests for paraphrasing, confirmations, recasts, etc.). Interactionally modified or adjusted input makes L2 language forms and functions more *salient* and therefore available for learning.

In terms of the theory of learning, TBLT is based on the idea that experiential and learner-centered learning is much more effective than more traditional, teacher-centered methods of learning. In addition, a task has the potential to improve problem-solving skills, develop critical thinking and address the multiple intelligences of L2 learners present in the ESL classroom (see e.g., Dewey, 1939/1966; Freire, 1970; Gardner 2011).

Definition of a task and its criteria

For the purpose of this paper, we follow the definition by Nunan (2004, p. 4), who defines a task as "a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, and producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form." In addition to the primary goal of a task as a pedagogical activity where learners learn how to interact in the target language, the following criteria of a task have been selected from the literature on TBLT. These criteria can be used by practicing ESL/ EFL instructors as guiding principles to be taken into consideration when designing tasks or selecting tasks from the ready-made materials available in published resources, such as textbooks, or available on-line.

1. The first and the most important criterion that follows from the definition provided by Nunan is that a task should always prioritize communicative meaning over language form. In order for ESL/ EFL instructors to develop or select tasks for L2 learners, they first need to understand what meaning must be communicated to successfully complete the task.

2. In addition to teaching learners how to interact in the target language, a task should focus learners' attention on the forms of the language (i.e. sounds, grammar, and vocabulary) that are necessary for the successful completion of a task. Most importantly, language forms should not be presented in isolation from the communicative context of a task; they should be viewed as linguistic resources that are necessary for the successful completion of a task.

3. The third criterion is the relevance of a task to the needs and interests of L2 learners. It is known that L2 learners represent a very diverse group of students with different needs and different cultural backgrounds, as well as different levels of education and literacy. The relevance of a task for L2 learners is identified through a *needs assessment*. The needs assessment allows ESL/ EFL teachers to select and/or develop the tasks that are relevant and meaningful to their learners.

4. The forth criterion is that a task should be able to stand alone as a communicative act and it should have a communication problem to solve. This criterion of a task targets the development of problem solving and critical thinking skills.

5. While designing a task, it is necessary to keep in mind that a task should have a clear structure with a beginning, middle and an end.

6. The last criterion deals with the assessment of the performance of L2 learners. The assessment of the task should be outcome-based. The assessment of the performance of the learners on the task should target their ability to do things with language. In other words, ESL/ EFL teachers should assess L2 learners' ability to successfully complete the task.

Task: A sample

The next part of the paper includes an example of a lesson plan that is focused around a task designed by taking into consideration the six criteria for a task mentioned above. This task is designed for a Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada (LINC) level-three class offered by one of the settlement agencies located in Toronto. This is a typical multicultural and multilingual LINC classroom, as the LINC students who attend this class have different levels of language proficiency and different levels of secondary and postsecondary education. All the learners are literate in their L1s.

The theme of the lesson plan within which the task is introduced is *Health and Safety* and the topic is *Healthy Eating*.[1] This task targets the development of the two competency

1 The learners have been previously introduced to and practiced the theme-related vocabulary (e.g., *fat, sugar, sodium*, *protein, calcium*, *daily value*, etc.); they have been introduced to the grammatical concepts of count/non-count nouns, quantifiers, such as *few, less, much, more*). L2 learners have been practicing the use of quantifiers with nouns and comparatives (e.g., *less sugar, more calories, fewer calories*, etc.).

areas in the 2 language skills (i.e. reading & writing).[2] Thus, for a reading skill, the two competency areas are *comprehending information* and *getting things done*. For writing, the two competency areas are *sharing information* and *reproducing information*. It should be noted that before the task was introduced to the learners, they were engaged in the two form-focused activities (FFA), the purpose of which is to prepare the learners for the successful completion of the task. These two FFAs are review activities. Their goal is first, to review previously introduced topic-related vocabulary, and second, to review students' understanding of count and non-count nouns as well as quantifiers that can be used with them.

Form-focused activity 1[3]

*Count or non-count? For the words below, write **C** for a count noun and **N** for a non-count noun*

Sugar, sodium, fat, calories, job, work, snow, rain, rice, time, minutes, hours, money, dollars, bills, change (related to money), coin, mistake, activity, food, gram, milligram, liter, milliliter, students, tea, toast, juice, milk, pound

Form-focused activity 2:

Now write three sentences with the words. Please use the words ***fewer, less, more***.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

FFA 1 focuses learners' attention on the distinction between count and non-count nouns, whereas FFA 2 focuses their attention on quantifiers and the comparative form of quantifiers, such as *little less* and *few fewer*. The purpose of these two FFA is to prepare L2 learners for the successful completion of the task that is described below.

In the task called *Let's Go to Tim Horton's* (see Attachment 1), the learners are asked to view the information adapted from Tim Horton's nutrition guide (The TDL Group Corp., 2014), arrange breakfast and snack choices in order from less healthy to healthier choices, and choose a healthy breakfast and a healthy snack. In both exercises included in the task, learners have to justify their answers to a friend by producing sentences with quantifiers, such as *less, fewer, more*. The task also includes a self-assessment component based on the *Can-Do Statements* (CCLB, 2013), such as *I can write short, simple sentences about things*

2 A competency area is a concept used in the Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLBs) that describes an ability of a L2 learner; specifically, what L2 learners can do with language in a certain skill and at a certain level of his/her development (CCLB, 2012).

3 In Activity 1, Activity 2, and in the task, learners' attention is drawn to the grammatical structures and forms explicitly. The intention is that learners will attend to and notice language forms while they are working on a task. This decision to focus on form explicitly is supported by the positive outcomes of the research on explicit teaching as well as research on form-focus instruction (see e.g., Spada, 1997, 2014).

I know, I can copy information (e.g. numbers), and *I can find information in simple tables.* Students' reflections and teacher's comments constitute an integral part of the assessment.

The task is designed based on the criteria for the task mentioned above. First, the task is designed for the purpose of communicating meaning (i.e. making healthy choices) rather than for the manipulation of isolated language forms. Second, this task is authentic, as it has been adapted from the brochure that contains the information about the nutritional value of the products offered at Tim Horton's, a popular coffee shop in Canada. Third, the task includes language forms, such as topic-related vocabulary and quantifiers and promotes noticing of these language forms by the learners. Among the topic-related vocabulary, there are specific food items that the learners may not be familiar with, such as *English muffins*, *Timbits*, *latté,* as they may not be used in their home countries. On the other hand, these vocabulary items are frequently used by Canadians. Knowledge of these vocabulary items selected for the task also provides the learners with an opportunity to learn about Canadian culture, as going to Tim Horton's and ordering from Tim Horton's constitutes a big part of the Canadian identity. The task of ordering a beverage or a pastry from Tim Horton's is something that the learners might do on a regular basis in Canada. The learners are also provided with opportunities to produce the target forms in a communicative context. Fourth, the task integrates the two language skills, reading and writing, and it also targets the development of one of the competency areas (i.e. *getting things done*) that target the ability of the learners to get information from simple formatted texts (such as forms, tables, and charts; CCLB, 2012, p. 81). Fifth, the task has a clear structure. Sixth, it also includes an assessment component that consists of self-assessment, student's reflection on their performance of the task and the teacher's comment. Therefore, it can be potentially used as an artefact to be included in the learners' portfolio and be part of the learners' ongoing and formative assessment known as PBLA.

Conclusion

It is our belief that the criteria for a task presented in this paper can be used by ESL/EFL teachers as a guideline (a) when selecting ready-made tasks from published resources, and (b) when developing their own tasks which meet the communicative needs of their L2 learners.

Attachment 1

Let's Go to Tim Horton's: The task

1. You want to have breakfast at Tim Horton's. Choose a healthy breakfast and explain why this breakfast is healthy. In your answer, use the words *less, fewer, more*. Now arrange breakfast sandwiches from less healthy to more healthy.

Breakfast sandwiches	Serving size (g)	Calories	Fat	Sodium (mg)	Sugar (g)	Protein (g)	Calcium (% daily value)
English muffin, sausage, egg, cheese	164	410	24	850	1	19	20
English muffin, turkey sausage, egg white, cheese	164	280	9	780	2	20	15
English muffin, egg white, cheese	127	220	5	500	2	13	15
Oatmeal	327	210	3	220	14	6	4

2. You want to have a snack (a coffee and a pastry) at Tim Horton's. Choose a healthy snack and explain why. In your answer, use the words *less, fewer, more*. Now arrange the snacks from less healthy to more healthy. Number your choices.

Donuts	Serving size (g)	Calories	Fat	Sodium (mg)	Sugar (g)	Protein (g)	Calcium (% daily value)
Toasted Coconut	79	290	13	280	22	4	4
Toasted Coconut Timbit	20	70	3.5	75	6	1	0
Blueberry Muffin	115	340	11	430	25	5	2
Beverage	Serving size (mL)	Calories	Fat	Sodium (mg)	Sugar (g)	Protein (g)	Calcium (% daily value)
Black coffee	286	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hot chocolate	285	240	6	320	38	2	2
Latte	286	80	0.2	120	11	8	25

Self-assessment based on *Can Do* statements (CCLB, 2013):

1. I can write short, simple sentences about things I know.	*Yes*	*I need more practice*
2. I can write common, everyday words.		
3. I can copy information (e.g. numbers) 4.		
5. I can find information in simple tables		

Student's reflection:

Teacher's comments:

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Author Bios

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BOOK REVIEW

Formulaic language and second language speech fluency: Background, evidence, and classroom applications

D. Wood (2010). London/New York: Continuum. Pp. 242, CAD$39.95 (paper).

Wood's (2010) *Formulaic language and second language speech fluency* provides theoretical and practical accounts of speech fluency and pedagogical applications of formulaic sequences within classroom contexts. The book is divided into three parts including background, evidence, and applications. Through reviewing the commonly-cited literature, and with particular emphasis on longitudinal studies, the background section initially presents the reader with definition of fluency, associating it with temporal variables of rate (speech and articulation rates), quantity (mean length of runs), and pausing (silent/filled, locations, and length) as well as repair phenomena.

The focus then shifts to formulaic language in general, elaborating on the ways formulaic sequences are manipulated by first and second language speakers to produce fluent speech. The author presents a clear-cut definition of formulaic language and then surveys the literature to provide a solid understanding of the concept from other scholars' perspectives. The discussion is then linked to the notions of types, characteristics, and the value of formulaic sequences as well as the diagnostic criteria proposed in the literature. Children and adult language acquisitions are contrasted, stressing the facilitative role of formulaic language in language acquisition. The chapter finally highlights the pragmatic functions of memorized sequences as an important building block of speech fluency.

Wood next places a considerable emphasis upon the key role played by cognitive and mental processes in speech production and enhancement of speech fluency. Through reviewing a large body of literature on the cognitive and psycholinguistic models of speech production, he attempts to deepen the readers' understanding of the cognitive processes underlying speech production and fluency. Wood provides an extended account of the fluency-related phenomena involving such concepts as short-term/long-term/working memory, automatization, proceduralization, controlled and automatic processing, and concludes by describing how these cognitive processes are facilitated through the use of formulaic sequences.

The last chapter of the background deals with the social and cultural perspectives on fluency. Despite the limited literature linking the concepts of fluency and formulaic language to sociocultural factors, the author is able to demonstrate the inherent dynamics that exist among a range of personality factors including anxiety, self-efficacy, voice, and identity and how these may interact with the development of fluency and the use of formulaic language.

Adopting a socio-historical and sociolinguistic view, he conceptualizes L2 fluency and formulaic language as influenced by a myriad of contextual factors, which exert an impact on the ways and extent to which formulaic sequences are used.

The second section, evidence, sets out to establish a link between the theory discussed hitherto and the empirical implications in practice. Wood reports on a longitudinal study of formulaic language development through the course of a project and its influences upon fluency gains of ESL students. Employing a repeated measures design and performing extensive qualitative as well as quantitative analyses, he attempts to demonstrate in practice how cognitive, linguistic, social, and cultural factors interact and how speech fluency is facilitated through the use of formulaic sequences. He notes, towards the end, that the effect is complex and shifting, and puts forward constructive suggestions for further research.

The final chapter concludes the discussion of theories and research contributions in classroom setting. Wood aims to establish a solid understanding of the construct of fluency, the role of formulaic sequences, and classroom techniques and strategies that improve them. Drawing on literature and research, he makes a convincing argument for the phases of fluency development through formulaic sequences and ends the discussion by distinguishing formulaic language as the key factor in automatizing speech fluency.

Content organization and depth of discussions through the entire book, particularly in the background section, are two of the distinctive features characterizing this book. However, despite the author's attempts to examine complex subject matters through simple and straight-forward language, some of the discussions in the background section (e.g. cognitive processing) could be hard to grasp for readers who lack prior knowledge of the field. While the book provides a concise and substantial collection of the literature benefiting researchers in the field, it could get overwhelming at times to novice researchers, or language teachers merely seeking immediate practical solutions to address classroom challenges of enhancing L2 learners' speech fluency.

The book would have benefited from a section on fluency assessment; both qualitative and quantitative. Though the temporal measures of speech commonly used in quantitative measurement of the construct have been thoroughly discussed in the background, a more systematic and practical guide to the ways temporal features of speech could be used to inform fluency research and classroom practice, as well as some discussion of qualitative evaluation of oral fluency (e.g. rubrics and holistic/analytic scales), would have improved the comprehensiveness of the content from an assessment viewpoint.

Despite the above comments, this evidence-based book not only offers theoretical insights for academics interested in researching speech fluency and formulaic language, but also puts forward clear and comprehensive discussions, making it an interesting read for new SLA (second language acquisition) and L2 fluency researchers. Last but not least, the pedagogical implications and thorough discussions of hands-on L2 speech fluency

enhancement tasks and formulaic sequences activities in the final chapter are certainly a great resource to curriculum developers and instructors in search of teaching ideas that could be immediately utilized in L2 classrooms.

Reviewer: Shahin Nematizadeh, Carleton University.

TESL ONTARIO CONFERENCE

Registration brochure posted online: September 12
Online Registration open: September 25 to October 23
www.teslontario.net/conference

Attach: Program Flow Short

MESSAGE FROM THE CONFERENCE CHAIR:
Your conference committee continues to focus its work on offering you program content to meet your professional development interests for the upcoming conference. If you haven't already done so, mark your calendars for our 46th annual conference, 'Synergies of Language and Life' on November 1st and 2nd at Sheraton Centre in downtown Toronto.

Our keynote speakers have been confirmed! Asmaa Cober, who holds a Masters in Social Work, will share her personal and professional experience as someone who fled the war in Iraq and who now has a practice in Kitchener-Waterloo. Deborah Healey, a professor from the University of Oregon, has a Ph. D. in Computers in Education, and MA Linguistics will be presenting on 'Gamification' and will be speaking to us remotely from Oregon.

Friday's panel presentation will again see representatives from our provincial ministries reflect on 'Building Thriving Communities'.

Building on the success of last year's Career Connections event, the event planning team has confirmed presenters for the Career Forum who will be speaking on the following three topics: 'Monetizing Your Professional Skills', 'From Ideation to Paycheque' and 'Coaching for Success'. Twelve employers have registered to date with more expected.

New this year will be our first ever TechKnow session where technology experts will provide advice and guidance on specific technology topics. In addtion this year, the conference will feature a number of remote presentations including some PBLA related topics from Western Canada. Stay tuned for more details. There are other components in the works, so be sure to check the website regularly for more information.

And finally, it's not too late to submit your proposals for poster sessions. We know you have great ideas, so don't be shy about sharing them!

Barb Krukowski
Conference Chair

KEYNOTES

GAMIFICATION IN EDUCATION: HYPE OR USEFUL TEACHER TOOL?

Dr. Deborah Healey, University of Oregon/TESOL International Association

Language teachers have long used games, but gamification – the use of game elements in non-game settings – is a recent concept. Businesses use gamification (points and badges) to increase customer loyalty. In education, is gamification "trendy," or could we use the motivating elements of gaming to re-think the classroom? This presentation will describe how I incorporated gamification into courses for pre-service and in-service teachers, and how the teacher-learners responded. I will also offer ways to get started for those who are interested. This Keynote presentation will be a remote presentation and displayed in a large room at the conference on a big screen with amplified sound and a moderator will be present.

About the Presenter:

Dr. Deborah Healey is the 2018-2019 President-Elect of the Board of Directors of TESOL International Association. She teaches online teacher training courses for the American English Institute at the University of Oregon, primarily focusing on technology in education. She has also taught both ESL and EFL at community colleges and language institutes. She has written and presented extensively in the US and internationally, most recently in Indonesia, Georgia, Croatia, Serbia, the West Bank, Colombia, Chile, Argentina, and Thailand. Her recent areas of research include gamification, language and identity in the Middle East, massive open online courses, and online teaching approaches. Her doctorate is in Computers in Education.

KEYNOTES

LEARNING AND RESILIENCE

Asmaa Cober, Sanctuary Refugee Health Centre

Learning never happens in a vacuum. People bring all of their experiences with them to the classroom. Newcomers (and refugees in particular) have a life history -- experiences that greatly affect their ability to learn. Drawing on Asmaa's experience working with refugees from various parts of the world, we'll discuss the impact of the immigration and refugee experience, including various traumas, on the brain, and the obstacles to learning that ensue. We will also propose a different viewpoint that focuses not just on obstacles, but on hope and resiliency – with the goal of helping students to overcome these obstacles.

About the Presenter:

Asmaa Cober is originally from Iraq where she was raised by two teachers from whom she inherited the value of education and learning. During her refugee journey, Asmaa lived in four different countries and is fluent in 5 languages. For the last 25 years, she has been working with refugees in different roles. 6 of those years were spent in the classroom working with refugee children in Finland.

Asmaa is currently working as a clinical social worker at a refugee health clinic in Waterloo Region while running her own private practice. She has earned the Masters of Social Work degree from Wilfrid Laurier University and is a member of EMDRIA international as well as the Canadian Association of Social Workers.
Asmaa has an immense passion for inspiring others reach their best potential, shaped by her own refugee experience. As a refugee woman herself, she has overcome a variety of barriers, and is keenly aware of the issues and obstacles that refugees and immigrants face on their journeys. In her role as a clinical social worker and community educator, Asmaa uses humor, cultural knowledge, education, art, and faith. She uses her skills and experiences as tools to empower people to rebuild their lives and find meaning past their trauma.

Asmaa's coworkers describe her as truly inspirational, both professionally and personally.

EXHIBITORS/SPONSORS:

TESL Ontario's Annual Conference is widely anticipated as the place to learn about the latest research in the field, attend informative workshops and of course, network. Your product or service will be centre stage - with an audience of over 850 ESL professionals from across Canada, all of whom are interested in discovering and purchasing new materials to increase their effectiveness.

WHY PARTICIPATE?

- Personal interaction with direct influencers, key decision makers, potential buyers and end-users from the English language teaching field
- Showcase your products or services to the right audience; gather information for product/service development
- Network, recruit and build relationships with current and future customers
- Chance to better understand your clients' marketplace opportunities as a result of face-to-face conversations
- Increase your company visibility by positioning your brand with national exposure to 12 local affiliates in one environment
- Partnership with TESL Ontario and support of the ESL profession

This conference provides the ability to interact with and promote your company's brand directly to ESL educators in a variety of capacities. The role of the educator is not only to instruct their students in gaining language skills, but also to act as a trusted advisor and mentor. Educators are relied upon for providing direction and guidance with many day-to-day needs, while students navigate through a tremendous life transition. Having the opportunity to educate this key group of influencers and make them champions regarding your products, specialized programs and services can result in a large impact on the growth of your business in this sector.

Sponsorship and Exhibitor Opportunities brochure - http://www.teslontario.net/conference/exhibitors

Career Connections – Employer Exhibitors

TESL Ontario's Annual Career Connections event is a great place for employers to meet and engage with ESL professionals across Ontario.

This event can make it easier to find the right candidates for your institution. The opportunity to exhibit as an employer is FREE to all employers, but space is limited. Are you:
a hiring manager at your organization?
interested in connecting with more than 850 ESL professionals from across Ontario
not currently hiring, but interested in engaging with language training educators about your organization's culture and hiring practices?

Registration deadine is August 31, 2018. Detailed employer registration information can be found at: http://www.teslontario.org/conference/career-connection-employer-information.

TESL Ontario 2018
Program Flow

	Thursday, November 1				Friday, November 2			
8:00	REGISTRATION (7:30AM-4:00PM)	EXHIBITS (8:00AM-4:30PM)			REGISTRATION (7:30AM-4:00PM)	EXHIBITS (8:00AM-4:30PM)		
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40			CAREER FORUM	Concurrent Sessions 12:40PM-1:40PM			JOINT PROGRAM ADMINISTRATORS' MEETING (12:30PM-3:00PM)	Concurrent Sessions 12:40PM-1:40PM
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