Inspiring Insights from an English Teaching Scene

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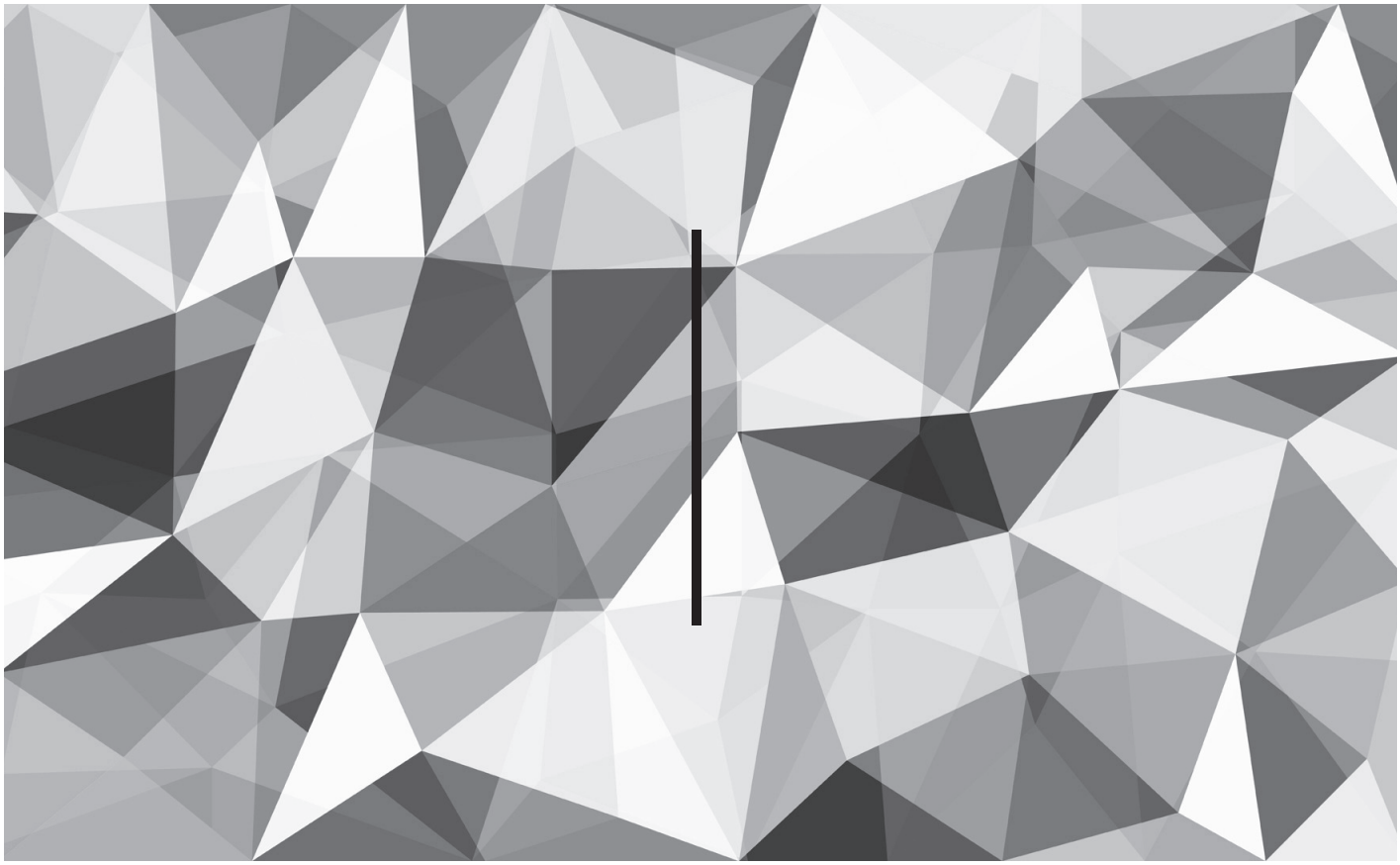

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A word from the organizers:

In organizing this book, we sought to provide a reference point to key areas in English Language Teaching, associated with the modules taught at CEI - Curso de Especialização em Inglês (FALE-UFMG). From this perspective, we invited contributions from specialists, including former CEI students, and in addition, asked them to write a short introduction to their peers' chapters. The ten chapters encompass a wide range of topics and provide the reader with a vantage point to three main areas of specialization:

Teacher Education, Identity, and Critical Literacy
Language Description and Applied Theory
Technology in Language Education and Corpora Studies

The result, we believe, is a thought-provoking volume that will encourage anyone interested in the area to embark on an insightful journey of career development and informed teaching practice.

Welcome to Inspiring Insights from an English Teaching Scene!

Ana Larissa Adorno Marciotto Oliveira
Junia de Carvalho Fidelis Braga

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Arruda and Miccoli's chapter entitled *Pedagogical experiences that promote successful language learning in schools* presents an insightful investigation regarding positive experiences as to the learning of English in Brazilian regular schools. Through a narrative study in which teachers were asked to provide accounts concerning their students' successful learning, the authors convey a clear depiction as to how learners of English can profit from better teaching practices in such schools. An enticing source of inspiration to other language teachers.

Bárbara Malveira Orfanò and Leonardo Pereira Nunes

Pedagogical experiences that promote successful language learning in schools

Climene Arruda
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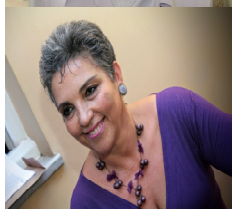

"Being in this world, we need to remake ourselves as well as offer up research understandings that could lead to a better world".
Clandinin ; Connely (2000, p. 61)

Introduction

Teaching and learning a foreign language involve many different elements worthy of research and understanding. Brazilian Applied Linguistics (AL) literature reports that language teachers and students in schools face an array of classrooms problems that never seem to be overcome (GIMENEZ *et al.*, 2003; PERIN, 2003; GASPARINI, 2005; UECHI, 2006; BARCELOS ; COELHO, 2007, LEFFA, 2007). The picture painted by such research shows foreign language teaching and learning in regular[1] schools as doomed for failure.

The lack of literature acknowledging successful learning experiences has always intrigued us. Some of the questions we have asked ourselves are: is it possible that nobody ever learns? Are there not exceptions? Is teaching really

[11] In Brazil, regular schools are public and private institutions not exclusively dedicated to the teaching of foreign languages, as language institutes.

just a formality? We craved to find studies that focused on successful learning in schools. At the same time we wondered - if teachers and students knew that success is possible; that learning English in public and private schools is possible, would that encourage them to aim for an experience similar to other successful experiences in language classrooms?

Our purpose is to share part of the results of a doctoral experiential narrative study that investigated students' successful experiences in learning English (ARRUDA, 2014) in regular school. This research documented and described their success in learning English. The research objective aimed to understand how students explained their successful learning experiences since the present paradigm sustains that English teaching in Brazilian regular schools is inefficient. In the study, the focus was on students' voices. Yet, we also collected narratives from their teachers to gain insights on how they explained their students' success as well as on the working environment in which they worked.

In this chapter we focus on the teachers' narratives as their content may reveal some of the details to the road to success. Their pedagogical practices that emerged as part of the narratives may also contribute to improve the teaching and learning of English in regular schools. Our goal in sharing these teachers' narratives is to help other teachers become better teachers.

In the narratives, teachers explain how their students learn and talk about the actions that contribute to their students' success. They inspire the implementation of good and successful practices. Moreover, these teachers' data reveal that learning in schools is possible. Thus, with this paper we acknowledge the existence of successful learning experiences in public and private schools. This evidence may change the belief, shared by many, that students do not learn English in such contexts – a belief that hinders the possibility of success in teaching and learning English in Brazilian classrooms.

Miccoli (2011, p.176) advises that "[one has] to believe so as to see [change]." Thus, if change in Brazilian schools is what we aim for, we have to believe that is actually possible and take actions to make the expected results become a reality.

1. Researching Experience

Miccoli (2010) argues that understanding the complexity of classroom events can be investigated with the construct of experience as a unit of analysis. She has been conducting and supervising research on teachers' and students' experiences in language classrooms for almost 20 years. Thus, contributing to the comprehension of the classroom foreign language teaching and learning (MICCOLI 2013, 2014).

According to Miccoli, any experience refers to events that happen to individuals. As a construct, an experience is inherently dual, for having a collective aspect - of social nature, for events happen in specific social milieu. Simultaneously, an experience has an individual and subjective nature (something that happens specifically to someone). As a natural event in our human existence, experiences are intriguing. Plato and Aristotle (REALE, 1994) had opposing views on the nature of experience. Hegel (1991) and Dewey (1938), among other philosophers, integrate experience as related to the world, the mind and human beings. Recently, cognitive science researchers have associated experience to consciousness and to the interactions of human beings with their environment (NUÑEZ, 1995; MATURANA, 2001). Framed by these theoretical understandings, Miccoli (2014) has defined experience as

> *a process of organic and complex nature that constellates in itself various other related experiences, forming a net of dynamic relations with the experiencer in the environment where the experience occurs.*

Miccoli's investigations and those of her associates have shed light into the net of interrelations that emerge from the seven different documented domains of classroom experiences (MICCOLI, 2014). Regardless of being narrated by teachers or students the framework has six shared categories that refer to *social*, *affective*, *contextual*, *personal*, *conceptual*, and *future* events. The only distinction in the framework is found in the domains that refer to acquiring or imparting knowledge - when students refer to events related to acquiring knowledge, such experiences are named *cognitive* experiences; when teachers refer to events related to imparting knowledge, such experiences are named *pedagogical* experiences. Each of these categories is divided into subcategories that provide a detailed account of the nature of teachers or

students lived experiences in real or virtual classrooms as well as in any other teaching and learning context, such as that of a continued-education program.

As a point of departure, the *Framework of Classroom Experiences* can be adapted. Some researchers have renamed categories (BAMBIRRA, 2009), others have added categories (ZOLNIER, 2011), others have renamed subcategories (FERREIRA, 2012) or deleted some of them (LIMA, 2014) because they were not documented in the data. Thus, the *Framework* is flexible to serve the purpose of the research endeavor.

In addition to documenting experiences, the teachers' oral narratives, in this study, were analyzed according to the categorical-content perspective described in Lieblich *et al*. (1998). The teachers were asked to explain the reasons for their students' success, that is, to share with us their perceptions on how their students progressed in their learning of English. They were also asked to talk about their working environment and how it contributed to their teaching practices.

2. Narrative Research

According to Bruner (1996), narrative is the first and most natural way in which "we organize our experience and our knowledge" (p. 121). Polkinghorne (1988) points out that narrative is "a scheme by means of which human beings give meaning to their experience of temporality and personal actions" (p.11). Human activity and experience are impregnated with meaning, and narratives are means by which meaning is communicated. Therefore, narrative research is a way to understand experience, assigning meaning to it.

Clandinin and Connelly (2000, p. 19) state that "the educational experience should be studied through narratives," to preserve the narrator's point of view. They ensure, based on John Dewey, that "people can not be understood only as individuals. They are always in relation, always in a social context" (2000, p. 2). Thus, humans need to be understood in relation to the experiences and interactions they establish with others throughout life. Based on the concept of Dewey's experience (1938), these authors suggest a three-dimensional theoretical framework for the narrative research, namely "personal and social (interaction); past, present, and future (continuity); combined with the notion of place (situation)" (ibid., p. 50). In other words, Clandinin and Connelly (ibid.) understand experience as being personal and, at the same time, social,

context-dependent and derived from interaction, corroborating Dewey (1938) and Miccoli (2014).

Referring to narrative research, Josselson (2010) states that it "involves obtaining some phenomenological account of experience obtained from the person or persons under investigation, and our epistemological praxis relies on hermeneutics, a disciplined form of moving from text to meaning" (p. 37). Thus, narrative research methodology was adopted for its suitability to raise the meaning that students and their teachers attributed to successful learning experiences.

3. The Study on Successful Experiences

The research design for interpreting and understanding successful experiences (ARRUDA, 2014) includes a mixed-method[2] contextual approach for data collection. Data were collected from four students and their four teachers in two public and two private schools. Narratives were both the object of study as well as the instrument for data collection. The focus of the research was the students and teachers in action, in natural context, and for a period of time – all narrative research features. An emic perspective was sought because documentation privileged participants' points of view. Quantitative analyses were carried out of the experiences collected from the students' narratives. Qualitative analyses were carried out from the categories that emerged in the teachers' narratives.

We collected oral narratives from eight students – four from two public schools and the others from two private schools in the capital of Minas Gerais. Three of the schools in the study were located in underprivileged socioeconomic areas in Belo Horizonte, while the last one was located in a middle class neighborhood.

Data were collected from the students' respective teachers, who chose their pseudonyms - André, Angela, Mariana e João. All of them had graduated to be English teachers and had specialist credentials, with extensive teaching experience. They taught English classes for grades sixth to ninth in elementary schools and in middle school, too. The teachers were invited to identify two or three successful students from their classes that had never studied English in

[2] According to Dörnyei (2007) this kind of study "involves the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research methods or paradigm characteristics." (p. 163)

language institutes. This procedure is justified – since our research focused on successful English learning experiences in regular classrooms, we preferred students without previous knowledge of English.

The teachers promptly indicated students who were willing to take part in the study. After getting written permission from their parents, the students were interviewed in English to have their proficiency tested. Next, the students' oral narratives were collected. In these narratives they told us about what they did to learn English and what contributed to their learning success. Students highlighted the elements that modulated their in-class and out-of-class learning experiences. Next, the teachers' narratives were collected. They talked about the elements that contributed to their students' language development, explaining why they were being successful in the learning of English in class. The teachers' accounts enabled a holistic view of the learning teaching process that reveals the road to successful experiences.

Besides highlighting the teachers' points of view and providing the desired triangulation (BROWN ; RODGERS, 2002), the teachers' narratives complemented the students' accounts, allowing to check if teachers and students signaled the same elements as contributing to successful learning. Their testimonies also served as an important source for understanding the context that yielded such success. In other words, teachers' claims allowed us to triangulate data, since they corroborated the elements that contributed to students' experiences of success.

As in this chapter we are focusing on the teachers` voices alone, Table 1 displays the instruments used for data collection, the research objective derived from using each of the instruments, and the methodology utilized for the data analysis.

Tools for Teachers Data Collection	Objectives	Methodology of Analysis
Oral narratives about the students learning process.	To collect teachers` perceptions on elements that contribute to the success of their students.	Categorical-content perspective described in Lieblich *et al*. (1998).
Oral narratives about the conditions offered by school for work development, as well as their actions in the classroom and guidance given to students which contribute to the development of English learning.	To get to know the context for the occurrence of successful learning experiences.	

Table 1: Instruments for Teachers Data Collection, Objectives and Methodology of Analysis

We adopted the categorical-content perspective procedures described in Lieblich *et al.* (1998) to analyze the narratives. The authors state that content analysis is "the classic method of doing research with narrative materials in psychology, sociology, and education" (p. 112), separating "the text in relatively small units of content and subject[ing] them to descriptive or statistical treatment" (p. 112). It is the purpose of the research, the nature of the narrative material and the researcher's preference for goals or hermeneutical processes that lead the choice for one treatment or another. In this piece of research, descriptive treatment was chosen for being adequate to our guiding research questions. Thus, after carefully reading the narratives, different themes and topics were identified, leading to the emergence and refinement of categories, which were later qualitatively interpreted.

4. Discussion of Results

The themes that emerged from the teachers` narratives present their points of view on the experiences that promote their students' successful English learning experiences. The following categorical-content was identified: *attributed characteristics of students*; *students' agency/motivation; teacher practice*; *school context*, and *the out-of-school context*. When talking about their students and their successful English learning experiences, teachers referred to their working environment, and to their teaching practices. In addition, teachers pinpointed students' personal traits, and their agency[3] and motivation as factors related to their success. Moreover, teachers related their students' success to their own pedagogical practices, to the school's support to their teaching, as well as to their observations of how students used English out of class. Thus, in addition to the learners' autonomy both a supportive school context and good pedagogical practices promoted successful language learning in regular schools. Table 2 refines what that entails.

Categories	Elements highlighted by teachers which promote learning
Favorable School Context to Teaching/Learning	• Support from the Coordination to developed work: meeting the teacher demands and the teaching resources needs • Possibility of technology use in the classroom and in the laboratory with computers, e-board (one private school) • School organization: pedagogical project, physical space - room environment for English language (one public school) • School environment brings pleasure / joy • Feeling of safety / trust in the pedagogical

[3] "Agency refers to people's ability to make choices, take control, self-regulate, and, thereby pursue their goals as individuals, leading, potentially, to personal or social transformation. ... A sense of agency enables people to imagine, take up, and perform new roles or identities (including those of proficient L2 speaker or multilingual) and to take concrete actions in pursuit of their goals." (DUFF, 2012, p.417).

	work offered by the school coordination • Autonomy to choose teaching materials, to develop projects and educational work • Access to educational resources: copies of pedagogical activities for students
Teachers' practices conductive to learning	• Language experimentation opportunities (development of oral skills) in real-life situations (gym class situation, purchase/sale in store situation, etc.) • Recreational pedagogical activities: games, plays and music • Use of technology and use of the foreign language in the classroom • Teaching based on communicative purposes related to the reality of students • Interdisciplinary work • Work with genres - contextualized grammar • Thematic projects (music, film, etc.) that promote students' interaction. • Arousing of students' interest/Classroom activities that students enjoy (music, drama, projects) • Clear instructions on the objectives of the proposed activities; • Guidance to students on reading and listening strategies • Informal conversations with students in English • English usage in the classroom. • Moments of reflection about the need to learn English and about the usefulness of the language • Suggestions on how to improve English outside the classroom • Production opportunities of communicative situations and activities (role-plays), which foster involvement, creativity, and motivation. • Out of `routine' dynamics, interactive activities in groups, for example: interview situation for employment (company x candidates) • Encouraging students to talk in English, no matter their linguistic level (emphasis that all of them are in the learning process, error is part of the process). • Oral testing that instigates learning • Development of students' oral skills • Videos produced by students (interviews, music clips) • Effort to present "cool" classes to meet the

	needs of students who want to learn/who view school as a place of learning/who do not have the possibility to study the language in language institutes • Activities in which the use of English is needed to accomplish a task/a specific goal. • Participation in continued-education programs: practical implementation and reflection on results. • Search for improvement of their language knowledge • Reflection and constant search for improvement of pedagogical practice. • Commitment to the teaching/learning process.

Table 2 Categories and their corresponding elements in teachers` narratives

An analysis of the elements that teachers highlighted as conductive to successful language learning reveals that in addition to a favorable teaching context, teachers reveal an attentive look at their students' needs and wants with a focus on trying to bring the reality that exists outside the school walls into the classroom. References to offering opportunities to speak, to experiment with the use of the language without the obligation to be correct, i.e., promoting a view of errors as a necessary part of the path to fluency is recurrent in teachers' accounts. Another affordance – understood as something in the environment with a quality that motivates an action from an individual for whatever purpose – that teachers offer is found in these teachers' use of English in classroom interaction with students. Thus, English is not for the filling of blanks in vocabulary or grammar exercises alone. English is for addressing the students, encouraging them to make use of the language they learn to overcome the natural fear of sounding strange and ridiculous in the foreign language. These teachers reveal their effort to offer students cool classes. Not just the meaningless, but traditional 'copy from the blackboard' that bores students, leading them nowhere, except to the feelings of hating to be in school.

In their discourse, these teachers have demonstrated compromised attitudes and pedagogical practices to promote students' real learning. The four teachers emphasized the favorable teaching conditions offered by the school administration. These teachers revealed to be committed to teaching good classes. They also shared investing time, money and effort to improve their

teaching skills aiming to develop their students' learning, taking part in continued-education programs. They test new teaching techniques and reflect on the results. They also seek to improve their language skills and linguistic knowledge. Finally, there was extensive reference to their teaching practice when explaining successful learning. The excerpt that follows illustrates one of the teacher`s good practices.

> *In class, I try to provide students with moments of presentation, practice and production. I make it possible for students to experience the language in contexts close to their reality. Whenever possible, I suggest plays and bring games to class. I work with music. I also reflect with students about the need to learn English and I give them suggestions on how they can improve their knowledge out of class – reading [books], [watching] movies, studying, [reading] instructions, [doing] exercises, [searching] websites, etc.*

In this excerpt, Mariana, a private school teacher talks about providing opportunities for language experimentation in real-life situations, by using recreational pedagogical activities, that afford students moments of reflection as well as giving them guidance. She expresses how pleased she is for working in that school, as the next excerpt shows:

> *I`ve been working there 10 years. Working in this school is a pleasure and a joy. I have full management and supervision support. We have resources such as, an audio system, a video [player], multimedia [access], computer room with Internet access, etc. I feel safe and confident about my work in this school, I do not only have support, but the autonomy to choose the learning materials, to develop projects, and educational work.*

In the following excerpt, João, a public school teacher refers to reflection and search for improvement as part of his teaching practices, as well as to his commitment to the teaching/learning process:

> *One thing that I think sets me apart is that I do not accommodate, right? (...) I always look for …, as a reflective teacher I try to improve my practice. If something did not work at a given time, I try to know what happened - why it did not work, what [it is that] I have to improve and I always look for ideas, for example - the courses that take place in [teacher] training programs. Wherever a new idea appears, a new good thing, I think I'll put it into practice and then do that test right away and if it works in the following year I repeat, (…) [Those who think] that in a public school it's all right just to resort to "spit and chalk" [as they say] in the jargon and not to try to do anything different for students, well I'm not like that. I always try to develop myself as a professional and improve my practice with new ideas. (…) [I'm] always trying to reinvent myself as a foreign language professional.*

Next in João's narrative, he highlights the favorable school context as something that contributes to student success.

> *Another thing that also contributes to students' success here is the organization of the school, the educational project, we have an English classroom [that provides] an environment [for learning English] [and] school resources. Whatever we need from the coordination, they try to meet our demands; we receive feedback, right? We have multimedia resources, [voice] recorder, [a] data show, [a] notebook to take to the classroom, so it's more interesting.*

We know that finding a school context that provides teachers with these resources is not common for the majority of teachers in Brazil. Yet, it is good to know that public schools like the one in which João works do exist. Since teachers consider that a resourceful school context is partially responsible for students' successful in English learning, it seems that other schools that do not provide teachers with such teaching resources should consider aiming for the change of such affairs to benefit both teachers in doing their job and students to learn.

Teachers' good pedagogical practices, many of which are also found in the students' narratives and listed in Table 2 reveal that those involved in language teaching and language education need to be aware that leading students to success is partially a matter of implementing classroom activities that afford students opportunities to learn.

These teachers' narratives reveal that they believe in the possibility of learning in school classroom. For this to occur it is necessary to afford learning intentionally, i.e., offer in the environment of the classroom opportunities for students to take action in the use of the language for learning to happen. An evidence of that is the account of what they do in the classroom, of their committed effort to teach good lessons and the resulting success of their students. Andre's teaching initiatives, for example, are modulated by his belief that his students are capable and want to learn in the private school where he works. The following excerpt from Andre's narrative confirms his belief in the possibility of successful learning, which supports his pedagogical actions:

> *I put a lot of effort so that the classes are cool exactly because there are a lot of [students] with that profile, the student who likes [English] who wants to learn and who sees the school as an important source, an important place for language learning.*

The following excerpts bring evidence from two other teachers. Mariana, a private-school teacher refers to her student - João Marcos. Angela, a public-school teacher who talks about her student – Jaqueline. Their accounts reinforce the idea that teachers need to believe in their students' potentials. As a consequence, they prepare classes that offer students activities, tasks and other opportunities that afford students the possibility of learning. Thus, successful language learning for some of their students is a reality in their classrooms.

> *He wants to speak correctly. He has this consciousness when he fails, he can notice it, (…) I think he already thinks in English, João Marcos, he is not translating more all the time.* Mariana

> *In the tests, writing, when I ask [them] to do, for example, a dialogue using what we have learned. The structuring. Everything she writes is very well structured. The sentences are always in the right order, she uses the vocabulary well. (…) her writing is [something to] highlight.* Angela

In this study, teachers created many favorable conditions in their classroom for learning to occur. A supportive school context modulated teachers' actions and teaching practices. Students demonstrated to enjoy the affordances provided in their classrooms and invested in other opportunities for using language out of the school context. Excerpts in the data suggest that successful language learning does not depend on the students' individual actions alone, but also on affordances students find in the classroom context. Not missing the affordances available, in turn, depends on the learners' beliefs and to how significant they find what the teachers offer as opportunities for learning. If situations, events, behavior and their actions are meaningful to them (LANTOLF ; PAVLENKO, 2001; LANTOLF ; THORNE, 2006), they will find determining motives or reasons for action (LANTOLF ; APPEL, 1994). Thus, students will not miss the affordances in the classroom environment.

Having that in mind, it is important to understand that for successful language learning, interrelated elements play a role. Students who have a supportive family to encourage them to pursue their learning; teachers who are committed to doing an honest and serious job in class, by creating opportunities for affordances are likely to be successful in their road to learning.

When the environment offers students the possibility of matching their needs to what is available and ready to be used, chances are that students will

be involved by the conductive learning atmosphere. Yet, the data suggest that teachers are the ones who can offer learners a learning environment rich in affordances for students to grab the opportunities at their disposal.

5. Conclusion

Presenting counter evidence to the Brazilian AL literature on the failure of the teaching of languages in regular schools was the motivation to identify the elements that contribute for successful language learning in regular schools. Thus, this piece of research was pursued in hope for changing the idea that it is impossible to learn English in public and private school classrooms.

From the premise that teachers have a major responsibility in their students' learning process, though students' motivation and agency may also have an essential role, this chapter presented how teachers explain their students' successful language learning experiences.

The four researched teachers revealed not only that their students did to learn English as well as how they themselves contributed to these students' success. In this chapter two elements have been identified as promoting language learning - a favorable school context and good pedagogical practices. As for the school context, the four teachers asserted that (1) they were used to receiving support from their coordinators; (2) were given autonomy to develop their projects; (3) had access to adequate teaching facilities in a learning environment with sufficient teaching resources. These important elements modulated the teachers' good practices, which, in turn, fostered their students' language development. In addition, this piece of research has reinforced the need for appropriate teaching conditions, as data suggest they are essential for successful language learning experiences in schools.

Good pedagogical practices favored learning. Thus, teachers described their attitudes and actions that created learning opportunities in their English classrooms. These teachers mentioned that they were committed to teaching English and to improving their teaching performance. In their pedagogical practices, they reported that they made a point to provide students with opportunities to use to language in interactive, purposeful activities, including the use of English for interaction in class. They also reported they were interested in preparing good classes because they believed their students wanted and were able to learn the language. Teachers also guided students to

continue their studies after class, suggesting actions to promote further learning.

The students, in their narratives while explaining their language development, also highlighted many of the teachers' good practices, thus, confirming the teachers' reports.

In this study, participant teachers had extensive teaching experience, affecting the way they conducted their practice in classrooms. Moreover, the learners' many references to the educational activities in their classrooms as a factor that contributed to their success reiterate the importance of teacher education for effective practice. It has also shown that for the students in this study, the school is actually fulfilling the goal of including English in the Brazilian school curriculum – especially in respect to speaking - a skill many learners wish to acquire. From the teachers' points of view, the results show that providing affordance opportunities in class demands profound knowledge, leaving behind the traditional teaching of basic grammar structures and vocabulary. Speaking is the skill all students want to have (cf. COELHO, 2005; PAIVA, 2005; ZOLNIER, 2007 and ARRUDA, 2008). Therefore, it must be a goal to be achieved in school.

Finally, sharing these results opens the possibility for more articles on successful English language learning experiences in regular schools in Brazil - a context considered not favorable for learning that will hopefully see more success in the future.

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In this chapter, Erika Amâncio Caetano and Andréa Machado de Almeida Mattos make interesting insights on how sentience can give rise to agency and self-empowerment. The reader will have a gratifying experience that will definitely open room for reflection upon the role of language education in contemporary times. It may also inspire teachers to think about their career from a critical and situated perspective.

Ana Larissa Adorno and Bárbara Malveira Orfanò.

Senses in Language Teacher Education: the power of narratives

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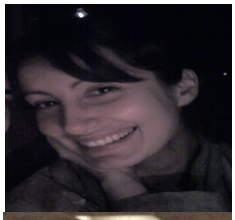

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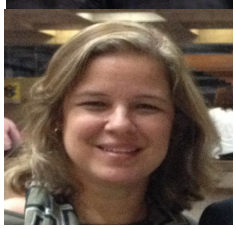

Introduction

Narrative research has lately been used in language teaching and language teacher education (LTE) to better understand the lived experiences of language learners and teachers. This type of research, especially in the area of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), stems from the well-known work of Clandinin and Connely (2000) on narrative inquiry. Connelly and Clandinin (1990) argue that "humans are storytelling organisms who, individually and collectively, lead storied lives. Thus, the study of narrative is the study of the ways humans experience the world" (p. 2). Narrative inquiry, as proposed by these authors, is a process through which researchers gather information on the phenomenon they want to study using narratives and storytelling (CLANDININ et al, 2015).

In this chapter, we will present and discuss the lived experiences related to English learning and/or teaching of a group of in-service language teachers enrolled in a Diploma Program in TESOL at the Federal University of Minas

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Gerais, in Brazil. Data for this study was generated through a narrative task required as a final reflective activity in one of the courses in the program, taught in July, 2015, by the two authors of this chapter. The course, titled "Contemporary Approaches to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language", was designed as a space for participants to reflect on their past and present practices in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) and to reimagine their future in terms of the changes they wanted to see in their lives, profession and community at large. To this end, the content of the course was presented and developed through collaborative reflective activities which required participants to rethink their beliefs and their knowledge in the area, as well as their attitudes and pedagogical practices as learners and teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL).

To design the final reflective activity, we were inspired by Pennycook's (2015) work on English as an International Language/Lingua Franca[5] presented in a minicourse at the XI Brazilian Congress of Applied Linguistics (XI CBLA), in Campo Grande-MS, organized by the State University of Mato Grosso do Sul (UEMS) and the Brazilian Association of Applied Linguistics (ALAB). In his presentation on the topic, Pennycook contended that learning English and speaking the language has already been researched from the perspective of the human senses, especially hearing (listening skills) and sight (reading skills) but also touch, as in research on more kinesthetic aspects of language learning, and even taste, which has been very much practiced in language learning classrooms through hands-on cooking and tasting as part of students' practice. However, in his view, smell is still one of the human senses that lacks language learning research related to it.

Our aim, therefore, was to try to better understand our participants' experiences of learning and/or teaching EFL in order to relate these experiences to their desire or decision to become teachers of English. To achieve that, we asked participants to reflect on their past language learning and teaching experiences and to tell the stories of these experiences in relation to their senses: hearing, sight, taste, smell, touch. The result was an amazing

[5] While we understand that the two terms (English as an International Language and English as a Lingua Franca) may be defined differently by several authors and researchers, we would not like to take this difference into consideration here, as we think it is not relevant for the purposes of this chapter. Pennycook himself did not refer to this difference during the workshop. For a discussion on the possible differences between these terms and other similar ones, see Jordão (2014) and Tupas (2015).

set of personal narratives relating language learning and teaching in all possible ways to the human senses. Through their narratives, it was possible to perceive how language learning, and, for that matter, language teaching, may be affected by our senses and the several ways in which we get into contact with the foreign language, their native speakers and language teachers in our daily experiences.

Here, we will firstly discuss the concept of narrative and narrative research, mainly as these concepts have been used in research in TESOL in general and in TEFL and LTE in Brazil. Then, we will present and discuss some of the participants' narratives generated in this study. We first conducted a more quantitative analysis of the narratives, as we counted and categorized them in relation to the five human senses: hearing, sight, taste, smell and touch. We also conducted a more qualitative analysis which revealed the meanings the participants attached to their narratives. In the final section of the chapter, we argue that narratives and stories of learning and teaching, however partial, may provide a glimpse into the participants' experiences of empowerment, agency, participation and belonging, as well as into their desires to become language teachers themselves.

1. Narratives in Language Teaching and Teacher Education

Narratives have been described as stories, myths, dramas and historical accounts that emphasize human intention and action, and which are "composed of a unique sequence of events, mental states, happenings involving human beings as characters or actors" (BRUNER, 1986, p. 43). Studies in Human Psychology show that humans may have two modes of thought – a paradigmatic one and a narrative one. According to Bruner (2002), we listen to narratives and stories "endlessly, […] and they seem almost as natural as language itself" (p. 3). For him, narratives and stories are part of our lives since a very early age and our relationship with them goes on forever, to the point that narratives and stories become a way of thinking, a way of organizing and understanding our own experiences and that of others. Bruner states that humans have an extraordinary "capacity to organize and communicate experience in a narrative form" (p. 16) and that is what has made our collective life in culture possible. The author also believes that, through telling and listening to narratives and stories, including our own, we construct an image of

ourselves and gradually become who we are. In Bruner's view, narratives and stories not only report on facts and reality, but also construct reality as "narrative meanings impose themselves on the referents of presumably true stories" (p. 9). In so doing, narratives and stories "shape our experience" and create Selves. As the author puts it, "we constantly construct and reconstruct our selves to meet the needs of the situations we encounter, and we do so with the guidance of our memories of the past and our hopes and fears for the future" (BRUNER, 2002, p. 64).

We believe that this constant construction and reconstruction of selves through telling and listening to stories also happens in professional life, that is, in the construction of the professional self. Besides, in the same way that the stories in our memories have an important role in the construction of our selves, these stories also have a relevant role in the construction and reconstruction of our professional selves. In effect, in a narrative study conducted with pre-service teachers in an undergraduate setting, Mattos (2009a) discusses the participants' stories of hope and hopelessness in becoming English teachers. The results of this study show that many of the participants' stories refer to their previous experiences as learners of English. In many cases, as the study reports, participants had their hopes of becoming English teachers enhanced – or sometimes dismayed – because of their good or bad previous experiences while learning the language.

Barcelos (2008) agrees that "narratives are an excellent method to capture the essence of human experience, and of human learning and change" and adds that "narratives show the unique ways that each person deals with his/her dilemmas and challenges" (p. 37). She defines experience as "the human mode of being in the world" (p. 37). For the author, "everything that we experience takes up something from the past and modifies the quality of future experiences" (2008, p. 37). This view points to the possibility that English learners' past experiences may influence their future desires or decisions to become English teachers, which is the focus of this chapter.

As we see, narrative research and narrative views (CASANAVE; SCHECTER, 1997; CLANDININ; CONNELLY, 2000) on teaching and teacher education have opened up space for studying teacher choice and voice, helping both researchers and teachers better understand the context-bound nature of teacher activity (FREEMAN, 1996). Blake and Haines (2009) advocate in favor

of “the use of narratives as a means of understanding the teaching process” (p. 47), and when it comes to teacher activity, it is important to point out that narratives have provided researchers not only with a broad scope concerning teacher practice *per se*, but also with relevant information on students’ views, needs and specificities.

Kalaja, Menezes and Barcelos (2008) bring together, in an edited collection, several narrative studies of learning and teaching EFL, which emphasize the power of narratives in research into teaching and learning and highlight “the numerous ways in which narratives can shed light onto different issues in language learning and teaching and professional development” (p. 224). These authors describe narrative “as a tool that allows an understanding of the impact of our experiences, the emergence of deeply hidden assumptions, and an opportunity to understand change in people and events” (p. 224).

Although it might appear difficult to “think narratively” due to the fact that “the focus on goals, outcomes, and resources inform institutional policies and practices that shape [the researcher’s] knowledge landscapes” (CLANDININ; CONNELY, 2000, p. 25), narrative studies have proven to offer inspiring insights on language teaching practice from the teacher’s own perspective. Mattos (2009b) shows how a narrative study conducted with a language teacher in her own professional environment can portray crucial aspects to the understanding of a language classroom as a complex system of factors, which range from learning context to internal and external pressures. Such factors, as well as the understanding of their specificity, were only identifiable due to the subjective and context-sensitive approach of the narrative inquiry. According to Paiva (2005), “learning narratives reveal that stories do not repeat, because although several of them report similar wishes and complaints, their authors react differently and other factors also interfere in their experiences” (s. p.), which highlights the complexity of the language learning processes.

Thus, it is possible to infer that narrative studies provide teachers with opportunities not only to understand their own practice and environment, but also to identify intersections within the field as a whole. Once they are given the chance to compare and contrast their own experience to the work of other practitioners, it is possible for them to address issues not previously accounted for and construct knowledge collaboratively.

Through the work developed in this field, it is possible to observe aspects concerning language teaching practice as a whole, and to perceive important and interesting points related to the teachers' language learning background, which may, to a certain extent, explain some aspects concerning their teaching practice. Paiva (2006), for instance, focuses on teachers' narratives concerning their language learning experiences and their recent memories as teachers. Throughout her work, it is possible to notice that the participants tend to compare their lives as students to their current students' experiences at school. By using their own language learning process as a tool, respondents in Paiva's research either felt motivated to develop students' skills and engagement towards the discipline or chose to reproduce a model of hopelessness and dissatisfaction in their classrooms.

Considering that the language teachers' background as learners can be associated with their current life as teachers (BAILEY et al, 1996; MATTOS, 2014), one can assume that these teachers' learning experience could eventually influence their desire to follow a career path in language teaching. Having said that, the present study aims at analyzing the participants' EFL learning and teaching experiences related to senses, in order to identify possible connections between such experiences and their decision to become English teachers.

2. Senses and Narratives: becoming an EFL teacher

The final reflective activity, as it was called, required students to produce a narrative that would somehow encompass one of the five senses related to their previous experiences in learning and/or teaching English, that is, the narratives should be related to their "English" life, in some way. It is important to state that there was no strict control over the content the narratives should display other than relating their English-based activities and the five senses in order to avoid any sort of pre-established thoughts and answers. In other words, it was not informed to the students that the focus of our analysis would be their experiences as students which could have contributed either for their personal empowerment or their eventual choice for the teaching career.

Fourty-seven participants in the course contributed with their narratives, from whom eleven participants wrote about their experiences as teachers, not as learners. These eleven narratives were discarded and were not analyzed for

the purposes of this study, since our focus was on the past learning experiences which might have influenced participants to become language teachers. The other thirty-six participants wrote about their experiences as language learners. It should also be mentioned that four participants associated the idea of "touch" with a metaphorically touching experience. For instance, three students mentioned that they were touched by their previous teachers, who had become inspirational models for them, and another student mentioned her experience as a teacher, touching her students by connecting the class to their real lives. One participant mentioned his dissatisfaction with the teaching career and made no connection of his experiences to the idea of senses. These five narratives were also discarded.

This way, 31 narratives generated from the participants in the course were analyzed and categorized according to the purposes of this study. The table below shows the outcomes from the analysis of the participants' narratives as English learners associated with their senses, their lives as students and the possible connections between such experiences and their consequent desire to become English teachers.

SENSE	**Number of narratives (total: 31)**	**DETAILS**
Hearing	13	• Listening to music (6) • Listening to people's advice (2) • Mocking book characters after listening to them (1) • Experience abroad: different pronunciation (3) • Listening to relatives speaking English at home (1)
Sight	11	• Drama performance (2) • Self-portrait: Empowerment (3) • Internship: videos produced by students (1) • Book club field trip to Salem (1) • Letters to relatives abroad (1) • Cartoons (1) • Colorful classes (1)

		• Australian exchange student (1)
Taste	3	• Canadian breakfast (1) • Cake and coffee in the private teacher's home: sense of belonging (1) • Taste of knowledge (1)
Smell	3	• Classes in the kitchen: smell of cookies (1) • Special scent of the classroom (1) • Stinky old books about education (1)
Touch	1	• Cooking class: preparing food (1)

Table: Participants' narratives related to their senses

The results of this categorization portray the diversity of narratives generated in this study. A deeper, more qualitative analysis of the narratives was also conducted. This part of the analysis has been divided into two sections: Sense and empowerment, in which the relation between English learning and empowerment is addressed; and Becoming teachers, which encompasses the learning experiences from teachers as a tool of motivation to follow their career path. These two types of experiences will be discussed more deeply in the following sections.

3. Sense and Empowerment

Among the many experiences showcased in the narratives, it was possible to observe that several of them talked about how the participants' experiences related to their senses have led to their personal empowerment. As for hearing, for instance, the narratives involving experiences abroad and even listening to music show that the possibility of understanding English has enabled the participants to experience another culture and feel part of the English language environment. The following example [6] shows personal empowerment through hearing English and producing new utterances:

[6] The excerpts of the narratives in this chapter are presented in the way they were produced by the participants in the study. We have made minor corrections and/or insertions only when we thought it was necessary for a better understanding of the content of the narratives. These corrections and insertions are presented in brackets [ ]. When we felt it was necessary to show the exact part of the excerpt on which we have based our analysis, we highlighted this part in **bold**.

> *My experience as an English learner started in a very early age, I think I can almost say that ever since I can remember my ears were used [to] the sound of English. That's because my grandmother was an English teacher, and my mom had also taught English when she was younger. I am not sure exactly when I started to figure out that the language that she was speaking with her students [was] English. But I do remember that I was very curious to understand this different sound that my ears where listening to. So when I was a little older I started to create words to communicate with my grandmother and with my mom. [An] example of one of these words that I crated as a child who desired to speak English, is the word: "kisão". I wanted to say big kiss, so in my mind I had just to add the suffix "ão"[7] to the word kiss. My mom didn't correct me at the time and I kept speaking like this and creating other words and I was sure that I was speaking English!*

We can see from this excerpt that the participant felt involved with the language in a way that her curiosity led to a desire to learn the language in order to communicate with her grandmother and her mother. From observing the language being spoken around her, the participant started producing her own bits of language so as to feel part of that particular setting. It is interesting to notice that, even though the utterances produced were not exactly accurate, they were enough for the participant to make herself understood and penetrate that new environment, giving her a sense of belonging, as the following excerpt also shows:

> *Even now as an adult and an English speaker, I still say "kisão" to my mom when I want to mean big kiss. It became our own language.*

The narratives involving sight also pointed out the participant's feeling of empowerment due to their English knowledge. Another excerpt from the previous narrative on hearing also contains a remarkable comment on the participant's visual experience concerning the language. The participant mentioned that she was looking forward to turning eleven years old and having English classes at school. That is when she had the first contact with English words, as she points out:

> *And when I was that age (11), I started to not just listen to those different words for me, but also to see them printed on a paper. It was heaven for me. I could not just listen but write in English! "Oh, how much I desired that my grandmother could see me, she would be very proud!", I used to think.*

[7] The suffix "ão", in Portuguese, is added to nouns to denote that the object or person being referred to is big.

Here we can notice once more the role English learning played in the participant's life, both academically and personally. When she mentions her grandmother would have been proud of her, it is possible to infer that learning this language was a reason for pride and self-empowerment, once she could use the target language in more than one skill.

Still in the same narrative, it was possible to find one more example involving English learning and sight. The participant explains that, when she was at university, she met a group of American students who helped her achieve the dream of visiting an English-speaking country for the first time. The following excerpt contains compelling evidence regarding her sense of empowerment through the experience of learning English:

> *They [the American students] left Brazil and 6 months later I realized my dream that I had since I was a child: I saw with my own eyes that magical land that I have always heard about. I was in the USA! I spent 4 months there and it was for sure the best months for me. I got to experience everything that I have just seen in the movies. It was unique!*

The possibility of living in close contact with a culture is clearly a significant experience when it comes to learning a new language, as we could see in the excerpt above. It is important to mention, however, that such an experience does not necessarily involve travelling abroad. As an example, one of the participants mentioned her experience in hosting an exchange student from Australia. From this narrative related to sight, it is possible to observe that the contact with a native speaker represented, for this participant, an opportunity to cross boundaries and to be in touch with another culture which was in every way different from her own, as we can see in the following excerpt:

> *A few days later she arrived. Her name was Sam, she came from Australia and she looked like nothing I'd ever seen. She was extremely pale, had blue eyes and thin, baby like, white blond hair. She was quite overweight but still exuded self-confidence, which is a rare thing in a sixteen-year-old. She had dyed half her white hair black, had a huge nose ring and lots, lots, lots of acne. Needless to say I was fascinated.*

The participant adds that, due to her hearing skills, she could get to know a great deal of information concerning the girl's background:

> *She was actually pretty cool and, although her looks stood out to me the most, I still could manage to attentively hear her stories being told in her strong "Aussie" accent. Turns out she was a bit of a problem child back home. She had*

> *left Australia because she [was] being bullied for having slept with half her high school. We also learned that ours was her third home in Brazil because she had been expelled from the previous two.*

At the end of the narrative, the participant mentions that she still remains friends with her Australian guest and illustrates her self-empowerment by expressing how her language improvement approximated her from the target-language cultural environment:

> *To this day we're friends on Facebook and every now and then, speak on Skype.* ***She still compliments me on my hearing and tells me I can mimic her accent almost perfectly.*** *I learned a lot from her.*

In the same way that seeing native speakers and native-speaking countries contributes to one's sense of achievement and empowerment, learning a new language can also lead people to see themselves differently. One of the narratives offers an intriguing perspective on this topic. According to the participant, he suffered bullying at school and knowing English represented for him an opportunity to get along with his classmates and to see himself as a better person:

> *Thus, as soon as I started opening some room in my life for the English language, my classmates began to understand how good I was at it, and how able I was at helping them with their English exercises and tests at school. The moment I noticed I could help those who used to bully me, and make me feel uncomfortable about myself, in that sense, be the better person, I started to invest my time and efforts to learn the language further and further.*

One can infer from this excerpt that the participant's awareness of his empowerment when facing the situation influenced his desire to continue learning the language and eventually embracing a teaching career, as we discuss below. What is relevant to show at this point is another excerpt which shows the sense of belonging and also the new sense of self that this participant experienced after mastering the English language, as shown below:

> *At the age of seventeen, I had a very good proficiency level of English, if compared to my fellow classmates. I could already speak very well, and translate songs to my friends by ear.* ***I was still different. However, now, special too. I started regaining a sense of self****.*

In this specific excerpt, we understand that sight was associated not only with concrete experiences of seeing another country or person who belonged to

a different culture, but also fascinating views of one's self and other people as agents of their own self-acceptance, power and desire to continue learning. In another narrative associating this subjective view of sight with personal achievement, the participant points out that her English experience involved exchanging letters with relatives who live abroad:

> *My experience in English learning is deeply related to family. I was brought up writing letters to relatives who were living abroad and at an early age, I [was] used to the universe of English.*

It is possible to infer from this excerpt that knowing the language has enabled the participant to exchange more than words – she could have access to a different culture and to information from her family, which has later aroused her desire to continue her studies and also her fascination with the language and everything related to it.

As for the sense of taste, there is an intriguing narrative which relates the taste and smell of food to a sense of belonging. In the narrative, which illustrates how an English class can bring opportunities to teach much more than the language *per se,* the participant refers to a cooking class in which she and her classmates helped the teacher prepare *cuscuz*, a traditional Brazilian dish. According to her, the experience has been quite remarkable in the sense of using English to conduct a practical and integrating activity:

> *I will never forget that experience, we touched on the food, prepared, the teacher took that to the stove in the snack bar of the institute, twenty minutes later cuscuz was great, the whole class about ten students ate, and we could feel the smell of fresh food and also the process of preparation was seen by the students.*

The activity also involved cultural development and social transformation, once, from the participant's perspective, it involved valuing her own culture:

> *Now, thinking about remarkable situations involving some senses that specific fact came [to] my mind but also the understanding for the reason [the] teacher was doing that activity with us, not just teaching English, she was helping us to give values to our culture, to know how to talk about our particularities, she was teaching through the cracks she found in the context that we were in.*

The same idea related to a sense of belonging is illustrated in one of the narratives involving smell. Together with touch, the following narrative has brought an insightful view on empowerment through touching and smelling

artifacts from a different country found in the participant's English teacher's home:

> *I remember, though, using several literature books that came straight from England, where her son used to live. I was amazed by the realization I was touching and smelling something that had actually come from another country – in fact, her house smelled foreign, given the many different English tea essences in her kitchen and the slight smell of mold that came from her bookshelf. Every day I anticipated the moment to get my bicycle, go to her house and get to touch those amazing books.*

Another narrative about taste also portrays some relevant information on personal empowerment through agency and participation. The participant refers to a Canadian brunch she was offered when living in Canada, and after describing the food, drinks and the whole scenario, she finishes acknowledging the role of this experience in her seeing herself as someone who actually belonged to that place:

> *I didn't eat almost anything for the rest of the day but I felt myself very Canadian and I just loved the experience.*

To conclude this section, a strong narrative relating English learning and empowerment embraces all senses to state one thing: learning a foreign language – especially English, considering its status as lingua franca – empowers people and allows them to express themselves and stand for social justice:

> *In conclusion, some people aim to learn the necessary skills to communicate through English so to get better jobs, travel around the world, understand their favorite English-speaking artists and celebrities, others to overcome social issues, to take a stand and leave a mark on the world. It does not matter the reason why one wants to learn the language,* ***what matters is that language gives people power to defend and express themselves. Thus, if we want a more just society, we must let people speak their souls out, be freer, and at the same time, understand and celebrate our differences****. Otherwise, there will still be kids at school in pain and sorrow, only because they feel, or are told, they are different.*

This section, as we intended, has displayed narratives in which it is possible to notice a relationship between the participants' previous experiences in learning English to a sense of empowerment in several ways. The next section of the analysis will show how some narratives have encompassed learning experiences, senses and the choice for an English teaching career.

4. Becoming teachers

The second part of the qualitative analysis of the narratives showcases participants' experiences involving the five senses and their following desire to become a teacher of English. The narratives involving taste, touch and smell did not directly point to the fact that the participants' choice to become teachers has originated from those experiences. For this reason, we have decided to analyze only the narratives involving mainly hearing and sight.

First of all, let us consider narratives related to hearing. Two participants have mentioned in their stories that they have become teachers because they had heard someone's advice to do so. In one of them it is possible to identify that learning the language represented an opportunity for broadening the horizons and achieving professional success:

> *When I was a kid, I decided to be an English teacher. My mother was a baby-sitter and she traveled all over the world, despite her not understanding that language very well, she would always [say]: "English is very important and if you want to have a good job, you must know it." I had become aware of the importance of [the] English language, and due to that, I started studying English at [a well-known] Institute in another city.*

We can see through the excerpt above that the mother's advice was the participant's main source of motivation to become an English teacher. The next narrative shows how an inspiring testimonial from a teacher has also influenced another participant's career choice:

> *I had a class with the professor Leni Nobre de Oliveira. Today I cannot mention the words she told us that day, but I can still hear her voice talking about her story, feel her passion about being a teacher. That passion she had came instantaneously into the [bottom] of my heart. I really knew that I was in the right place, doing exactly the course I should do.*

Inspiration has also come from sight. We have observed in some narratives about self-empowerment and sight that the fascination with English speaking cultures led participants to eventually continue their studies and become English teachers. One of the participants, for instance, reveals how seeing himself as a proficient user of the language has enabled him to teach his classmates. When he saw the role that English played in his life, the choice for a language teaching career was made naturally:

> *My choice to become a teacher was not based only on the fact that I would help people communicate through the language. But also because I could, somehow, become a role model for those who faced the same challenges I did, by showing them that even though they felt hopeless, useless, uninteresting or out casted, they also had their value, their qualities and talents, and that the world needs their light to become a place of acceptance and love.*

Another reference to sight has been offered in the following excerpt, in which the participant has felt empowered by learning English, but became even more confident about her future professional path after attending an undergraduate program of English studies:

> *I have [been] studying English for five years and since then it has changed my life completely. I am from a small village in a rural zone in [the] North of Minas Gerais, but since the age of 17 I left home and tried to look for a better future, without knowing what a better future was. I always wanted to speak English but I never imagined being a teacher. […] The changes I mentioned before are not in [relation] to money or "status", but mostly personal. My [undergraduate course] permitted me to* ***see the other people and the world differently****. It opened my mind and* ***I could see many points of view and my point of view****, [which] was the most important.*

The excerpt above clearly shows how learning English has enabled the participant to see herself and the world in a distinct way. Another narrative which has provided a relevant insight on the relation between sight and the choice to become an English teacher comes from a black participant. After stating that she was always intrigued for seeing herself as someone very different from the other students in the language institute she attended, the participant decided to become a teacher to show herself and others that knowledge is a powerful tool regarding self-acceptance, self-confidence and self-respect:

> *I always felt like I had to straight down my hair to have a better status as a student. Maybe it doesn't make sense for you, but my self-esteem is directly related to my studies and empowerment as a black woman. Since I have to prove every day for all my students, my colleagues, my co-workers and bosses that I could learn, speak and teach English and each day I have the [certainty] that I have chosen the right way, I mean, I have chosen the education area to show my students that they can reach any position they want to. I want to present them their rights and allow them to have a critical and politicized identity not only for the black ones, but also for that ones who have to run and fight for their own rights to have a better education.*

The narratives discussed in these two sections provide but a glimpse into the possibilities of relating language learning experiences to senses and to

students' envisioned identities as future English teachers. In sum, we have observed how experiences involving senses have aroused not only opportunities for personal growth, but also a desire to provide other individuals with the same possibilities for empowerment, agency and sense of belonging to this new world, full of secrets and experiences yet to be lived.

5. Concluding Remarks

As we discussed in the introduction to this chapter, narratives have a pervasive role in human experience. We agree that the same can be stated in relation to experiences in language learning and teaching.

Although it may be said that "narratives and stories provide only a fragmented view" (KALAJA, MENEZES, BARCELOS, 2008, p. 232) of human experiences, the analysis of the narratives generated in this study offer remarkable insights on how the contact with the English language has worked as a powerful tool towards the participants' personal empowerment. It was possible to notice that their memories of senses within the language learning environment, to a certain extent, have led to unintended accounts relating their English learning process to social agency, participation and sense of belonging.

Apart from personal empowerment, we could also perceive – direct or indirectly – the connection between some narratives and the eventual desire of the participants to become English teachers. Through experiences which range from escaping from prejudice to seeing themselves in a different way, as well as accounts involving their personal achievement, family traditions and desire to make a difference in the world, it was possible to understand the role of English in the participants' lives, as well as the door it opened for some of them regarding their professional and academic lives.

Given that nowadays we live in a globalized world in which people have unlimited access to all sorts of information, one can understand that it is necessary to provide our students and student-teachers with as many opportunities as possible to improve their English knowledge through activities which foster their personal empowerment, reinforce their identity and cater for their sense of belonging. Through the activation of their senses, we as teachers and teacher educators can create spaces for students and student teachers to feel part of a new reality and use the power of knowledge and experiences to grant their place in the world.

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Felipe Coura brings in this chapter valuable contributions regarding critical perspectives for the teaching of foreign languages. More specifically, the chapter encompasses such perspectives within the deaf, blind and deafblind community. Through the use of multimodal texts, the author proposes activities which focus on the four language learning skills and at the same time foster students' critical thinking, autonomy and citizenship. It is an enriching experience which will surely feed the reader with new ideas for language teaching practices in situated contexts, as well as arouse their interest in contemporary changes in education as a whole.

Érika Amâncio Caetano and Andréa Mattos

Critical literacy in English classes: discussions about deaf, blind and deaf-blind people

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Introduction[8]

My contact with the deaf community and Brazilian Sign Language (Libras) began when I was thirteen, full of curiosity and desire to interact with it and learn more. At that time, I was also studying English at a language school. Years later I finished my undergraduate degree in Letras – Portuguese/English and soon started to teach English at public and private schools and language institutes. I have also done a specialization course called "Libras in the context of inclusive education".

I started working as a Libras translator/interpreter at a school and as an English teacher at another. Since then my interest in the relationship between the teaching of English and deaf students, their culture and language has significantly increased.

Some years later I became a student in an English Teaching Diploma Course (CEI) at the Federal University of Minas Gerais (UFMG) where professor Andréa Mattos introduced a teaching proposal known as critical literacy (CL). The activities the professor showed and the possibilities the proposal carried with it matched what I was seeking at that time. When I started

[8] Special thanks to Prof. Andréa Mattos (UFMG) and Prof. Fábio Sandes (UFT) for their support, help and friendship.

the master's at the Graduate Program in Linguistic Studies (PosLin) at UFMG, I also started working as an English teacher at a school for the deaf. However, in this particular text I will not focus on this school (COURA, 2016), but on some ideas that can contribute to spread deaf culture throughout other environments, such as English classes for hearing students or inclusive classes[9].

In this chapter, I will present and discuss CL theory and then share some of the activities I have developed in CEI based on these studies. The activities are about deaf language, culture and other related themes, but they are not for the deaf students specifically They aim to share experiences with those who do not know or have limited contact with the deaf community, deafblind and blind people.

According to McLaughlin and DeVoogd (2004), the principles of critical literacy include a number of essential understandings and beliefs about the power relationship that exists between the reader and the author. The authors also say that CL focuses on issues of power and promotes reflection, transformation and action.

In this perspective, I highlight, in the unit ahead, some questions about deaf, deafblind and blind people's lifestyle, as well as their way to communicate. In most cases, this information is omitted in classrooms and these debates are far less motivated. All selected texts, videos and activities entailed either the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) or grammar aspects, putting into perspective alternative ways to communicate among deaf, blind and deafblind people. At the end of the unit, an integration between discussions in the chapter and technology has been proposed, so that students could create an authentic text. For instance, the use of the website Glogster.com gives students an alternative which integrates literacy, technology and learning. Regarding these tools, Lankshear, Snyder and Green (2000) say:

> *We need pedagogies that complement and supplement such knowledge by contextualizing it in ways that pay due attention to matters of culture, history and power and recognize that is counterproductive to start with issues of 'skill' or 'technique', outside an authentic context of situated social practice (p. 44-45).*

[9] The terms *inclusive school* or *inclusive class* refer in this context to those schools/classes that have deaf and hearing students in the same place with the presence of a Libras interpreter (MINAS GERAIS, 2008).

Given these points, the unit tries, from the very first *warm up* to the last activity, to raise meaningful strategies to teach students in situated social practices. Each section has been named in a different way, not to explicitly highlight when the study of a particular skill began or when it ended, but to better organize the unit.

1. Critical Literacy and English activities within the classroom

Under the influence of Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy, but with different points underpinning its concept, critical literacy seeks to provide students and teachers with literacy in order to problematize social issues (DUBOC; FERRAZ, 2011) and to be able to use reading and writing in educational contexts, taking into account the relations of power and domination (STREET, 2003).

In the same fashion, Duboc and Ferraz (2011) state that, the proposal of critical literacy is not viewed as a "pre-established method, but as a stance on a text with a view to understanding the privileges and erasures in social practices" (p. 22).

In essence, Paulo Freire has influenced theories and research on new literacies, multiliteracies and critical literacy, especially from his study of dialectics, critical awareness and the political nature of language (LUKE, 2004; MONTE MÓR, 2013).

2. Critical Literacy and the Teaching of Foreign Languages

Monte Mór (2008) uses the term *meaning making*, initially proposed by Gee (1997). This term helps us to reflect on the concept of "critical" related to what CL proposes:

> *meaning making (Gee, 1997), a term that revisits the concept of reading and interpretation, reinforcing critique – according to which "meaning is not in the head, but in social practices; and that in acquiring social practices one gets 'deep' meanings 'free'" (Gee 1997, p. 274) – as a requisite of the reader to make meaning (or interpret) of the texts and contexts (in their various modalities of communication) with which they interact. (MONTE MÓR, 2008, p. 6).*

Mattos (2011) argues that "critical literacy foregrounds the power relations expressed through language" (p. 214). Duboc (2012) also highlights definitions by other authors who understand critical literacy as an attitude, and argues that critical literacy contributes to an active citizenship. These

considerations lead us to realize that there is a concern with the critical development of the individual through language, as well as their engagement and social contributions. That is, through language, it is possible to take a critical attitude for the individual to build an active citizenship in his/her community.

By and large, CL emerges in the perspective of contributing to language teaching and learning, so it is not strictly imposed without any consideration of social use or to meet standards already agreed by society. According to Mattos and Valério (2010, p. 139), "in critical literacy, students learn language (mother tongue and/or foreign languages) to transform themselves and the society if they think it's appropriate".

It is clear, therefore, that CL aims to form the citizen-student among a myriad of other things. Anyone can be critically literate at different times of life, whether at school or other informal spaces. With that said, we will see, then, some possibilities of critical literacy applications in some educational contexts.

2.1 Possible applications of Critical Literacy

McLaughlin and DeVoogd (2004) argue that "in critical literacy, rather than accepting an essentialist view, we would engage in problematizing – seeking to understand the problem and its complexity" (p. 15). Thus, one can cite a simple and accessible resource to be used in the classroom, but that is often conducted in quite a little reflexive way: movies. A suggestion is mentioned by Monte Mór (2008) and Ferraz (2008) as a way of meaning making that can contribute to a critical literacy project (MCLAUGHLIN; DEVOOGD, 2004; MATTOS; VALÉRIO, 2010). Ferraz (2008) mentions the teachers' habit of focusing only on linguistic aspects when they are using a rich tool in the classroom: the cinema. While pointing out that such aspects are also important, the author emphasizes that they should not be the only ones, since there are many other possibilities to be explored. Giroux (2002) draws attention to the "powerful role that films now play within a visual culture employing new forms of pedagogy, signaling new forms of literacy" (p. 5). Working with movies is just one example of how critical literacy may be present in various practices already known by most language teachers.

In addition, Mattos (2011) describes and discusses a variety of English language activities used by public school teachers involving critical literacy. In

one of these activities, a teacher asks her students to write a formal letter of complaint to a cell phone company that delays or fails to deliver the purchased product to the costomer. According to the author, the activity allowed the students to exercise their citizenship:

> *The activities proposed by Dora [the teacher] are an example of how these practices can be developed at school in a safe environment, enabling students to acquire critical skills that will later be put to use in adult life outside of school (MATTOS, 2011, p. 215).*

According to Mattos (2011), the teacher has not only demonstrated that this possibility exists, but has also allowed the students to make real use of this resource through language. Teaching students to make a complain, for example, is something that moves away from traditional practices of language teaching, but it may contribute to the student's citizenship education.

Duboc and Ferraz (2011) show an activity performed with images from a camera. Students were asked to do a reading of photos and interpret them in a new way, by setting apart an "automatized eye" (p. 24). Interactions and discussions were conducted in English.

Coura (2016) also highlights some possibilities to teach English to deaf students conducting classes through Brazilian Sign Language and videos, images and texts in English containing themes such as social inclusion and racism.

Menezes de Souza (2011) proposes a number of questions that can be used in the CL approach:

> *What is the **context** in which the text was produced?; For what kind of reader was the text written?; The context of the **production** of the text is the same context that YOU are reading the text?; Are you the reader that the writer of the text had in mind ?; How do the differences in the contexts of **production** and **reading** of the texts affect your understanding?; Is there a meaning of the text that is "real", "right" and "original"?; How do you feel about these differences?; Should we eliminate them?; What do we do with them? (p. 299).*

The questions above refer to an attitude of a critical reader towards the text, according to the proposal of CL. Menezes de Souza (2011) presents such questions, as they can be considered by teachers when preparing their activities, and also by students in a way hey can already perform such inquiries not only on a text presented in the classroom, but in other situational contexts

as well. Shor (1999) states that “when we are critically literate, we examine our ongoing development, to reveal the subjective positions from which we make sense of the world and act in it” (p. 1).

In short, this attitude certainly helps us reshape ourselves in a way that we become more aware of our roles in society, by not only accepting everything in a top-down manner, but by also suspecting and questioning hegemonic forces so we can share our thoughts, ideas, suggestions and beliefs in a more embodied and consistent way, that is, how urgent it is to enforce rights and duties within a society.

2.2 Some considerations on critical literacy and its implications

Aiming to bring a better understanding of the study on the promotion and use of CL, the chart below constitutes an attempt to summarize some characteristics of this approach, compiled according to several authors (CERVETTI; PARDALES; DAMICO, 2001; DUBOC; FERRAZ, 2011; GIROUX, 2002; JORDÃO, 2013; JORGE, 2012; JUCÁ; FUKUMOTO; ROCHA, 2011; KUBOTA; LIN, 2009; MATTOS, 2011; MATTOS; VALÉRIO, 2010; MCLAUGHLIN; DEVOOGD, 2004; MENEZES DE SOUZA, 2011). The questions and answers below aim to help the reader to clearly understand the theoretical and practical aspects already discussed in relation to CL.

Chart 1 - Key questions for understanding Critical Literacy

Critical Literacy	
For what?	To contribute to an education that promotes active citizenship; to promote transformation, reflection and action; to lead readers to question the representations present in the texts.
To whom and when?	For everyone, regardless of socioeconomic level, race/ethnicity. For any time, level of education or age.
Where and how?	Schools and other spaces. Through activities that involve reading written and multimodal texts, written production, oral comprehension and production, reflections, discussions and actions.

Source: COURA, 2016, p. 147

Equally important, Santos and Ifa (2013) state that “currently, there are several definitions for the critical literacy approach and to the critically thinking citizens” (p. 7). Therefore, the chart above seeks to present some of these

definitions, focusing on those that meet the analysis of records made during this study.

According to chart 1, CL can be promoted at any level of education and age, but in a gradual manner (JORDÃO, 2013), according to the context(s) of the people involved. Thus, even if students find themselves in initial levels of English learning, this does not preclude that there exist specific times that support the development of CL in the classroom (COURA, 2016).

The next part of this text is the unit presented at the end of my diploma course at CEI, at UFMG in 2014. I have prepared the activities having in mind a class with English pre-intermediate students in a regular school. This was an attempt to contribute with teachers who intend to integrate CL and English teaching.

3. Organization of the study

The unit ahead was prepared, based on orientations from CEI in 2013/2014. Some multimodal resources aiming to contribute with the promotion of critical thinking were considered, including discussions on language and its use in different contexts. According to Jorge (2012),

> *in addition to textbooks, other cultural artifacts that affect EFL learning, such as movies, music videos and lyrics, TV shows, books, newspapers and so forth, need to be explored from a critical perspective. This means that the use of theses artifacts should cause reflection about what and who is represented (or not), how they are represented, by whom, with which purpose, who is empowered (or not), and so forth. (p. 86).*

From this perspective, several texts were explored in this unit in an attempt to encourage critical discussions and problematizations through language. These activities are just suggestions, which do not represent a perfect sample of English classroom exercises, but an idea or even some hints to help some English teachers.

A foreign language teacher needs to be aware of the theories underlying the concepts of literacy, as well as other studies and approaches to language teaching. However, it is feasible that the teacher should not only focus on language aspects, but also on the whole educational complexities of a classroom. According to the Brazilian Guidelines for High School Teaching,

> *When we talk about the educational aspect of foreign languagesteaching, we refer, for example, to understanding the concept of citizenship, emphasizing it. This is indeed a social value to be developed in the various school subjects and not only in the study of foreign languages (BRASIL, 2006, p. 91).*

Correspondingly, there is this possibility, through language classes, of contributing to this fully-integrated awareness and practice of a more participatory citizenship from the students.

The unit entitled *Visual and Tactile Communication* was organized in some sections and subsections. The original material has two units and the corresponding teacher's guides and assessment activities. For this chapter, only an adaptation of this material will be presented as follows:

1. Integrating our ideas (Warm up)

2. Listening and Beyond

- 2.1 Behind the scenes (Pre-listening)
- 2.2 Prepare your chair (Listening)
  - 2.2.1 Who said what? (Listening activity)
  - 2.2.2 About what you have seen (Listening activity)
- 2.3 After a short movie session (Post-listening)

3. Ready to read

- 3.1 But first (Pre-reading)
- 3.2 Beyond the text (Reading)
- 3.3 Vocabulary in use (Post-reading)

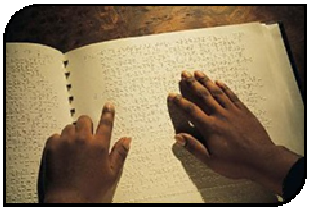
4. Focus on language

- 4.1 Practicing I and II (Grammar aspects)

5. Face to face (Speaking)

6. Our text (Writing)

This unit intends to integrate language skills and social aspects about diversity in the contemporary society, by focusing on ways of communication of deaf, blind and deafblind people. The activities were developed considering the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and the grammar aspect was related to the modal verbs *can* and *may.* Students watch a movie trailer, read a text on deafblind communication, listen to a song, interview their classmates and also make a poster on paper or using the Internet. It is an opportunity to learn English and to discuss this very relevant theme.

INTEGRATING OUR IDEAS

What do you think about these strategies of communication? Are they effective?

Would you like to learn about this?

Do you know someone who is deaf or blind?

Have you ever had contact or tried to communicate with these people?

It would be easier if you use "Language Helper" below to answer the questions.

Language Helper

In English we can express our thoughts in different ways:

I think that….
In my opinion…
I believe that…
From my point of view…

Agreement expressions:

I (totally) agree with you…
That's true / That's for sure…
Absolutely…
No doubt about that…

Disagreement expressions:

I don't think so…
I'm afraid I disagree…
Not necessarily…
No, I'm not sure about that…

Did you know that each country has a different sign language?

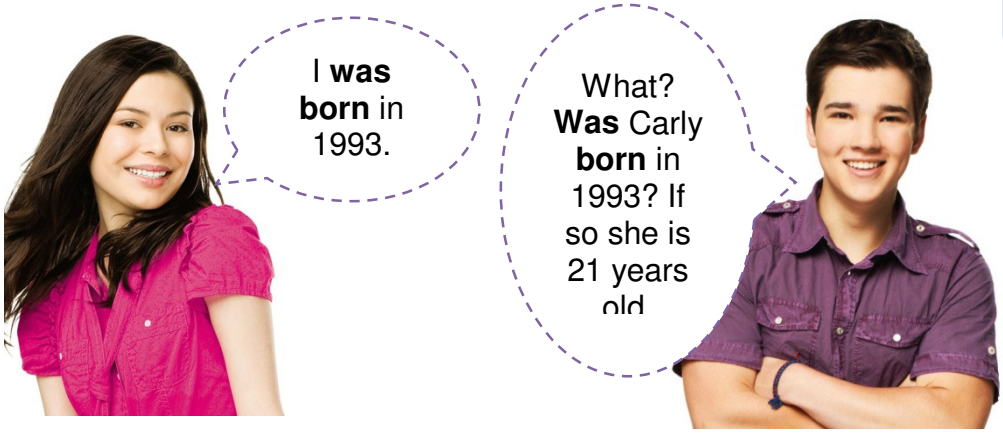
Did you know that there are regional differences in sign language in the same country? Just as it happens with oral languages.

Did you know Brazilian Sign Language (Libras) is an official language in Brazil?

Did you know Braille is a universal code for tactile reading and writing?

LISTEN MORE AND BEYOND

Behind the scenes – Do you remember that?



Pictures from: pt-br.icarly.wiki.com. Access on January 25th, 2014.
Characters above are from iCarly.iCarly is an American teen sitcom that ran on Nickelodeon from September 8, 2007 until November 23, 2012

Some important words

Present	**Past**
Teach	Taught
Give	Gave
Can	Could

Share your ideas

. Tell your classmate hen you were born.
. Are you a hearing r deaf person?
. If you meet a deaf erson, would you try tc ommunicate using sigı nguage?

Prepare your chair

You are going to watch a movie trailer from "Sweet Nothing in my Ear". It is a family drama about a deaf and hearing couple who struggle to decide whether or not to give their deaf son a cochlear implant. Watch the video once to have a general idea about it. Then, watch it again and try to answer the questions below.

A **cochlear implant** (CI) is a surgically implanted electronic device that provides a sense of sound to a person who is profoundly deaf or severely hard of hearing.

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dsCvXS2ZzZs – Access on January 25th, 2014.

Who said what?

Match the sentences below with their appropriate character. Put the correct numbers under the pictures.

1. "What if our boy could hear again?"
2. "Deafness is not a disability."
3. "I want my son back."
4. "He is able to do everything, except hear."
5. "Mommy gave me magic hands."
5. "I only wanted what was best for Adam."
6. "He needs both of us."
7. "Some things."

Laura Miller (Mother)	Adam Miller (Son)	Dan Miller (Father)
		

About what you have seen

1. According to the trailer, why does the couple have a conflict?
2. What is the profession of Adam's mom?
3. Would Adam like to hear sounds again?

After a short movie session

In pairs

Now discuss with your classmate about this other question:

- If you had a deaf child, would you try a cochlear implant?

READY TO READ

In pairs

Discuss with your classmate:

- How can a deafblind person communicate?

But first...

Some words below are related to the text *Communicating with deafblind people*. Which of the following words do you expect to see in the text?

English | Difficulty | Effort | Nutrition

Accessible | Pollution | Drawn | Sight

Communicating with deafblind people

Print Email

Tweet 1 Like 16

At Sense we understand that people's lives are hugely affected by the quality of the contact they have with other people.

Good communication is crucial to our relationships and membership of social groups for them to be satisfying and meaningful.

A deafblind person's quality of life depends on communication that is clear, concise and accessible. They may face great difficulty in knowing for certain what is happening around them or in communicating with those they meet.

Deafblind people use many different methods of communication. The method, or methods used will depend on the amount of residual sight and hearing and any additional disabilities the individual has. It will also depend on whether the individual has learned formal language before becoming deafblind.

It is **important to remember** that:

- Communication often requires a great deal of concentration and effort for a deafblind person, and can be tiring for them
- The environment, such as lighting and background noise, should be considered to assist those with sight and hearing impairments
- A deafblind person's communication methods and needs vary enormously - and these may change during their life.

Source: http://www.sense.org.uk/content/communicating-deafblind-people. Accessed on January 23th, 2014.

Beyond the text

1. Read the text and write T (true) or F (false) for the following statements:

A. ( ) Deafblind people may face great difficulty to have quality of life and social interaction.
B. ( ) Deafblind people use one method of communication and usually never change it.
C. ( ) Deafblind people have difficulty in communicating with those they meet.
D. ( ) Deafblind people have learned more informal language than formal.

2. Write up to 10 keywords that represent main ideas of the text.

3. As for the lifestyle of deafblind people, it is correct to affirm that:

a) communication strategies are developed in adulthood.
b) communication methods and needs vary enormously.
c) communication with voice may influence their quality of life.
d) communication among them presents some mistakes.

4. Write some excerpts from the text to confirm the statements below.

a) Methods to communicate depend on many factors and the contexts of each deafblind person.

_____

b) For a deafblind person, communication methods are not static, they can change over the years.

_____

c) Communication for deafblind people is not an easy task. They need a lot of effort and may feel tired many times.

_____

Vocabulary in use

Read the sentences and match the words in bold with their synonyms.

- A deafblind person's communication methods and needs **vary (1)** enormously.
- The environment, **such as (2)** lighting and background noise, should be considered **to assist (3)** those with sight and hearing impairments.
- Good communication is **crucial (4)** to our relationships and membership of social groups for them to be satisfying and meaningful.

( ) change ( ) help ( ) for example ( ) essential

FOCUS ON LANGUAGE

1. Look at these sentences from the text *Communicating with deafblind people:*

"They **may** face great difficulty in knowing for certain what is happening…"

"…and these **may** change during their life..."

"…and **can** be tiring for them".

The words in bold type express the idea of
A) obligation. B) necessity. C) possibility. D) advice.

The words ***can*** and ***may*** are known as **MODAL VERBS**. They can express different ideas depending on the context. Look at the "Modal Verbs Table":

MODAL VERBS TABLE	
	EXPRESSES IDEA OF
Can	ability, possibility, permission, informal requests
May	possibility, ask or give permission

Practicing I

1. Answer the sentences according to the examples:

Can you swim?
No, I can't./Yes, I can.
(Or other possible answers).

Can + not =
can't or **cannot**

Can he hear well?
_____
_____

Can she read Braille?
_____

What is the function of the word ***can*** in the two sentences above? _____

2. Complete the sentences with ***may*** or ***can.***

a) ..... you please call an interpreter?
b) I ..... easily jump that hole even being blind.
c) I ..... travel by car but I ..... not be allowed to.
d) My dad says I ..... walk around the city.
e) My brother ..... kick a football across the whole field. Amazing!

Was it easy to complete the sentences? Why? Why not? _____
_____

Practicing II

Now you are going to listen to the song **"Africa Must Wake Up"**. For this activity look back at the "Modal Verbs Table" if necessary. Use can or may.

Africa Must Wake Up - (Nas and Damian Marley) (feat. K'naan)
Album: Distant Relatives
(Available from: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DZ-MS23J338. Access on January 27th, 2014)

Morning to you man
Morning to you love
Hey, I say I say

[Chorus 2x]
Africa must wake up
The sleeping sons of Jacob
For what tomorrow _____ bring
_____ a better day come
Yesterday we were Kings
_____ you tell me young ones
Who are we today

[Nas: Verse 1]
The black oasis
Ancient Africa the sacred
Awaken the sleeping giant
Science, Art is your creation
I dreamt that we could visit Old Kemet
Your history is too complex and ridig
For some western critics
They want the whole subject diminished
But Africa's the origin of all the world's religions
We praised bridges that carried us over
The battle front of Sudanic soldiers
The task put before us

Who are we today?
The slums, deceases, AIDS
We need all that to fade
We _____ be afraid
So who are we today?
We are the morning after
The make shift youth
The slave ship captured
Our Diaspora, is the final chapter
The ancetral lineage built pyramids

Americas first immigrant
The Kings sons and daughters from Nile waters
The first architect, the first philosophers, astronomers
The first prophets and doctors was

Now _____ we all pray
Each in his own way
Teaching and Learning
And we _____ work it out
We'll have a warm bed
We'll have some warm bread
And shelter from the storm dre
And we can work it out
Mother Nature feeds all
In famine and drought
Tell those selfish in ways
Not to share us out
What's a tree without root
Lion without tooth
A lie without truth
you hear me out

[Chorus]

Africa must wake up
The sleeping sons of Jacob
For what tomorrow may brin
_____ a better day come
Yesterday we were Kings
_____ you tell me young ones
Who are we today
Ye lord
Africa must wake up
The sleeping sons of Jacob
For what tomorrow may bring
_____ some more love come
Yesterday we were Kings
I'll tell you young blood
This world is yours today

Distant Relatives is a collaborative studio album by American rapper **Nas** and Jamaican reggae artist **Damian Marley**, released May 18, 2010, on Universal Republic and Def Jam Recordings.

1. What have you understood about the song “Africa must wake up?”

_____

_____

2. In your opinion what is the meaning of the verse “Who are we today”?

_____

_____

3. Do the words **may** and **can** in the text have a different function from that you have studied before? What other ideas are expressed by these words?

_____

_____

FACE TO FACE

In pairs

Interview your classmate about her/his thoughts involving communication strategies of deaf, blind and deafblind people and about the song “Africa must wake up”. If possible use a recorder during your interview.

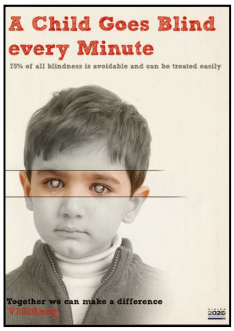
1. In your opinion, why must Africa really wake up?
2. Do you think there is still a real prejudice against African people today?

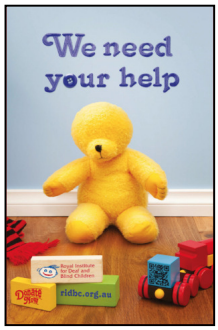
Keep talking

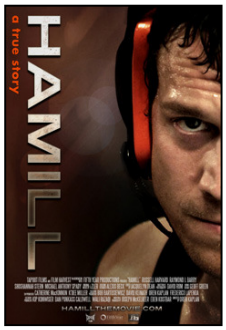
1. In your opinion, deaf people can communicate better using signs or lip reading?
2. Do you think deafblind people can express their thoughts clearly?
3. Do you know someone who is deaf, blind or deafblind? Have you communicated with them?

OUR TEXT

1. Look at these pictures:







They are:

a) cartoons b) comics c) infographics d) posters

2. Why have you chosen this alternative?

_____

_____

A **poster** is any piece of printed paper designed to be attached to a wall or vertical surface. Typically posters include both textual and graphic elements, although a poster may be either wholly graphical or wholly text. Posters are designed to be both eye-catching and informative. Posters may be used for many purposes. They are a frequent tool of advertisers (particularly of events, musicians and films), propagandists, protestors and other groups trying to communicate a message. Posters are also used for reproductions of artwork, particularly famous works, and are generally low-cost compared to original artwork.
(Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poster. Access in January 26th, 2014)

In groups

Suggestion I

Now you are going to write a poster aiming to make people at your school aware of social inclusion of deaf and blind people. You can use pictures from magazines, internet or you can even draw if you want to. Then write impacting sentences involving what you have discussed before. Remember that, after you have finished, the poster of your group will be published at notice-boards around the school.

Suggestion II

If it is more comfortable for your group (with the same instructions above), you can make a poster on www.glogster.com and share it with your classmates.

Look at some important tips that will help you to prepare a good poster. It is important to notice them and mark in the "*Check it out!*" what you have done.

An effective poster is ...	
Focused	Focused on a single message.
Graphic	Lets graphs and images tell the story; uses text sparingly.
Ordered	Keeps the sequence well-ordered and obvious.

Check it out!

Check if your poster has the following features.

☐ It is focused.

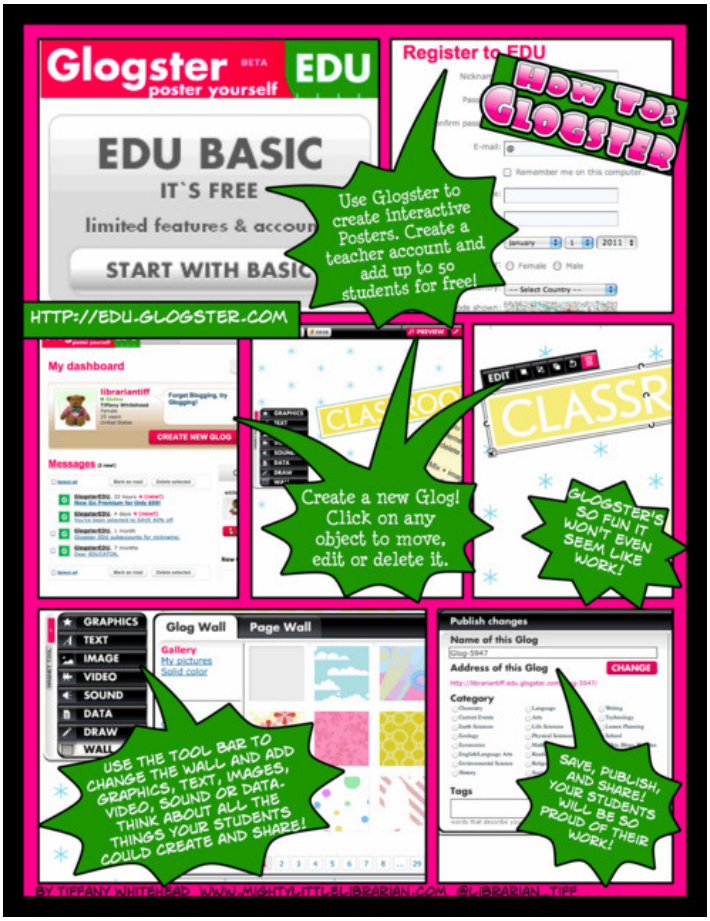
☐ It is well-ordered.

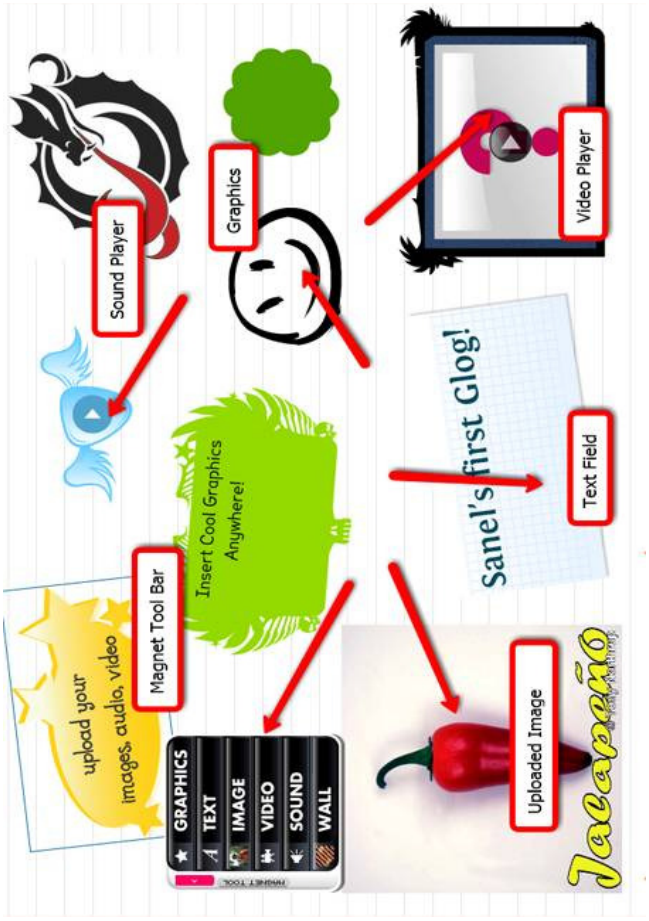
☐ The words are spelled correctly.

☐ It has punctuation.

☐ The sentences are connected to the images.

If your group has decided to prepare a virtual poster, it is easy. You can access the website Glogster.com, sign up and follow some simple steps. See the following pictures which show how a Glogster poster looks like and what tools it has.





4. Final thoughts

Not only does this text aim to discuss CL and show some activities, but it also aims to contribute to English teachers' praxis in their classes. Some different resources have been suggested in order to integrate oral, reading and writing skills. However, linguistic aspects were not the only concern, but critical thinking as well.

For the most part, CL is an option, a door that opens in language classes whose aim goes beyond just learning how to read, write and speak the language. In this perspective, students are better able to reflect on their

learning process, and, from their knowledge, seek how to critically act in their midst and surroundings.

It is important to emphasize that CL is not a methodology or technique, but a possible way to conduct fine-grained classes, in this case, English classes which integrate both critical thinking and linguistic issues.

The first part (*Integrating our ideas*) shows a possibility to discuss the theme of the unit (in English or even in the students' mother tongue) through pictures and questions. Through language, it is possible to introduce to students what will be discussed and not just to talk about it, but to forge occasions in which they realize how to say what they would like to say.

The pre-listening, listening and post-listening parts focus on some issues from ~~a~~ little-known movie, but an appropriate one. Issues such as 'cochlear implant use' and 'how can deaf people communicate' create a possibility to learn English through relevant discussions in actual society.

The pre-reading, reading and post-reading sections discuss themes related to deafblind people and offer not only one way to make questions, but different possibilities to elaborate on them.

The *Focus on Language* section represents the so-called *grammar point.* It is not a revolutionary strategy to introduce a grammar topic in textbooks, but all activities in this section try to link with the previous texts. The song "*Africa must wake up"* is another alternative to discuss grammar. I have chosen this song because of its possibilities to discuss the verbs *can* and *may.* So, it was selected based on grammar interests, polemic, but it is an evidence that grammar and CL theories can relate harmoniously.

The last part (writing) seeks not only to produce a text, but to publish it as well. The Internet is a great tool to contribute to English teachers' work. The website *Glogster.com* can offer to students a possibility to share their posters using Facebook, Twitter or other social networks. They can also print the posters or send by e-mail.

Lastly, it is important to reinforce that this unit is not a fixed model to conduct a class which integrates CL and language structures, but a possible, fruitful way to do that. Some parts need to be reviewed and updated, however it is important to share ideas like these among teachers. We will never know

what a perfect textbook is like, but we can contribute to improve those which exist, by sensitively adapting them to our local context.

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The chapter explores concepts from Cognitive Linguistics to provide a theoretical account of the meanings of the particles in English multi-word verbs. By drawing on the notions of Trajector (TR) and Landmark (LM), Image Schemas, and Conceptual Metaphors, the authors review the relevant literature and present us with the schemas that those particles might express. Such understanding may help teachers and learners determine the contribution of the particle to the meaning of multi-word verbs. The chapter also argues for the pedagogical application of Cognitive Linguistics in the English as a second language classroom as a potential and effective resource when approaching multi-word verbs.

Adriana Tenuta and Marisa Mendonça Carneiro

Multi-word verbs: A Cognitive Perspective

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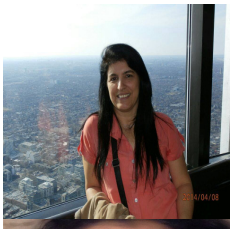

Raquel Rossini Martins Cardoso

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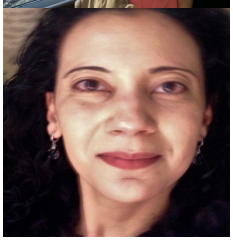


"In three words I can sum up everything I've learned about life: it goes on."

Robert Frost

Introduction[10]

The multi-word verbs *sum up* and *go on* in the quote above are defined by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 432) as "aspectual phrasal verbs". The particle *up* in *sum up* and the particle *on* in *go on* add a semantic contribution to the multi-word verbs of "completive" and "continuative" meaning, respectively, making the multi-word verbs not totally compositional, since the aspectual meaning added by the particles is not transparent. The

[10] This chapter is part of our Master's research, under the supervision of Prof. Ana Larissa Adorno Marciotto Oliveira at FALE - UFMG.

verbs (*sum*; *go*), on the other hand, maintain their original meaning, which causes these multi-word verbs to be neither completely idiomatic nor absolutely transparent, but to be what Von (2007) calls “semi-transparent”.

In order to account for the degree of compositionality in multi-word verbs, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 432-433) proposed two other semantic categories besides “aspectual phrasal verbs”, i.e., “literal phrasal verbs” and “idiomatic phrasal verbs”. “Literal phrasal verbs” are considered to be “fully compositional” as both the verbs and the particles preserve their original meanings. In opposition, “idiomatic phrasal verbs” are regarded as non-compositional due to the fact that the meaning of the multi-word verb as a whole may be completely different from the meaning of its parts – verb and particle – when used separately in utterances. According to this traditional view, if the multi-word verb is regarded as “fully compositional” its meaning may be easily figured out. On the other hand, if it is considered “idiomatic”, figuring out its meaning can be very difficult or even impossible for non-native speakers of English.

Given the complexity involving the semantics – as well as the syntax – of multi-word verbs, traditional accounts regard these linguistic structures as an arbitrary combination of a verb and particles and do not consider the conceptual system in the analysis of linguistic meaning (KOVÁCS[JB1], 2007). In turn, Cognitive Linguistics assumes that language interacts with conceptual content and that meaning is a cognitive construction (FERRARI, 2011). Concerning compositionality, Mahpeykar ; Tyler (2014, p. 7) argue that in Cognitive Semantics language is only “partially compositional”, as it is also necessary to include “knowledge of the world, the meaning provided by the context, and cognitive mechanisms, such as metaphor, metonymy, and mental spaces” to explain the complexity associated to linguistic structures.

Regarding multi-word verbs, Cognitive Linguistics has offered a theoretical construct which has guided numerous studies that account for the semantics of particles and the establishment of polysemy networks to describe how their meanings extend from the central or more prototypical sense.

A detailed cognitive analysis of the particles *out* and *up* was provided by Susan J. Lindner (1981). Lindner’s work involved the analysis of 600 verb

particle constructions (VPCs) with *out* and 1.200 with *up*. Contrasting her analysis with other authors from formal semantics (BOLINGER, 1971; FRASER, 1976; LIPKA, 1972; etc), she claimed that the particles contribute to the meaning of VPCs. Her research did not account for the semantics of the verbs, though. Also drawing on Cognitive Linguistics' theory, Rudzka-Ostyn's (2003) study of multi-word verbs is an attempt to demonstrate the metaphorical motivation for the extended meaning of the particles. With the purpose of helping learners of English as a foreign language in the acquisition of multi-word verbs, the author based her analysis on Lakoff's (1987) conceptual metaphor theory. Additionally, she provided "a diagrammatic representation of each particle's spatial meaning" (MAHPEYKAR ; TYLER, 2014, p. 4). In the same year, a thorough study on the semantics of particles was carried out by Tyler and Evans (2003), who developed a methodology called 'Principled Polysemy Model' to identify the basic senses of particles from which other meanings derive. Additionally, they presented a set of criteria to determine if certain senses are in fact extensions of the basic or central sense of the particle (MAHPEYKAR ; TYLER, 2014). Tyler and Evans (2005) also investigated English prepositions of verticality and their findings pointed to the embodied basis and image schematic nature of prepositions, concepts that are paramount in Cognitive Linguistics. More recently, Oliveira (2012) analyzed the Brazilian-Portuguese preposition *em* and she demonstrated that the various polysemous senses of the particle could be organized so as to form a prototypical category structured in a network based on Langacker's (1987) 'Schematic Network Model'.

As seen above, Cognitive Linguistics has provided new conceptual tools for the analysis of language and, as a consequence, there has been a growing interest in multi-word verb and particle research that relies on the principles of this fairly new field of study. Some of the Cognitive Linguistics concepts are fundamental to explain the motivation for the polysemous behavior shown by the verbs and particles in multi-word verbs. Hence, in this chapter we will briefly address the concepts of 'trajector' (TR) and 'landmark' (LM), entities whose spatial relationship is coded by a particle; 'image schemas', whose relevance is central to Cognitive Linguistics and play an important role in the way meaning is structured; and conceptual metaphors,

which help explain how multi-word verbs go from the concrete to the abstract domains.

Finally, due to the great challenge faced by second language learners of English in acquiring multi-word verbs and to the fact that these linguistic structures are highly productive in the English language, some implications on the teaching of multi-word verbs will be also appointed.

1. Trajector and landmark

The notions of Trajector (TR) and Landmark (LM) were proposed by Ronald Langacker (1987) and have been applied in Cognitive Linguistics to describe the relationship between two entities coded by a preposition, in which one entity (TR) moves on a trajectory relative to another entity (LM). For some scholars, TR and LM relate to figure/ground organization with the TR having a 'primary focus' (figure) and the LM a 'secondary focus' (ground). According to Brenda (2014, p. 35), the TR stands out from the background (LM) due to its characteristics: "they're smaller, geometrically simpler and more movable" as opposed to the LM, which "are larger, geometrically more complex and more permanently located". To better illustrate the concepts of TR and LM, consider the following examples with the particle *out*:

(1) *Sometimes he does not want to **come out** of his cell for an hour to shower or watch TV or read.*

(2) *After being shot, Williams said he tried to **get out** of the theater.*

(3) *But more importantly than that, when they **get out** of school there's a job for them (…).*

(4) *They also **go out** of town on most holiday weekends for a golf trip close to Houston.*

(5) *And when things run into trouble or costs **go out** of control, no one takes responsibility*.

Source: Corpus of Contemporary English (COCA), 2015.

The identification of TR and LM is as follows:

	TRAJECTOR		LANDMARK
1	He	come out	his cell
2	Williams	get out	the theater
3	They	get out	school
4	They	go out	town
5	Costs	go out	control

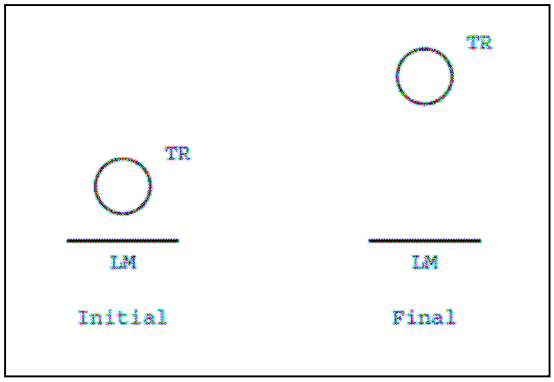
The examples show that the particle *out* in each of the multi-word verbs (*come out*, *get out* and *go out*) is similar in the aspect regarding the representation of its path in the spatial domain, moving away from the LM. However, there are differences in the configurations, for example, the metaphorical extension of the particle in 3 (school is meant as the institution, not the building) and in 5 (control is not concrete, but an abstract entity).

The identification of TR and LM might facilitate the understanding of how particles contribute to the meanings of multi-word verbs. Oliveira (2012) argues that particles possess "schematic information' about the TR and LM, i.e., the initial and final position of the TR in relation to the LM is expressed by the schematic configuration of the particle, correspondent with its semantic contribution to the multi-word verb. To illustrate that, Cook and Stevenson (2006) provide the following example:

(6) *The balloon floated up*.

In the example above, the TR is the balloon and the LM is the ground. The particle *up* contributes with the sense of 'vertical *up*', represented by the schema:

Figure 1: schema representing ‘vertical up’.

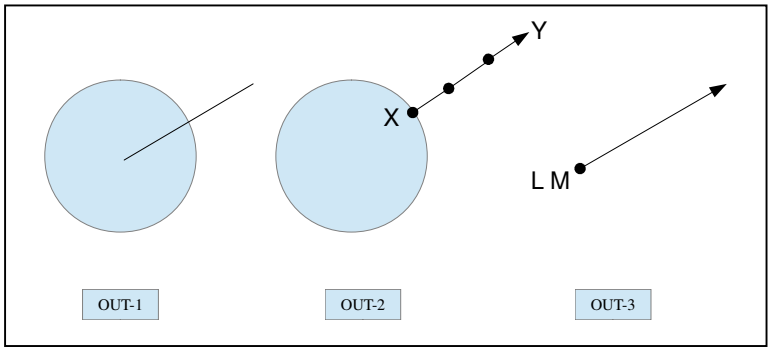


Source: Cook ; Stevenson (2006)

The schema portrayed by Figure 1 shows the initial and final configuration of the TR depicting a movement away from the LM along a vertical axis. According to Cook and Stevenson (2006), the schema describes the “prototypical spatial upward movement” conveyed by the particle *up* in sentence (6).

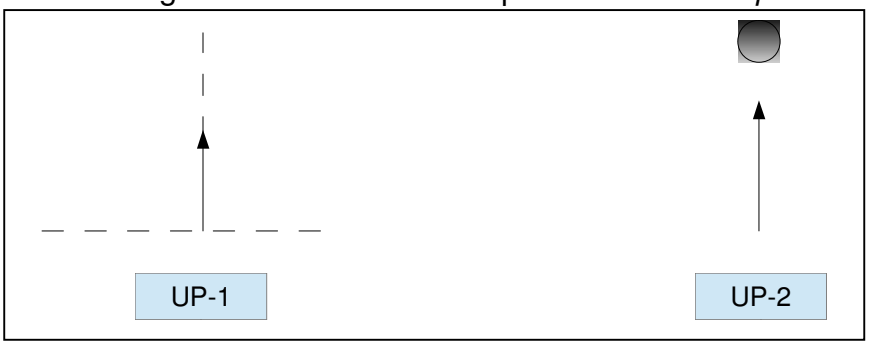
The above analysis of the particle *up* has been a follow-up to the extensive work carried out by Susan Lindner (1981) in her doctoral thesis *A Lexico-Semantic Analysis of Verb Particle Constructions with OUT and UP*. By examining the semantic patterns described by the particles, the author proposed three general schemas for *out* – ‘removal’, ‘expansion’ and ‘departure’ – and two general schemas for *up* – ‘vertically higher’ and ‘approach’. The schematic representations of the particles *out* and *up* are as follows:

Figure 2: the schematic representations of *out*.



Source: Lindner (1981)

Figure 3: the schematic representations of *up*.



Source: Lindner (1981)

Lindner (1981) argues that OUT-1 and UP-1 schemas represent the prototypical OUT and UP and that OUT-2 and OUT-3 as well as UP-2 derive from OUT-1 and UP-1 respectively, through experiential motivation. The author explains that OUT-1 ('removal') means 'paths in the spatial domain' and is different from the other two versions of out due to the fact that OUT-1 involves boundary crossing (e.g. go out of the room) whereas the other two schemas do not. According to Lindner (1981), in OUT-2 "the trajector becomes OUT when its outline broadcasts away from its initial LM boundary" (e.g. stretch out the rope", p. 124) and in OUT-3 there is a "movement away from a LM point designated as origin, center or source" (e.g. set out for Alaska, p. 137). As per UP-2 ('approach'), there is a verticality experiential basis, since we perceive things to become bigger as they approach us, moving closer to our field of vision (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

The schemas shown above demonstrate, however, that it might not be possible to reach a single meaning for *out* or *up* or any other particles, as they depict multiple configurations. Yet, the schemas may represent what all these versions have in common and provide a better understanding of the meanings of the particles in multi-word verbs. Trajector and landmark play a fundamental role in determining which configuration is established by the particles and their contribution to the whole meaning of multi-word verbs.

2. Image schemas

Cognitive Semantics relies on the concept of image schema in an attempt to explain how humans organize knowledge, thus it becomes necessary to establish a link between this theoretical concept and multi-word verb analysis. The term 'image schema' was introduced by Mark Johnson (1987) in his book *The Body in the Mind* and is described as a pre-conceptual structure grounded in our everyday bodily experiences and interaction with the world. The embodiment thesis gives support to the notion of image schema, since these abstract structures emerge as a result of the way we experience our body moving in space or the way we understand objects (OLIVEIRA, 2007).

Given the fact that image schemas are sensorial-perceptual in nature, they are conceptualized very early in life, before language is learned. Johnson (1987) provided a list of the different domains image schemas reflect, such as CONTAINMENT/CONTAINER, PATH/SOURCE-PATH-GOAL, LINK, PART-WHOLE, CENTER-PERIPHERY, BALANCE and FORCE. The CONTAINER schema, for instance, organizes human's experiences regarding IN-OUT orientation. Lakoff (1987, p. 271) argues that the CONTAINER schema comprises "a *boundary* distinguishing an *interior* from an *exterior*" to the point that we understand ourselves as containers. In addition to that, experiences such as "wake ***out*** of a deep sleep", get ***out*** of bed and "look ***in*** the mirror", which we understand in terms of CONTAINER, are part of everybody's ordinary day and include physical orientation in space as well as abstract non-spatial relations (JONHSON, 1987).

Although there seems to be an agreement regarding the centrality of the image schema thesis in Cognitive Linguistics, some issues remain. Research on image schema by different areas of investigation, such as Cognitive and Developmental Psychology, Computer Science, the Neurosciences, Cognitive Anthropology, Gesture studies and Cognitive Rhetoric, have differed on the definition of the term and, in addition to that, they have each contributed to expand the image schema list (HAMPE, 2005).

An issue that continues to be a matter of disagreement concerns image schema formation. Mandler and Cánovas (2014) argue that research on image schema needs to account for the way spatial scenes begin to be

conceptualized in children's minds as well as for the changes which occur in the conceptual mind once language is learned. The authors propose a model which encompasses three cognitive structures: 'spatial primitives', 'image schemas' and 'schematic integrations'. According to Mandler and Cánovas (2014), these conceptual cognitive structures are formed in different phases of infancy and also vary with respect to their content and 'imageability'. CONTAINER, for instance, is classified in this model as a 'spatial primitive' and an 'image schema' is considered a very simple spatial scene using this primitive: THING INTO CONTAINER. A 'schematic integration', in turn, includes non-spatial elements, such as FORCE, in order to be built. According to the authors, actions of going in and out of containers are what infants pay attention to rather than size or limits of containers. This observation raises the question whether children's early conceptualization with no regard for a bounded region would be more relevant in language concerning the CONTAINER schema.

The CONTAINER schema is also discussed in Grady's (1997) dissertation when he compares image schema to 'primary scenes'. The author discusses the recognized relevance of image schema in metaphorical mappings. Grady (1997, p. 24, 182) states that image schemas are very complex and "include quite a bit of structure" compared to a primary scene, term he coined to describe "minimal episodes of subjective experience". Image schemas are also regarded as more abstract in Grady's (1997) view. According to him, the types of experiences abstracted from the containment relationships "are too different to be considered instances of the same experience type", e.g. understanding our bodies as containers, being in bed, leaving a room, etc. (p. 185).

Regardless of the disagreement on how image schemas are formed, not to mention the fact that there is no definite list of schemas or even their role in metaphorical mappings, the importance of these units in structuring meaning is recognized by many scholars. Their embodied nature as they emerge through our interaction with the world and the various domains they reflect might facilitate the understanding of multi-word verbs.

3. Conceptual metaphors

Considering all the above with regard to Cognitive Linguistics, it seems to be a widely held assumption that cognitive processes underlie the production of linguistic structures, being metaphorization one of such processes, as pointed out by Kovács (2011). In addition, the scholar claims that meaning plays an important role in language and, as metaphor is understood as a natural tenet of our conceptual system, it is mirrored in our language, which, therefore, "uses thousands of expressions based on concrete, physical entities in order to express high-level abstractions" (p. 144).

According to Lakoff (2006), classic theorists conceived metaphors as linguistic devices which encompass "mechanisms outside the realm of everyday conventional language" and also regarded them "as a matter of language, not thought". In contrast to such theory, cognitive linguists seem to hold a different view on metaphors. Indeed, Lakoff (2006) relies on the conceptualization of mental domains to explain how metaphors are formed. Moreover, they might not be created only in the realm of poetry, for instance, but also in everyday language use. Therefore, "abstract concepts like time, states, change, causation, and purpose also turn out to be metaphorical" (p. 186).

Conceptual metaphors are metaphors that emerge from the process of mapping different conceptual domains. Kovács (2011) sheds light on the expression *to spit fire* expressing *anger*. According to the author, "we conceptualize 'anger' via the metaphor ANGER IS FIRE so that "ANGER IS FIRE is a conceptual metaphor" (p. 145). In the same vein, the following example provided by Lakoff (2006, p. 189) illustrates a metaphor that results from the mapping of two domains – love and journey:

(7) Our relationship has hit a dead-end street.

As the scholar points out, "love is being conceptualized as a journey" (p. 189), i.e., the relationship, while in its "journey", "hit a dead-end street", as if it were a vehicle. Therefore, there seems to be a "general principle" (p. 189) pervading the conceptual system of the English language, which bridges the gap between the domains of *love* and *journey*.

Hence, a metaphor is a mapping “from a source domain” (which is journey, in the LOVE IS A JOURNEY mapping) “to a target domain” (love, in the LOVE IS A JOURNEY mapping). Furthermore, there is a set of correspondences in such mapping (Lakoff, 2006:190):

- Lovers corresponding to travelers;
- The love relationship as the vehicle;
- The lovers’ aims as their destinations.

In the light of the above correspondences, it goes without saying that the LOVE AS A JOURNEY mapping is a conventional way love is conceptualized and it encompasses knowledge about journeys mapped onto knowledge about love. As Lakoff (2006) states, these correspondences are mechanisms that allow us to think about love in terms of journeys. With regard to the abstract meanings of multi-word verbs, it should be noted that a concrete domain (likely to be physical) may be mapped onto an abstract domain. Consider the following example:

(8) He still needs to ***get over*** *that last hump in his heart and get there with his family.*

Source: Corpus of Contemporary English (COCA), 2016.

In example (8) above, the image schema PATH-GOAL underlies the metaphorical use of the particle *over* in the multi-word verb *get over*. The landmark (*that last hump in his heart*), which is a metaphorical obstacle needs to be *got over* by the trajector (he). The ‘construal’ of this spatial scene is only possible through a process of metaphoric mapping instantiated by one or more image schemas.

Still from Lakoff’s (2006) perspective, not only does metaphor relate to cross domain mappings in the conceptual system, but it is also pervaded by linguistic expressions. However, the term “metaphor” is used regarding mapping whereas the term “metaphorical expression” refers to a linguistic

expression, such as *dead-end street* (p. 192). Thus, the LOVE IS A JOURNEY metaphor consists of a conceptual mapping that holds two types of generalization: polysemy generalization and inferential generalization. Whereas the former is comprised of generalized senses of linguistic expressions, such as *dead-end street* or *stuck* (LAKOFf, 2006), the latter consists of "a generalization over inferences across different conceptual domains" (p. 192).

As research on metaphor theory developed, the conceptual metaphor has been considered to be of two types: primary metaphors and compound metaphors. Grady (1997) revisited some of Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphors, such as THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS, and suggested that the THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS metaphor is a compound metaphor as opposed to a primary metaphor, which relates to more 'basic events', such as lifting an object. The force applied to the action of lifting an object combined with the action itself allows for the creation of a conceptual structure, which he called 'primary scenes'. As Evans and Green (2006) state "primary metaphors relate two 'simple' concepts from distinct domains" whereas "compound metaphors relate entire complex domains of experience" (p. 307).

In conclusion, conceptual metaphor theory has brought valuable insights to the understanding of complex linguistic structures such as multi-word verbs. Be it the cross-domain mappings theory or Grady's (2007) notion of primary metaphor and primary scenes, these concepts seem to be a plausible alternative for the motivation of the semantic networks of verb and particle.

4. Implications for teaching

As previously stated in this chapter, multi-word verbs may stand as a potential challenge for second language learners for various reasons, such as the fact that several different meanings could stem from a single multi-word verb, not to mention the particles of those verbs, which encode location, and manner of movement. Slobin (2006) suggests that "mental imagery" is different between speakers of languages that have such types of verbs – i.e. English – and those that do not encompass them – i.e. Spanish:

> *[…] bilinguals tested in both languages systematically report more mental imagery for manner of motion, and less for physical surroundings, when reading in English, in comparison with Spanish. (SLOBIN, 2006 p:15).*

Therefore, in light of such dilemma, the Cognitive Linguistics approach to language may stand as a useful resource for teachers to tackle the issue. In a study carried out by Barbosa (2015) intended to weigh the pros and cons of teaching the German preposition *über* by means of image schematic representations and conceptual metaphors, the author provided valuable insight on the contributions of a cognitive approach to verb particles.

The scholar advocated for the possibility of using image schematic representations to address the spatial semantics of the German preposition *über* and aimed at discussing how metaphorical uses of such preposition are motivated. In her study, five teachers had their classes observed and four of them were able to cover cognitive aspects of that preposition, regardless of being theoretical or not. Indeed, a surprising factor revealed that it was not necessary for teachers to have sound knowledge on image schemas and conceptual metaphors to make successful use of cognitive concepts. Instead, the teachers who adopted procedures that did not rely solely on the methodology of the teaching material were able to address the activities in the light of cognitive principles.

She concluded that the sound knowledge on Cognitive Linguistics held by one of the teachers was of paramount importance to his in-depth study of the image schema relations as well as to his explanation on how image schemas would lead to metaphorical meanings of *über*. Moreover, the majority of teachers agreed on the use of pictures showing image schematic representations as a way of conveying the meanings of the preposition *über*. The exercises used in class led the teachers to use gestures and pictures to explain meanings as well as complex grammatical structures involving this preposition.

One downside pointed out by the teachers on the proposed cognitive exercises was the level of abstraction of the image schema representations, seen as a potential constraint to the comprehension of the meanings of *über*

in the examples provided. Native speakers, on the other hand, might not face such challenge, as those metaphorical meanings may be conventional in their language.

Likewise, English multi-word verbs and their corresponding particles may leave room for cognitive teaching approaches. The findings presented by Barbosa (2015) shed light on the quite enriching teaching possibilities that are still to be explored by English teachers. Although more study might be necessary, the use of pictures representing image schemas alongside the teacher's knowledge of cognitive concepts may definitely be a starting point towards a meaningful apprehension of multi-word verb senses by second language learners.

5. Conclusion

Cognitive Linguistics offers a set of conceptual tools from which multi-word verbs can be analyzed. Rather than considering these linguistic structures arbitrary and non-compositional, cognitive semantics regards their polysemous nature as motivated by image-schematic units, the embodied mind and metaphorical extensions. Cognitive linguistics holds that multi-word verbs are compositionally formed, as both the verb and particle(s) can generate a semantic network, which accounts for the multiple meanings of multi-word verbs.

An increasing number of studies carried out under the scope of Cognitive Linguistics has suggested schematic representations of spatial prepositions and has also provided semantic networks that identify the central meaning of a particle and their extended meanings (LINDNER, 1981; RUDZKA-OSTYN, 2003; TYLERand EVANS, 2003; TYLER and EVANS, 2005; VON, 2007; Oliveira, 2012). However, although the particles have been extensively investigated, not much work on the semantics of the verbs has been done so far and needs further investigation (MAHPEYKAR ; TYLE[JB2]r, 2014).

Metaphor, in turn, is another issue in the scope of Cognitive Linguistics. As a critical element underlying our conceptual system, it pervades language. Conceptual metaphors emerge from the conceptualization of domains of

experience, by means of mapping from a source domain to a target domain (LAKOFF, 2006).

All in all, despite all the potential challenges that might be faced by teachers and students when multi-word verbs are concerned, a cognitive-based teaching approach stands as an enriching possibility of enhancing comprehension of the different meanings of such verbs. As Barbosa (2015) argued in her study, exercises and explanation that are based on cognitive principles, such as image schemas, are likely to provide valuable insight on the metaphorical meanings of multi-word verbs and particles. Although there is still plenty of room left for further studies on the issue, it goes without saying that Cognitive Linguistics may be a useful theory to move a step forward in teaching practice in the long run.

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The chapter discusses the teaching of grammar in the context of ESL and attempts to demystify some beliefs people have regarding grammar. The authors provide valuable insight into the literature, addressing the notions of declarative and procedural knowledge, explicit and implicit knowledge as well as noticing and inductive teaching. Thus, traditional perspectives on grammar teaching that might not take into account the functional motivation of grammatical choices in discourse are deconstructed, leaving room to a Communicative Teaching Approach, which focuses on both form and meaning. Finally, samples of activities are provided, in which grammar is tackled in an inductive way, which would induce students to grasp specific grammatical items in use.

Edelvais Barbosa and Raquel Rossini

Teaching grammar in the English as a foreign language classroom: an inductive perspective

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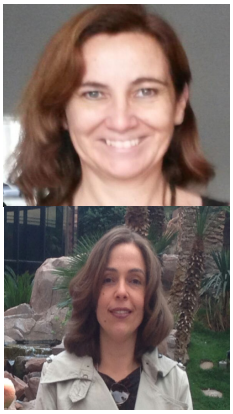


Introduction

We would like to initially address the topic of L2 Grammar Teaching from the perspective of some beliefs people in general have about grammar. There are six of these beliefs[11] that have generated statements that we are almost certain to have heard one time or another along our learning or teaching journeys:

1) *I don't know grammar.*
2) *We learn grammar naturally and it does not need to be taught.*
3) *Grammar is a collection of meaningless, arbitrary rules that we have to memorize.*
4) *Grammar has to do only with sentence-level phenomena.*
5) *Grammar is boring.*
6) *I hate grammar.*

[11] Adapted from *Grammar and Its Teaching: Challenging the Myths*, found in http://www.kidsource.com/kidsource/content4/grammer.morph.html, which is based on Larsen-Freeman, D. (Series Director). (1993; 1997). "Grammar dimensions: Form, meaning, and use. Boston: Heinle ; Heinle.

We are going to address these statements, not necessarily in the order they have been listed above, nor exactly one at a time, since the issues they represent are interrelated. First of all, we propose checking what people mean when they say the word *grammar*, since this word can, in fact, refer to quite different things (ARNDT; HARVEY; NUTTALL, 2000). This way, we may be able to discuss the broad topic of grammar teaching and learning and perhaps see where problems might be located.

The first meaning we can attach to the term grammar is *the language system*, *the set of structures of a language*, as an abstraction from the language that is actually spoken or written. The system exists independently of the conscious activities of people, and it allows for language use.

This first meaning is closely related to a second meaning for the word grammar, which is *the mental representation of the system, internalized by each individual* that speaks the language. All speakers, native or learners at any level, have part of that *language system* in their minds. In relation to these two related meanings to grammar, we can see that many of the statements above cannot apply. How can we say, then, that the language system is boring, or that we hate the language system we have internalized?

Concerning this *internalized system*, this *mental reality* definition, we have to say that, if all speakers of a language have acquired or internalized a portion of the broad abstracted system, everybody, then, knows grammar. To a lesser or greater extent, we all know grammar. Statement number 1 above does not tell exactly the truth.

Now we can touch the issue of acquisition. How do we form this *mental representation of the system* in our minds? At first, native speakers acquire it naturally, in a linguistic environment that is totally adequate for that. They learn grammar by using the language meaningfully. However, even native speakers go through formal instruction from childhood on to perfect or to develop accuracy in many aspects of the language. Therefore, is it not accurate to say that grammar does not need to be taught?

Non-native learners, in this context, have a tougher job ahead of them to internalize the language system to a point of becoming fluent speakers.

They need even more instruction, together with practice that is also meaningful, however different from the language experience native speakers have.

Related to this acquisition issue, comes another thing that people have in mind when they use the term grammar: *grammar classes, or courses*, where the language is taught or practiced. Here we can picture some people saying they hate grammar. Each person has his/her own learning style (HATCH, 1974), and it is not easy to satisfy everyone. We believe, though, that we have better chances of pleasing learners if classes are more dynamic, involve use of the language that is meaningful or similar to real use.

Still related to the acquisition issue, comes one more possible meaning to the term grammar: grammar as *books, pedagogical texts about the language*. We always have to remember that these books or texts are attempts to describe the language system. It is also easy to see the statements/beliefs we are discussing, except for number 2, applied to grammar books or the like. People may have a hard time reading grammatical information, since it is often presented as arbitrary or meaningless, many times just concerning sentence formation, isolated from larger linguistic contexts. Learners frequently get frustrated or infer that the only way to possess that knowledge is through memorization of the rules and patterns stated.

It is crucial to remember that texts that aim at describing the language system, such as academic texts, grammar books, or grammar sections in textbooks, are only maps to a territory. A clear corollary of the statement *the territory is not the map*[12] is that no map can be the size of the territory, or, stated differently, there is much more in a territory than what can be put in a map. Applied to the grammar field, this metaphor triggers comprehension that the linguistic reality is broader than what we may ever be able to find represented in patterns or rules stated about it. Linguistic variation and change is a reality. Arndt, Harvey and Nuttall (2000) talk about the great variety languages generate:

[12] This is a metaphor coined by Alfred Korzybski, a scholar that developed the field of general semantics.

> *Within the space of any given timeframe (a day, an afternoon, an hour, or even a shorter unit) we may call upon different sorts of language, depending on who we are talking to, the subject we are dealing and a whole host of other contextual factors. Among the kaleidoscope of influences on this range and richness, some of the most conspicuous and fundamental are the following:*
> *. form (eg. written/spoken)*
> *. style (eg. formal/informal, assertive/tentative)*
> *. source (eg. newspaper, novel, TV chatshow, telephone conversation)*
> *. purpose (eg. courtroom, classroom, home, company boardroom, factory)*
> *. speaker/writer origin (eg. speaker using Scots dialect of Liverpool accent; 19th-century American novelist)*
> *. social factors (eg. age, gender, social group)*
> *. personal usage (eg. the varieties we use at different times to different people)*
>
> *(ARNDT, HARVEY; NUTTALL, 2000, p.33)*

Also, we can reason, based on the same metaphor, that, in case the map does not correspond to the territory, it is the map that should be changed or adapted, not the territory. This makes it almost obvious that a descriptive approach to grammar should be favored.

Another corollary of this metaphor relates to the fact that we may know the map and not be able to get to a certain place when we need to. Applying that to language learning, other conditions have to be met, apart from having the explicit knowledge of a grammar rule, in order for speakers to successfully use a specific linguistic form in real life situations.

In order to address the specific statements/beliefs numbers 3 and 4, it is necessary to approach the grammar-discourse interface when dealing with the linguistic system (McCARTHY, 1991). This approach will consequently result in facing the complexity of the system, not simplifying it to the point of losing sight of meaning behind patterns. For Batstone (1994b), making too general statements about grammar can be compared to looking out from a plane window at 30,000 feet. In fact, from such an aerial perspective, we produce idealizations about the language system, which, if seen from a lower height (at 10,000 feet), would not seem so orderly.

> *Grammar at 30,000 feet with its broad patterns - active, passive, and so on - looks similarly ordered. But dip down to 10,000 feet and things begin to look quite different: all that previous clarity and neatness is giving way to something much denser and more complex - minor roads and sprawling conurbations emerge revealing a clutter of detail. Grammar at 10 000 feet is similarly cluttered, and marked by a lack of regularity. (BATSTONE, 1994a p. 8)*

Looking at specific language exemplars (at 10,000 feet, or closer to the ground level), we face a more complex scenario. There are variations, and there might be reasons for patterns, or rules; we can discover motivations for certain forms and these motivations may be discursive, functional and/or cognitive in nature. The following linguistic phenomena may be illustrative of this point

1) Why does the English system allow for sentences such as *We sent John a package.; We sent it to John.,* but not sentences as *(*)We sent John it.* ?

There is a functional or cognitive motivation for the ungrammaticality of **We sent John it.* This motivation is understood if we consider that there are focus locations in the sentence. The end of the sentence, for example, is one of those places, and there we usually find structures that are 'heavier', more informative, harder to process, from the point of view of the human capacity for cognitive processing (HALLIDAY, 2004). It means that, in the ungrammatical sentence discussed here, the location for the pronoun *it*, which conveys old, 'light' information, is not so appropriate. The same does not happen to those other sentences, which display informationally 'heavier' elements (*to John*, *a package*) at their endings.

2) This same cognitive motivation explains the phenomenon of the *anticipatory it*: *It is important to study grammar*. In such a sentence, the new and 'heavier' piece of information (*to study grammar*), is preferably placed at the end of the sentence. If it were for us to have a perfect syntax/semantics alignment, this element would appear in subject position; however, as according to Chafe (1974), subject is a position for 'light', old information, the sentence displays only *it*, as the syntactic subject marker.

3) There are certain phenomena that can only be appropriately approached if we take into account the interrelation between grammar and discourse. One such phenomenon is the demands of the text at large upon the *article* system in the language. We can easily equate the basic distinction between the use of the *indefinite article*, on the one side, or of the *definite*

article, on the other, with the first or other mentions of a referent in discourse: *I'd just heard a noise. This/the noise was very loud.*

4) Also involving the use of an indefinite element, we have the *there be* construction, which introduces a nominal group that is never definite (*There is a blue car outside.*; *There are clouds everywhere.*). This restriction happens due to the fact that the function of this construction is to introduce a new participant in discourse, an element that carries the first (or only) mention of a referent in the text. Therefore, in this case, once again, the relation between grammar and discourse reflects a functional motivation for a specific form.

5) Seeing a *passive* structure simply as the transformed form of an *active* structure is not really accurate. This grammatical issue is related to the connection grammar/discourse (RUTHERFORD, 1987). To approach it, apart from the communicative functions already normally attributed to the passive (for example: *We use a passive form when we don't want to mention who did the action.),* we can say that there are specific discourse contexts for the occurrence of a passive form that are determined by thematic and informational structures, which transcend the sentence unit. *Nancy brought this pen.* and *That (pen/one) was brought by Larry.* are structures that fit different discourse contexts, or, stated otherwise, could answer different questions: respectively, *Who brought this pen?* and *What about that one?.*

6) When dealing with linguistic structures, it can be quite profitable to consider the real complexity of the system. When studying *relative clauses*, for instance, it could be much more meaningful for learners if they understood the position or function of this type of clause. For that, these learners would have to be presented to the composition of a *nominal group* (*determiner + pre-modifier + head + post-modifier*), and, in this context, they would learn that the adjective nature of the relative clause is explained by the fact that it post-modifies a noun. The whole picture of the *noun group* would be visualized and learners would understand that *full relative clauses* can alternate with *reduced relative clauses* or *prepositional groups* in the same

function: *the man that is standing at the door; the man standing at the door,* and *the man at the door.*

7) Another example of approaching the language system as a whole, dealing with some of its complexity, is presenting *if-clauses,* not only through the practice of their types, the *conditional sequences*, which have to do with their communicative functions (*We use the third conditional sequence to express an unreal situation in the past*, etc.), but also through a broader reflection upon the language system, knowing that condition is just one type of circumstance that can be related to the event expressed by the sentence verb, other circumstances being time, place, manner, reason, etc. Thus, *conditional clauses* could be understood as one type of *adverbial clauses*, a very important grammatical category that integrates the language system.

As stated before, if somebody uses the language at any degree, this person has internalized part of the language system, has learned structures, and is able to follow rules which, first, are not only sentence related, but also go higher to discourse level, and, second, have been stored in memory more probably mostly through use than through memorization. Thus, stating that grammar is a collection of rules, at the sentence level, that have to be memorized is not totally accurate.

Learning the functioning of the system is necessary. And, there has always to be some grammar instruction. If we want to be faithful to the premises of the communicative competence (DELL HYMES, 1972), we need to focus on both fluency and accuracy. Accuracy is mostly needed in writing or in more formal speaking contexts, and it is equated to special attention to form, to patterns or rules. Ellis (1997), then, proposes that if students do not have instruction on grammar points, they will not develop appropriate accuracy.

This grammatical knowledge has lots of uses: it makes salient certain formal aspects of the language, it avoids fossilization of forms wrongly internalized, or it helps people to speed, improve, and perfect their learning experiences (TONKIN, 1994). However, we should approach, or study the system in a more integrated way, concerning the interrelation between the

grammatical and the discourse, functional or cognitive systems, as well as we should practice the forms meaningfully.

Then, quite often, to target the sources of the dissatisfaction learners express, we have to deal with issues related to the nature or design of the teaching/learning environment (grammar *classes*), and/or the characteristics of the linguistic description (grammar *books or texts*). Being so, teachers, linguists, and researchers have a role and can act upon those issues.

2 .Teaching grammar to EFL learners: theoretical underpinnings

In this section, we present some theoretical concepts that are essential for the understanding of the instructional principles in grammar teaching for ESL.

2.1 Declarative X procedural knowledge

Johnson (1994) presents the very useful theoretical distinction between *declarative* and *procedural* knowledge, and discusses the two possible paths for a language learner to take. Declarative, at one side, is explicit knowledge, and it means knowing 'about' something, in opposition to procedural, a more practical knowledge of 'how to do things'. In our journey as language learners, we can go from studying and/or memorizing rules and patterns, to practicing them, which means moving from declarative to procedural knowledge (path one). This is the typical path followed, according to Johnson, for example, when we learn to drive (from instructions to practice), or learn the movements of swimming outside the pool before getting in the water. In all these cases, we experience the process of proceduralization, or automatization, putting total attention to form, first, and only loosening this attention as gestures or procedures become automatized. Going in the other direction, from procedural to declarative (path two), we first practice forms and learn about them, explicitly, later.

Both paths involve some degree of risk. Following the first path, a form that has been learned may never become proceduralized, if not practiced appropriately. On the other hand, going from practice to attention to form, we may never get to be able to reflect or talk about a certain linguistic pattern, which may lead to lack of accuracy in certain situations.

Especially the language teacher should display solid, consistent knowledge of the language system that is both procedural and declarative. He/she has to be able to use the language, to be a fluent speaker, and also to be able to talk about the system's patterns, its constitutive rules.

Constitutive rules oppose to regulative rules. Hindriks (2009) discusses these two types of rules contrasted in Searle (1964, 1969, 1995):

> Searle writes: *[R]egulative rules regulate antecedently or independently existing forms of behaviour […]. But constitutive rules do not merely regulate, they create or define new forms of behaviour. The rules of football or chess, for example […] create the very possibility of playing such games*. (1969, p. 33). (HINDRIKS, 2009, p.:255)

Therefore, a constitutive rule can be exemplified, in a Volleyball game, as: "Only the three players at the net positions can jump and spike or block near the net"; or, in linguistics, as: *The subject typically precedes the verb.* A regulative rule, on its turn, can be exemplified, in games, as "You have to respect your opponent"; or, in linguistics, as *We do not say 'It ain't good.*'.

Thus, for being an effective language user who shows both fluency and accuracy, it is essential to have declarative knowledge of constitutive rules as well as procedural knowledge.

Each one of the two possible paths for language learning (from declarative to procedural, or from procedural to declarative) is in line with one of two modes of instruction: deductive and inductive, respectively.

2.2- Explicit X implicit knowledge

Another important theoretical distinction related to the teaching and learning of grammar in an L2 is that of *implicit* and *explicit* learning (and knowledge), which is derived from cognitive psychology, with major implications for second language acquisition research. Ultimately, researchers need to know which aspects of the language are learned implicitly, what the role of explicit knowledge is for L2 acquisition, how these two learning modalities interact and can be used to inform L2 instruction (ELLIS et al, 2009). Implicit learning can be defined as learning that occurs when input is processed unintentionally, while explicit learning is learning that occurs when

there is conscious attention to concepts and rules underlying regularities in the input (GASS; SELINKER, 2008).

Implicit and explicit types of knowledge relate, respectively, to the procedural and declarative concepts, in Johnson (1994b). Also, we have to consider that learning should be distinguished from knowledge when dealing with the opposition implicit X explicit. Ellis et al (2009, p.6) explained that learning 'refers to the processes involved in learning', whereas knowledge 'concerns the products of learning'. Learners may exhibit knowledge that has been acquired implicitly and later develop an explicit representation (a process that corresponds to Johnson's path 2). It is also possible for a learner to receive explicit instruction of one linguistic feature and develop incidental implicit learning of some other linguistic feature (corresponding to Johnson's path 1).

According to Ellis et al. (2009), L2 learners rely on both types of knowledge when they use L2. They may even have developed both implicit and explicit knowledge of the same linguistic feature. Yet, it is difficult to determine how learners draw on their knowledge while performing with the language. In fact, one can never distinguish the two types of knowledge in language performance.

2.3- Noticing and inductive teaching

Schmidt (2001) postulated the idea of noticing for second language acquisition, arguing that 'the objects of attention and noticing are elements of the surface structure of utterances in the input, instances of language, rather than any abstract rules or principles of which such instances may be exemplars'. In other words, Schmidt drew the line between noticing and metalinguistic awareness – noticing involves conscious attention to surface elements while metalinguistic awareness concerns the underlying abstract rule of a given linguistic phenomena (ELLIS et al, 2009). Since noticing requires some degree of awareness, one cannot say that implicit learning proceeds without awareness. Thus, implicit learning is learning that occurs without metalinguistic awareness; that is, it is a process that integrates material into the learner's interlanguage system (or restructures this system) autonomously and without conscious control (ELLIS et al, 2009).

In order to understand the current pedagogical approaches to L2 grammar, we first need to examine the role of grammar in the history of methods to language teaching. This will be done in the next section.

2.4- Communicative Language Teaching and grammar teaching.

Nassaji and Fotos (2011) review the history of grammar teaching and its changes according to the development of learning theories and related pedagogical applications. Such changes are best understood when viewed in terms of methods, beginning with an exclusive focus on grammar, moving to an approach in which meaningful communication was the goal and, more recently, which focuses on both meaning and form, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In this section, we describe the major changes in perspective relative to grammar teaching that occurred in the second half of the 20th century, focusing CLT.

CLT has its origins in the Situational Language Teaching (SLT), in the late 1970's. SLT approached teaching by encouraging the practice of basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. CLT, on the other hand, was based on the idea that learners need to develop 'communicative competence', that is, the ability to use language (knowledge of language use) (HYMES, 1972), as well as develop linguistic or grammatical competence (knowledge of grammar rules). It should be noted that the idea of grammatical competence implied, for the proponents of CLT, to put forward the goal of providing instruction that would ultimately guide learners into abstracting the rules of the language, including its connections with discourse and language use, in a rather inductive perspective. In other words, grammatical competence implied not only declarative, but also procedural knowledge of the underlying representations of language. As mentioned in the previous section, the notion of grammar is that of a system, internalized by the language user.

Several frameworks were proposed as an attempt to implement the ideas of the Communicative Approach in the classroom, and they differ in the degree they allow grammar to be focused. In the strong version of the Communicative Approach, language is learned through communication activities with a clear focus on producing meaning. For the weak version, on

the other hand, the goal is communication, but language is learned in a more controlled manner. The strong version gave rise to meaning focused methods, with language functions organizing curriculum, and also to task-based instruction (NASSAJI; FOTOS, 2011; RICHARDS; RODGERS, 2001).

Among the consequences of the move to a communicative approach to language teaching was the shift in the focus of grammar to meaning oriented activities and a rejection to grammar teaching among many teachers and educators. Nevertheless, approaches that neglect form completely are inadequate. Research has showed that learners need to be aware of grammatical forms in order to develop accuracy in the L2. Long (1991) conducted research in which he argued that focus on form contributes to language learning. Instructed language has a significant role in acquisition rate and accuracy levels. This fact is also supported by research conducted by Norris and Ortega (2000), after reviewing several studies on the effect of instruction for language attainment. The authors concluded that instruction with a focus on form results in better attainment of target structures.

The result of these studies led teachers and educators to review the role of grammar in L2 instruction. In addition, explicit knowledge of target structures may assist learners to produce output that will also be used as auto-input. Learners need not only output and input, but ample opportunities to practice and produce target structures so that such knowledge may be incorporated or accommodated in their developing interlanguage system. The concept of focus on form has been expanded to include both incidental and preplanned focus on form, that is, it can occur both reactively, when addressing learners' errors, or proactively, when addressing possible problems before they occur (RANDALL, 2007; NASSAJI; FOTOS, 2011). With the recognition of the importance of grammar instruction for language development, a focus on linguistic forms has been included in recent proposals for language teaching. Form-focused activities are being integrated with meaning-focused practice; this means that the role of grammar has changed from the ruler of language to assist language for communication purposes.

It may be clear now that the myth (or belief) that grammar is learnt naturally does not really apply to L2 learners. The set of rules needs to be

internalized, that is, needs to be promptly available as procedural knowledge, along with the discourse interface, as the map/territory metaphor implies. Focus on structure use guarantees that grammar does not become a set of arbitrary rules to be memorized and that serves no purpose for L2 communication but to bore learners and frustrate teachers.

Richards and Reppen (2014) also argue that learners should be provided with opportunities to notice grammar. When a learner becomes conscious of a grammatical feature, chances are that such consciousness will trigger a process that will ultimately result in the incorporation of the feature into the learner's language competence. Noticing can be achieved by tasks that ask learners to focus on how structures are used in texts produced in the real world, for example. In addition to noticing, grammatical development can also be encouraged by helping learners restructure their linguistic competence by pushed output. By creating opportunities in which learners notice the gap in their linguistic repertoire and are faced with tasks that require the use of new and more complex grammatical forms, their linguistic system will be restructured as a result of the need to communicate and to attend to form.

Ellis et al (2009, p. 17) defined instruction as 'an attempt to intervene in interlanguage development.' As we have been arguing, L2 learners benefit from grammar instruction. There are, however, levels of intervention that reflect how the teacher approaches instruction. Implicit instruction attempts to enable learners to infer rules without awareness. By experiencing input that contains exemplars of a rule or pattern and by engaging in meaning-focused activities, learners would internalize the underlying rule or pattern without having their attention explicitly focused on it. Explicit instruction makes learners think about a particular grammatical feature, that is, it encourages them to develop metalinguistic awareness. The design of tasks can be deductive, when learners are given a rule to be applied to data, or they can be inductive, when learners are led to discover the rules for themselves after analyzing relevant input (NASSAJI ; FOTOS, 2011; ELLIS et al, 2009).

3- Data analysis

In this section, we present and discuss two samples of grammar activities in light of learning and teaching theories, highlighting the principles of explicit inductive grammar teaching. These activities were developed by English language teachers attending a course on Grammar Teaching in the context of a Diploma course at a public university in Brazil.

Task 1

This task targeted the use of the simple present for the expression of past events in stories. The text, the fairy tale Rapunzel, used as input for the grammar work, had been presented before, in a reading activity. First, the author, in this grammar task, asks learners to read some excerpts from the text, aiming at calling their attention to the way (the form) the information is conveyed, and then learners are asked to answer questions related to form and use of the structure presented. Thus, by using real discourse, that is, excerpts from the text containing the structure in focus, the activity facilitates learning, in the sense that it may prompt learners to notice the context in which the structure is used.

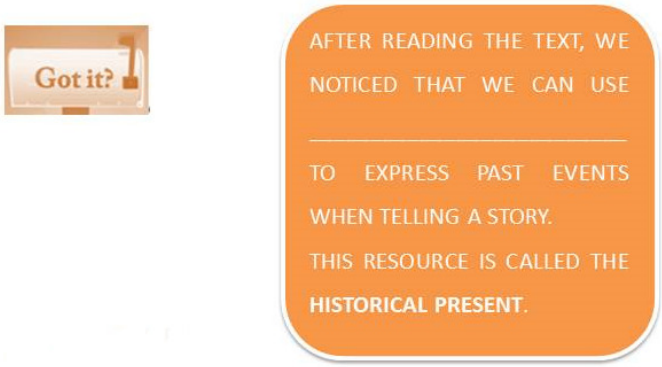
B. The excerpts below are from the text. Read them and answer the questions that follow:

- Her clothes feel too tight.
- The witch chops off Rapunzel's hair and magically transports her far away.
- She lives as a beggar.
- The witch lures him up and then pushes him from the window.
- Some thorn bushes break his fall.
- There's still a happy ending.

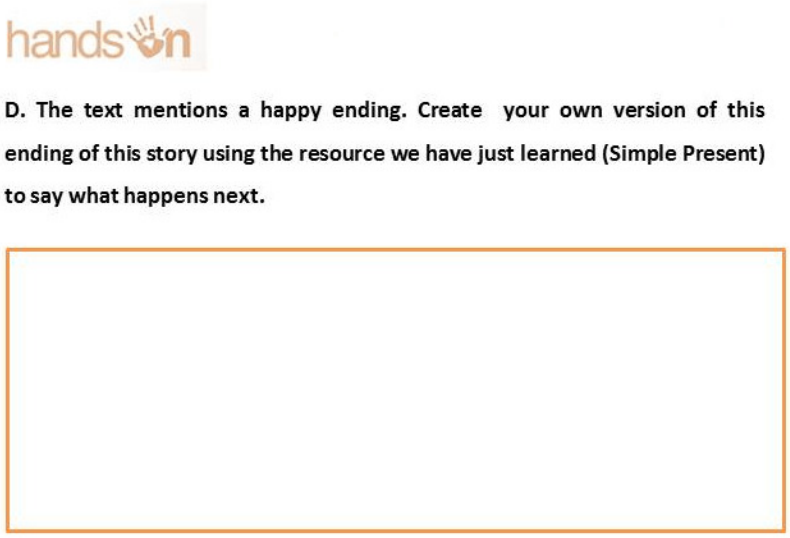
1. Is the text talking about something that happened in the past?
2. What verb tense is used?
3. When do we normally use this tense?
4. This tense is used in a different way in the text. Why do you think this happens ? Are we talking about the present or the past?

Through these questions, students are led to discover that the simple present is used to express events that happened in the past, in a

narrative/story context. Therefore, they can fill out the box below with this pattern of the English language.



After formulating, inductively, such pattern, a meaningful and contextualized practice activity is proposed, in which students are asked to provide an ending for the fairy tale (which is left open in the text), using the linguistic resource just learned.



Vocabulary from the text (some phrasal verbs) is also practiced. Learners first have to match the words to the definitions, so that they can really comprehend the situations that appear in the following activity.

Words in action

E. The phrasal verbs below are in the story above. Read the text again and match their definitions according to what you have read.

1. To wind up ( ) to allow to descend
2. To let down ( ) to remove by or as if by cutting
3. To poke out ( ) to come or bring to a finish; end
4. To chop off ( ) to attract someone
5. To lure up ( ) to discern, make out

Next, students have to produce descriptions of situations in pictures, by using the phrasal verbs and the verb tense practiced, since these pictures present scenes from the fairy tale in focus.

F. The pictures below represent some scenes from the text. Use the phrasal verbs from exercise E to say what happens in each image.

Task one, then, contains contextualized inductive grammar presentation, as well meaningful practice of the linguistic pattern highlighted in the activity.

Task 2

In Task 2, we find an activity that is contextualized by a text that is a tour leaflet of the city of London. The task is introduced by the following words:

> William spent his summer vacations in London for the first time in 2012. When he arrived at Clink Hostel, the receptionist gave him the leaflet below. Take a look at the tour guide below:

After presenting the leaflet, the grammar work is proposed. First, some sentences are extracted from the leaflet and presented for analysis. The author, then, presents a sequence of questions that inductively leads the learners to notice both the form and the use of superlatives in English, leading to the formulation of a rule relative to this grammar topic.

2) Look at the utterances below, taken from the leaflet:

the most important events
the best bars and nightclubs
the oldest buildings
the most majestic views

a) Circle the nouns, as shown in the example: "*the most important events"*
b) What words modify the word "events" in the given example?
c) What words modify the word "views" in the example "the most majestic views"?
d) How can we describe this pattern that modifies nouns? ____ + _____ + _____ + noun
e) What is the difference in meaning between "majestic views" and "the most majestic views"?
f) Why do you think we can find such structures in tour guides?
g) Now, take a look at the example "the oldest buildings". Can you apply the same pattern to this case?
h) If not, what is the pattern? _____ + _____ + noun
i) Now, according to what you have answered, complete the rules in the chart:

ADJECTIVE	RULE	EXAMPLE
(one syllable) **old**	the + adjective + _____	**The oldest** buildings.
(two or more syllables) **important**	the + _____ + adjective	**The most important** events.
(irregular) **good**	_	**The best** bars and nightclubs.

The language practice uses an authentic material and requires expression of meaning by the learner as well as comprehension of the linguistic topic. However, it could be made even more meaningful if the

instruction had been better devised so as to include the character *William* and a situation in which he would 'really' produce such language.

3) The following map was also given to William by the receptionist:

a) _____ is _____ (big) park in town.
b) _____ is _____ (famous) church in the city.
c) _____ is _____ (high) Ferris Wheel in the world.
d) _____ is _____ (close) tube station to The Tower of London.
e) _____ is _____ (good) neighborhood to stay in if you want to go shopping at Piccadilly Circus.

The activities presented and discussed here are examples of how teachers could approach the teaching of grammar for communicative purposes getting learners into noticing the connection between form and use. Grammar is also introduced in an inductive way, which is believed, apart from facilitating learning by leading learners to notice regularities underlying language use, makes possible retaining longer the acquired knowledge. Meaningful practice also encourages learning, providing further chances of experimenting and negotiating meaning through real use.

4. Final Remarks

Grammar is more than a set of rules that has to be memorized; in fact, grammar is what enables us to get our meanings across in communication. Grammar practice should not be based on the instantiation of isolated, meaningless sets of sentences; neither should its practice be detached from real language use. Teaching grammar is more than teaching rules; it must be approached with a focus on fostering learners' development of a system, which will ultimately be used to produce well-formed and coherent stretches of discourse.

Language teachers should be aware of the myths and beliefs that learners bring to the classroom and be open to adapt and produce material to provide grammar instruction. If teachers are aware of the role of grammar in language learning and use, they will be better prepared to provide instruction that will guide learners into noticing patterns of form and use by approaching the grammar/discourse interface. If teachers approach grammar this way and provide instruction that is meaningful and targets real language use, chances are that learners will demystify grammar and begin to see it as a tool for effective communication.

Approached adequately, grammar might not be considered boring, meaningless, unattainable, restricted in scope, or closed in its own dimension. If learners, especially the ones that are teachers of the language themselves, are presented with reasons, motivations of various kinds, behind patterns and forms of the target language they are studying, and if learners/teachers are given the chance to discuss patterns as part of a complex system in which grammar and discourse are integrated, they would be better equipped with elements to promote or have language reflection and practice that are more motivating, consistent and effective. This way, the beliefs that learners do not know grammar, that the structures are meaningless, or the feeling of being left with sentence rules to memorize can be diminished to a great extent. And then we will probably hear "I hate grammar" many fewer times.

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In the chapter entitled *Teaching Oral Skills in English as a Foreign Language* Carneiro and Oliveira stress that certain elements of oral discourse need to be explicitly taught on formal instruction to assure students` development. Thus, an outline of the principles underlying the teaching of oral skills is clearly presented. The chapter contains valuable references to online tools that can be used by English teachers when planning activities to develop oral skills. The authors also offer a sample of an in-class activity, giving language teachers a proper model on how to effectively address the pragmatic elements in their classes.

Climene Arruda and Laura Miccoli

Teaching Oral Skills in English as a Foreign Language

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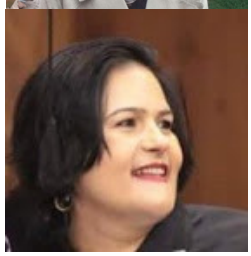


A theoretical overview on oral communication

Oral communication is an interactive and dynamic process. It involves the effective comprehension and exchange of facts, thoughts, feelings and values. People actively and consciously engage in oral communication so as to achieve mutual understanding. In other words, communication involves the exchange of potential meanings between speakers and listeners, ultimately aiming at reaching an understanding. Both listening and speaking skills are involved in effective communication, and it is almost impossible to distinguish both when interaction is involved (RAHMAN, 2010; NATION, 2011).

Most second/foreign language (L2) learners study English to develop proficiency in speaking, that is, to communicate through oral language. For many L2 learners, success in their attempts to learn the language is evaluated in terms of their perceived improvement in their spoken L2 proficiency. Speaking in a second language is a complex task, since it is used for many

different purposes, requiring different sub-skills. We may speak to interact socially, to engage in discussion, to express opinions or to share knowledge. Each purpose implies knowledge of the rules related to the contextual factors in which speech occurs, the speakers involved and their roles and relationship, and the activity the speakers engage in (RICHARDS; RENANDYA, 2002; RICHARDS, 2008).

Despite its perceived relevance for communication, the role of speaking in language learning has varied throughout the recent history of L2 methodologies. In traditional methodologies, especially in audiolingual and other drill-based methods that prevailed in the 1960 and 1970's, the syllabus centered on grammar structures while speaking consisted of 'repeating after the teacher'. The emergence of communicative language teaching (CLT) in the 1980's brought a change in the syllabus of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses, built around the notion of functions, skills and other non-grammatical patterns of organization (RICHARDS, 2008). Learning a language was then seen as acquiring communicative competence, that is, the knowledge of language use and the ability to use language (HYMES, 1972). In addition to building competence for communicating in the L2, fluency also became a goal, with learners developing communication strategies to develop oral skills despite limited proficiency.

Linguistic research has provided insights into the nature of spoken interaction, and also on how learners develop fluency in an L2. Based on such insights and taking into account the different aims and skills needed, approaches have been proposed to assist teachers and material designers to provide instructional materials to guide learners in their learning process. It is thus necessary to recognize the different functions speaking entails for daily communication in order to cater for learners' needs (RICHARDS: RENANDYA, 2002). The aim of this chapter is to outline the principles underlying the teaching of oral skills. As we do that, we will also discuss some teachers' resources and classroom activities related to the development of oral communication that may be adopted to reach different communicative purposes. In the next section, the theoretical framework of the chapter will be presented.

1. Describing spoken language

Spoken language has marked features, with clear implications for teaching. Luoma (2004) highlights some of these features, which include idea units (short phrases and clauses); vague or generic words when compared to written language; slips and errors due to online processing; fixed phrases, fillers and hesitation markers, in addition to variation in terms of formality, which reflects speaker roles, purpose and context.

In spoken language, fixed expressions or routines contribute to the quality and naturalness of discourse. Such routines help people start and end conversations, move from one topic to another, interrupt conversations, leave a party and try on clothes, to name some. Examples include 'You look great today'; 'I see what you mean' and 'just looking, thanks' (RICHARDS, 2008). Fixed phrases may also serve the purpose of providing a response, such as 'I thought you'd never ask'. These phrases have the same formula, with one slot to be filled with words. They are known as lexical phrases, and are easy to be used since they are retrieved automatically in a given situation, providing learners with a ready-made phrase and time to plan ahead. Examples include 'What a nice/horrible thing to say' (LUOMA, 2004).

Fillers or hesitation markers are used to create time to speak and include expressions such as 'sort of', 'you know' and 'let me see'. Another strategy is to repeat what has just been said or what has been said by the previous speaker in order to keep the floor and gain time to formulate what to say next. These expressions are common in native speaker speech, but need to be introduced to L2 learners.

Oral speech contains a considerable number of slips and errors, including wrong word choice and mispronounced words, even in the speakers' mother tongue (L1). In L2 speech, such errors may be evidence of lack of knowledge or processing problems (LUOMA, 2004). We should highlight that slips and errors, hesitations, false starts, repetition and formulaic phrases are considered features of oral discourse, both in L1 and L2. The EFL teacher needs to take this into account when planning instruction and assessing learners' oral production.

In the next section we present and discuss how the features and purposes of oral discourse may be translated into approaches to teaching oral skills in the EFL classroom.

2. Functions of oral discourse

Speaking may serve different purposes, as mentioned in the first section. Richards (2008) adopts and expands Brown and Yule's framework, considering three main purposes for speaking activity, namely talk as interaction, talk as transaction and talk as performance. Since each speaking activity requires different forms and conveys different functions, different teaching approaches are needed. We will discuss each one in turn.

2.1 Talk as interaction

In spoken interaction, 'two or more people talk to each other about things that they think are mutually interesting and relevant in the situation (LUOMA, 2004, p. 20)'. People talk to each other to pass the time, share opinions, get something done, entertain themselves, to mention some possibilities. What is important to note is that participants take different roles when interacting, being both a speaker and a listener, constructing the speech event together. In other words, talk as interaction serves a primarily social function (LUOMA, 2004; RICHARDS, 2008). Features of talk as interaction include and are not limited to the use of conversational conventions, the use of generic words and the use of conversational register, reflect speaker's identity and comprise varying degrees of formality (RICHARDS, 2008).

Examples of talk as interaction include the small talk that is common when people meet casually at a party, when they interact with a passenger sitting next to them, or when two friends meet and talk over coffee. This kind of talk has the purpose of making and maintaining social contact, oiling the social wheels, thus making part of anyone's social life. Willis (2015) argues that L2 teachers need to raise learners' awareness of the features of interaction and help them understand why conversation develops the way it does. Only then will learners be able to move from classroom practice to use language in the real world.

Richards (2008, p. 23) lists the skills that may be involved in social interaction:

- Opening and closing conversations
- Choosing topics
- Making small-talk
- Joking
- Recounting personal incidents and experiences
- Turn-taking
- Using adjacency pairs
- Interrupting
- Reacting to others
- Using an appropriate style of speaking

Even though talk as interaction may not be a priority for some EFL learner, those who need this ability may find it difficult to engage in interaction and thus avoid situations that require this kind of talk. EFL learners need to develop a wide range of topics in order to manage interaction (RICHARDS, 2008). The EFL teacher should have a clear idea of the features of conversation, and this should be translated into instruction. Samples of language that are close to real conversation may be brought to classroom and learners could be encouraged to identify features of spoken interaction, such as repetitions, hesitations, discourse markers and vague language (WILLIS, 2015). The following example, taken from the MICASE[13] corpus, illustrates this fact:

S1: hello...
S9: hi. [S1: hi] how are you today?
S1: i'm okay, how are you?
S9: i have a camera to give back to you.
S1: okay, good...
S9: at least i hope i have a camera
S1: the number?
S9: seven

The previous interaction took place in a service encounter environment at the campus of an American University. The two students, S1 and S9, greet each other and then talk about a camera. The first part of the interaction involves the routine of greeting each other with formulaic language, followed

[13] MICASE: Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English, available at: http://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/c/corpus/corpus?page=home;c=micase;cc=micase

by a change in topic, which is the return of a camera. The interaction goes on with incomplete and vague language, including ‘the number’, instead of a complete question, and expressions of acknowledgment, such as ‘okay, good’.

Teachers should not only raise learners’ awareness of specific features of spontaneous language and how these are realized in English but also create conditions for meaningful use in the classroom (WILLIS, 2015). The EFL teacher may resort to recorded dialogues from EFL textbooks, excerpts from movies and TV shows, and many other resources of more spontaneous interaction available for use.

2.2- Talk as transaction

Often considered as the other end of talk as interaction, talk as transaction refers to the speech whose aim is to exchange information on a given topic. The focus is on the message and making oneself understood, and not on creating social connections. Examples of such talks include policemen talking to witnesses, doctors talking to patients, teachers talking to students, group discussion and problem-solving activities, asking for directions on the street, ordering food and buying goods in a shop (LUOMA, 2004; RICHARDS, 2008). Such transactions involve ‘establishing common ground, giving the information in bite-sized chunks, logical progression, questions, repetitions and comprehension checks to help speakers reach this aim (LUOMA, 2004, p. 23)’.

The main features of talk as interaction include the use of communication strategies to make oneself understood, negotiation and digression, the use of frequent questions, repetitions, comprehension checks and a focus on conveying the message. The following excerpt from a Statistics in Social Science lecture, taken from MICASE, illustrates the features of talk as transaction:

S3: um, just one question
S1: sure
S3: i got that so far there's only one more coefficient this this thing that's always point-nine-nine-something. i didn't quite get what that meant.
S1: oh oh you mean this this the the round thing over here on the left? is that what you're talking about?
S5: no

S3: uh the uh, (xx)
S1: oh that oh oh sorry okay i i didn't even, really talk about this. um... when you do an analysis, and you wanna, you want to, estimate how good is my model? then you would be looking at the R-square figure right? […]

Three people take part in this interaction, S1, the lecturer, and S3 and S5, two students. S3 asks a question, checking what he/she has understood and asking for further clarification. S1 then goes on to answer the question. Repetitions, hesitation and vague language can also be seen in the excerpt, which are features of spoken spontaneous language.

The skills involved in talking as transaction and that are usually practiced in the EFL classroom are describing something, asking questions, confirming information, making suggestions, checking understanding, agreeing and disagreeing. Those skills are often the focus of most EFL textbooks, but teachers must and should raise learners' awareness to the features of oral spontaneous language so that they are equipped with the resources to engage in effective oral communication outside the classroom.

2.3- Talk as performance

The third type of talk is the one commonly found in lectures, presentations and speeches, in which a speaker transmits information before an audience. It often has a recognizable format and tends to be in the form of a monolog, bearing some resemblance to written language. Its effectiveness or impact on the audience may be evaluated, which does not usually happen with talk as transaction or interaction. Examples of talk as performance include class reports on a given topic, class debate, lecture and speech.

The focus of talk as performance is both on the message and the audience, and form and accuracy are equally important for the effectiveness of such talk. Its sequence and organization is often predictable, making it easily recognizable. The skills that should be developed in the classroom are the use of correct pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, the presentation of information in an appropriate sequence and format, the creation of a positive effect on the audience and the maintenance of audience engagement (RICHARDS,2008).

An example of talk as performance can be seen in the following excerpt from a university lecture, taken from Yale online courses website[14]:

Professor Diana E. E. Kleiner: *Welcome to Roman Architecture. I'm Professor Kleiner, and what I'd like to do today is to give you a sense of some of the great buildings and some of the themes that we will be studying together this semester. I think it's important to note, from the outset, that Roman architecture is primarily an architecture of cities. The Romans structured a man-made, worldwide empire out of architectural forms, and those architectural forms revolutionized the ancient world and exerted a lasting influence on the architecture and the architects of post-classical times. […]*

The lecturer started by introducing herself and presented the topic of the lecture by saying 'what I'd like to do today is'. This is one example of a lexical bundle that can be used to introduce the topic of a lecture or presentation (BIBER, 2006). Such organizational features and their related lexical structure is one of the issues that learners need to be aware when preparing for practicing talk as performance.

As Nation (2011) argued, it is a kind of talk that needs to be taught, since it is a language skill that is not typically used. Teachers need to prepare learners for the task by raising their awareness to the linguistic and organizational features of a given spoken text. Considerations regarding the purpose of the talk, the audience and audience expectations should also be given equal importance in the EFL classroom[15].

In the next section we discuss and present tools that can be used by the English language teacher when planning activities that aim to develop oral skills, including talk as interaction, transaction and performance. Some tools also involve reading and writing practice, providing an integration of skills.

[14] Course website: http://oyc.yale.edu/history-art/hsar-252
Transcript available at: http://oyc.yale.edu/transcript/379/hsar-252
[15]For a more detailed approach to teaching talk as performance, see Richards (2008) and Nation (2009).

3. Online tools for the EFL classroom

In recent years, the growth in the use of computer, Internet and communication tools has unveiled new possibilities for the design and implementation of foreign language learning activities. Paiva and Braga (2010) say that "computers and the internet have brought together all types of communication media known to date", (sound, image, text and video), and informational artifacts including telephone, databanks, newspapers and libraries. In addition, the Internet allows interaction through chat, email and social networking sites. Such technologies can provide access to authentic instances of language, enhance communication among students and speakers of the target language and foster discover-oriented learning as well as cooperative and collaborative learning experiences.

Richards (2014) describes some of the opportunities afforded by technology, especially those that should be carried out outside the classroom. The Internet, social networks and media technology provide greater opportunities for meaningful and authentic language use, which are usually interactive, social and multimodal. Learners can interact with other speakers of the language from different parts of the world through apps that can be downloaded into their mobile devices while on the way to school or work; they can enter game sites and play online video games which require them to understand written and oral language and also interact with other players; they can watch TV or videos with the possibility of resorting to subtitles or captions and post comments related to video content; they can write blogs or create webpages and profiles in social networks and produce written and oral language with a targeted community of speakers in mind.

When English is used as the medium for interaction, learners develop communicative skills. Chat rooms are such one example. The advantage of chat rooms and also chat apps in which users can either text or speak is that they are free from the face-to-face stress and fear resulting from learners' limited proficiency. As a consequence, interactions are in a greater quantity and of a better quality. As Richards (2014) points out, the interaction in chat rooms may raise students awareness of the language being used by participants and provide chances for self-repair and negotiation of meaning.

Moreover, what might have started with the aim of learning language may evolve into incidental learning when the learner 'switches the focus of attention to communication, enjoyment or learning something other than the language itself (BENSON, 2011; RICHARDS, 2014, p.6).'

When learners engage in experiences with the language, such as playing online games, they are likely to be in contact with comprehensible input and output and interactional processes that may support overall language development, and not only a specific skill. Learners may develop their reading, listening and vocabulary skills by reading and listening to the commentaries and narration during game play. The same can be said for online resources, which, in addition to providing a variety of written and spoken texts, may have features that support the development of a variety of skills. TedTalk is one example, just like YouTube. The difference between the two is that learners select from one particular register – the talk.

Because digital media and apps are part of learners' life outside the classroom, they can relate such activities to language learning, which can thus be perceived as a valid and authentic activity. Authenticity is also a feature of the language learners find, as opposed to the teacher discourse and specially written texts usually found in textbooks and teaching materials. Finally, autonomous learning is fostered when learners decide on what they will watch, play or read, which strategies they need to use to help them perform and how they are going to organize and manage their own learning.

Next, we present some online tools that can be used to assist learners' development of oral communication skills. Some of them include the possibility of developing written language as well, integrating the skills. This list is just an initial suggestion; there are several other tools available online that can be used to develop oral language.

Edpuzzle - https://edpuzzle.com/ EduCanon and Edpuzzle are tools that allow teachers to create interactive videos by embedding questions at certain points in the video for comprehension check and/or to encourage discussion.

Singsnap online karaoke - http://www.singsnap.com/ By creating a free account users can sing and record karaoke music. User can also chat with members and be part of the community of karaoke singers.

Ted Ed - http://ed.ted.com/ Learners can watch hundreds of talks on a variety of topics share opinions on a talk and post written comments. They can select talks based on their length, genre and difficulty level. They can also read captions and translations if needed.

Fotobabble - http://www.fotobabble.com/ Fotobabble lets you upload photos, narrate them and share with your friends.

Photoface – http://host-d.oddcast.com/php/application_UI/doorId=357/clientId=1/ This tool allows users to create and customize avatars or their own photos, add audio and share with friends.

Voki – http://www.voki.com/ This tool creates and customizes avatars and ALLOWS YOU TO add you own voice.

Knovio – http://www.knovio.com/ This tool is ideal for presentations, integrating written and oral language practice. Users can upload PowerPoint presentations and record their voice. The oral presentations can then be shared.

Lingt – http://lingtlanguage.com/ Lingt is especially designed for language practice. Teachers create a task with input that can be written or oral. Learners can respond by typing or recording their own voice. The tool also allows teachers to send individual feedback for students.

Skype - https://www.skype.com/en One of the most used free tool for chatting and sharing files, in addition to other features such as text chat and screen sharing.

PowToon - https://www.powtoon.com/ Great tool for creating animated presentations.

Xtranormal - http://www.xtranormal.com/ This tool allows you to create animated movies with narration.

Vídeonot.es - http://www.videonot.es/ Learners can take notes synchronized with video, integrating listening and writing.

In the next section, we will present a brief theoretical framework on oral communication from a pragmatic perspective. We will also illustrate this theoretical foundation with a sample of an in-class activity.

4. The Pragmatics of Oral Communication

As we have attempted to emphasize in the first sections of this chapter, there are certain elements that need to be explicitly taught before embarking on formal instruction of oral language. For example, it is important to raise awareness of the broad rules that govern social interaction and of the rules for listening and for speaking, as well as to develop student's perception of how different meanings can be put across through non-verbal behaviors.

In oral communication, the immediate social context is of paramount importance. Since Pragmatics is the study of language in context, it implies analyzing the participants of a given event, together with the communicative intent on focus (CRUSE, 2006). This linguistic theory attempts to explain how speakers and hearers use language for social purposes: 'how humans do things with words' (AUSTIN, 1962). According to Austin´s Speech Act Theory, three components are simultaneously present in a Speech Act:

1- *Locution*: the actual wording of the message.

2- Ilocution: what the speaker means to convey.

3- *Perlocution*: the hearer's reaction to the speaker's message. In the Speech Act Theory, while a locutionary act has a semantic *meaning*, an illocutionary act has a pragmatic *force*. For example, if one utters: It is cold outside', it is very likely that this utterance was devised to perform an indirect request, possibly a suggestion or an order ('; 'Let´s stay in').

The ability to read intentions lies at the heart of identifying the illocutionary force of an utterance. It is also very much attached to shared knowledge and to cultural background, together with language proficiency.

That said, in order to teach speaking and listening skills, it is important to create awareness of how conversation works in contexts of real use. One way to do this is to consider the rules to be observed in oral communication

(COHEN, 1996; PARDIYONO, 2006; VANDERGRIY, 2012). These rules are often unconscious, for example:

Turn Taking: Students need to recognize pauses in a conversation where they can take the turn, interrupt, ask a question or change the topic.

Holding the floor: the person who is currently speaking is the person who 'holds the floor'.

Understanding contextual and non-linguistic clues: during conversations, speakers and listeners use eye contact, body language, gestures, pauses and intonation to judge when a new interlocutor can take the floor, can keep (or break) the flow of conversation, and to signal the main focus of the communicative exchange.

Using adjacent Pairs: these are sequences of two utterances next to each other, produced by two different speakers (a question and an answer, a greeting and a response).

Making repairs: repair takes place when speakers have to "fix" their output. Sometimes the listener can seek a repair through facial expression or body language, or he can check for meaning clarification by asking a question such as "Excuse-me, what do you mean by X?"

In order to experience real oral communication practices in the classroom, students can be encouraged to:

- *Re-tell stories in sequence*
- **Attend a lecture and encourage note-taking**
- *Complete cloze type activities or unfinished or stories*
- *Conduct interviews with native and non-native speakers*
- *Listen to songs, poetry, music and ebooks*

Contextual knowledge about oral communication is thus fashioned by social situations. Not only by 'what we say', but also by 'how we say' things. For instance, in a job interview, neither interviewees nor interviewers simply say what comes to their minds. Rather, the 'routine of interviews' governs what each one says and how they say it (COHEN, 1996; PARDIYONO, 2006; VANDERGRIY, 2012).

A context of culture creates various oral genres, with specific communicative purposes, text structure, and certain linguistic characteristics

(HALLIDAY; MATHIESSEN, 2004). In other words, speakers are supposed to understand the concepts of spoken communication: 'to whom', 'about what', 'when', 'where', 'why' and 'how' they speak. Some examples of oral genres to be addressed in the classroom in order to serve theses purposes of awareness are:

- *Debate*: To persuade the audience about a relevant argument.
- *News Item*: To inform listeners about current events.
- *Funny tales*: To be shared with others as an account of an unusual or amusing situation.
- *Live monologues:* To be presented as a short talk on a pre-selected topic.
- *Oral book /movie reviews*: To be shared with others as valuable cultural experiences.

These types of classroom activities are aimed at fostering oral skills and at preparing students for real language use. As Mattarima and Hamdan (2006) argue, the teaching of oral communication should also pursue the development of other linguistic competences involved in the process: (a) social cultural competence (language expression based on the community context); (b) strategic competence (problem solving in the communicative exchange) and (c) discursive competence (related to how stretches of language can be organized to impart a cohesive and coherent message).

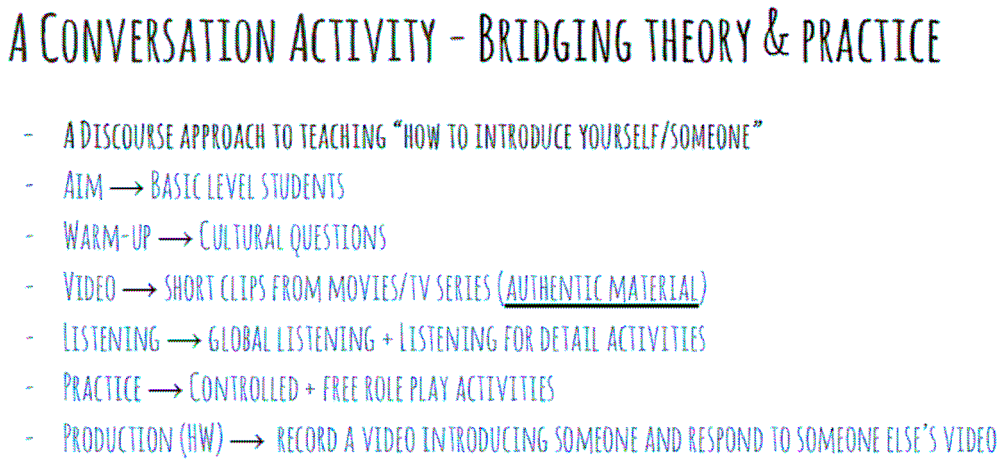
Taking these competences into account, and the fact that they can be fostered in formal educational contexts, in the next section we will present an in-class activity designed to develop student's oral skills associated with daily encounters.

4.1- The case of 'meeting for the first time'

A crucial aspect in the materials intended to teach oral communication is that they sometimes underrepresent real language use, particularly in the context of daily exchanges. English textbooks, many times, dictate some teaching and learning processes at the expense of the development of students' competencies, basic skills, attitudes and intentions. To diminish the impact of more controlled activities, a situational approach may be implemented in the classroom. This comprises real language practice,

spontaneous oral production and meaningful communicative exchange. Having these goals in mind, an activity was prepared based on a very common feature in the teaching of oral communication at basic levels: the 'meeting for the first time' language repertoire.

This activity[16] (Figure 1) was designed in order to foster student's awareness of how oral communication is held in contexts of real use. It was based on movie scenes, available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NeEJhW0_gqA[17]. It was designed to basic level students engaging in daily life conversation.



[16]This in-class activity was developed by the students of a Diploma Course from a Federal University in Brazil (http://150.164.100.248/cei/), in a course entitled 'The teaching of Oral Genres', conducted in 2015, by one of the authors. It aimed at promoting pragmatic awareness of colloquial oral exchanges. We are especially thankful to Ana Flora Borin, Anna Grant, Carolina Rocha, Patrícia Viana, Rafael Rocha and Túlio Santos for having shared this task with us.

[17] Accessed on 16 September, 2016.

VIDEO TRANSCRIPT - MORE 'REALISTIC' EXAMPLES

A: I'm Vicky.
B: Hi Vicky. **Nice to meet you.**
A: **Nice to meet you!**

A: Aaron, Cristina Yang.
B: **Nice to meet you**, dr. Yang. I'm Aaron Karev.
C: **Oh-my-God.**

A: Mom, this is Kate.
B: Hi.
C: **Nice to meet you.**
B: **And you.**

A: Ryan, this is Kitty.
Kitty, this is Ryan.
B: **Hi.**
C: **Hi.**

A: Oh, hi!
B: Hi. C: Hi. B: Hi. C: Hi.
A: Hi?
A: **I'm your new neighbor, Penny.**
B: **Leonard. Sheldon.**
A: Hi! B: Hi. C: Hi. A: Hi.
B: **Well… welcome to the building!**
A: Oh, thank you!

A: I'm Jason… McCallister. Bob's younger brother
B: **Oh my God!**
A: You're Kitty.
B: Yeah. Oh, God, **it's so great to finally meet you!**
A: **It's so nice to meet you.**

A: Hey, Samuel! This is Molly. Molly, Samuel.
B: **Nice to meet you Samuel.**
C: **The pleasure is mine!**

A: Oh, this is Molly. She's a friend of mine.
B: Hi, I'm Molly. *Mike's friend.*
C: **Nice to meet you.**
B: ***Nice to meet you.***

REFLECTIVE QUESTIONS

HOW DOES THIS ACTIVITY DIFFER FROM TRADITIONAL TEXTBOOKS?

REGARDING:

- LINGUISTIC VARIETY (E.G. REGISTER)
- CULTURAL BACKGROUND (E.G. BODY POSTURE, DISTANCE, CONTACT)
- VARIETY OF SOCIAL CONTEXT
- HOW DO THEY PREPARE STUDENTS FOR REAL-LIFE, UNEXPECTED SITUATIONS?

Figure 1: Excerpts from the 'meeting for the first time' activity.

The 'meeting for the first time activity' presents situations of real communication, as opposed to 'created sentences and structures', traditionally found in tasks intended to practice oral skills. This kind of approach clearly addresses incomplete utterances, false starts, back channel clues, repetition and fragmented speech, as inherent to oral speech.

5. Final remarks

The aim of this chapter was to delineate the principles underlying the teaching of oral skills. While we did that, we also presented and analyzed some teachers' resources associated with the development of oral communication. As we conclude this text, we should call attention to the fact that, by selecting materials from various sources and by adjusting them according to learners' needs, teachers become more apt to develop a well-designed syllabus that can foster situated oral communication.

As oral skills are more fluid, classroom materials should always be revised and updated, so that they can remain attractive and effective. It is also very important to ensure that classroom materials are made responsive to the social demands of contemporary times, including digital tools and, first and foremost, a strong bond to real language use.

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In this chapter, Junia de Carvalho Fidelis Braga, Luciana de Oliveira Silva and Ronaldo Correa Gomes Junior provide an overview of CALL and MALL-related technology resources in association with two different theoretical frameworks. The authors also present interesting suggestions of digital tools that can serve pedagogical purposes. The chapter allows for language teachers to become more aware of the use of technology in language education, as it also encourages them to adapt and customize these resources, according to their needs.

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CALL & MALL: using technology to achieve educational objectives in the language classroom

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Introduction

The use of technology in education is not new, especially when we consider that technology speaks to the pedagogical tools mediating knowledge and learner (BELLONI, 2003). Not too long ago, these included the blackboard, the chalk, and the book, to name but three. Later came the TV set, the VCR, and so on. The computer followed suit with a prominent role in education, drawing teachers' attention to global issues (WARSCHAUER; HEALEY, 1998).

The language classroom has largely benefited from these advances and the language lab has experienced a new lease on life with the advent of

computers (SALABERRY, 2001). Studies on the use of computer in language learning have gained their own field (MARTINS; MOREIRA, 2012) and CALL (Computer-assisted language learning) has spawned a great deal of research in the USA and in Europe, mainly. CALL-dedicated books and journals, as well as events, have cropped up around the world. MALL later emerged as a new study area and a new way of learning, expanding educational boundaries through mobility.

This article provides an overview of CALL and MALL-related technology resources associated with two different frameworks that promote purposeful pedagogy. It will be divided into three main parts: (1) a brief history of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), (2) an articulation between Bloom's revisited taxonomy and Learning-by-Design (KALANTZIS; COPE, 2012), and (3) suggestions of digital tools for these two frameworks.

1. A bird's-eye view of CALL and MALL

Several definitions for CALL can be conjured up, all of which quite similar. Levy (1997) states that CALL may be defined as the study of computer applications in language teaching and learning. To Chapelle (2001), CALL is widely used to refer to the area of technology and second language teaching and learning, and in a later publication (CHAPELLE, 2005), she sees it as a wide range of activities and tasks that can be associated with technology and language learning. Egbert (2005) relates CALL to the use of computers to support language teaching and learning in general. The most comprehensive definition, however, is that presented by Garret (2009), who views CALL as a complex dynamic integration between technology, theory, and pedagogy.

Considered a young branch of Applied Linguistics (CHAPELLE, 2006), CALL is interdisciplinary and related to several other knowledge fields (CHAPELLE, 1997; LEVY, 1997) like Psychology, Instructional Design, Artificial Intelligence and Cognitive Science, to name a few. The acronym was first used in the 1980s, both in North America and in Europe (CHAPELLE,

2005), but others soon came along, like CALI (Computer-assisted Language Instruction), TELL (Technology Enhanced Language Learning), NBLT (Network-based Language Teaching), CELL (Computer-enhanced Language Learning) and TMLL (Technology-mediated Language Learning). To Levy and Hubbard (2005), so many acronyms are an attempt by different groups to exert power, influence, and authority. Preference for CALL is justified, they say, because it is a widespread term used in books, papers, conferences, and magazines alike for the last 30 years. Moreover, they agree that CALL perfectly defines what the field stands for.

The use of computers in language learning has seen different stages of language learning theories. These theories reflected the beliefs about language learning and were determined by economic and social changes. Because of that, CALL has been perceived in three overlapping phases (WARSCHAUER; HEALEY, 1998; KERN; WARSCHAUER, 2000). Behaviorist CALL spanned the time when the audio-lingual method was widely used, i.e. in the 1960s and 1970s. Drills and intensive practice were then key features and the computer was used as a tutor, with no feedback or interactive components (MORAS, 2001). Butler-Pascoe (2012) draws attention to programmed instruction in this phase, which emphasized feedback, reinforcement, and self-pacing, underpinning the learning process; and applied to particular language areas like morphology, lexis, and syntax. This phase, according to Souza (2004), is characterized by the interest in CALL as an investigative field, even if unreachable because of high costs.

Communicative CALL, related to the Communicative approach, emerged in the late 1970s and early 1980s and emphasized skill practice in a non-drill format (language games, reading, and text reconstruction), focusing on usage rather than on the forms themselves (MORAS, 2001), teaching grammar implicitly rather than explicitly, with students being encouraged to generate unique statements, and the predominant use of the target language (YANG, 2010). In this phase, according to Moras (2001), the computer (PC) was still but a tutor - despite giving students choices, control, and interaction - used as an additional resource in class (SOUZA, 2004). Warschauer and

Healey (1998) reinforce that communicative CALL did not focus on what students did with the machine. Rather, their interactions while working on the computer were more important.

The third phase, Integrative CALL, sought to integrate both skills (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and technology into the language learning process (YANG, 2010). It relied on multimedia computers and on the Internet, associating text, graphics, sound, animation, and video (MORAS, 2001). Integrative CALL is the result of a change from a cognitive view of communicative teaching to a more social or socio-cognitive view, according to Warschauer and Healey (1998). To these authors, this change placed more emphasis on language use in authentic social environments and on skill integration using task-based, project-based, and content-based approaches.

Since then, CALL has benefited from the expansion of the Internet, for implementation of new resources and for research development alike. New digital tools and possibilities are available for students to engage in direct contact with speakers of other languages, searching for potential learning relationships. This, according to Chapelle (2009), leads to telecollaborative pedagogies which are favorable for learner's linguistic and intercultural competence development. Telecollaboration is, according to Guth and Helm (2010), the engagement of learners in virtual contact with people from different locations using synchronous and asynchronous online communication tools.

CALL brings many advantages to language learning but it is worth mentioning that it is not a substitute for language teachers, as Tafazoli and Golshan (2014) suggest. Language teachers, according to the authors, are expected to make use of technology and have projects that motivate students to use technology as part of their routines outside the classroom, especially with the ubiquity of smartphones and mobile applications. Thus, as a sequel to CALL, MALL[18] (Mobile Assisted Language Learning) is the new study area briefly explained in the next paragraphs.

[18] In this chapter MALL and m-learning will be used interchangeably.

The growing infiltration of smartphones in our society and their features that hold the capacity for language learning such as Internet connectivity, SMS text-messaging, capturing and recording video, voice-messaging, have drawn attention of researchers and teachers. These features allow interacting, messaging, and accessing online resources like dictionaries, videos, and other media anytime, anywhere.

Kukulska-Hulme (2015) claims that language learning is one of the areas that have benefitted the most from mobile learning most of the time. According to the researcher (p.281), one of the reasons is “the nature of language learning content which largely lends itself to being divided up into portions that are suitable for access on mobile devices”. Other key points include the “relative ease with which audio-visual media may be utilized to create a portable, flexible learning experience, and the fact that ‘non-formal and informal education play a key role for language learning” (p.281). Kukulska-Hulme (2015), quoting Kenning (2007), highlighted that mobile technologies support opportunities for situated language learning in real-world settings.

Four concepts underpin mobile learning, namely: pedagogy, mobile devices, context, and social interaction. Relying on these concepts, Crompton, Muilenburg and Berge (2013, p. 4) define mobile learning as “learning across multiple contexts, through social and context interactions, using personal electronic devices”. Just as in CALL, MALL discussions stem from the assumption that teachers appropriate technologies from their own contextual demand to meet the goals of their pedagogical proposal.

Thus, we present two frameworks: Bloom’s taxonomy revisited in 2001 and Learning-by-Design (KALANTZIS; COPE, 2012). These frameworks may serve as a starting point to promote different ways of knowing, as well as a robust literacy pedagogy. Our purpose in articulating these models with technology is to suggest that the appropriation of a given digital tool in the language classroom is conditioned to the pedagogic purposes of the learning activity and the knowledge-making it intends to build.

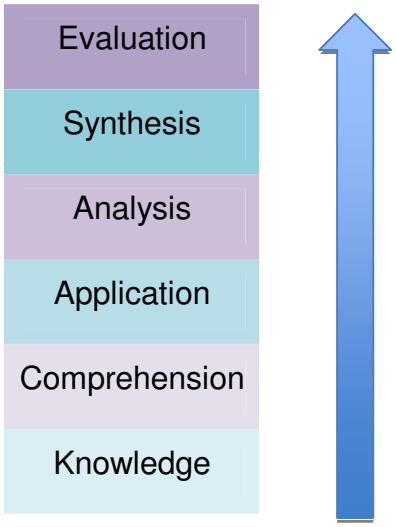
2. Bloom's taxonomy and its revisitation

Bloom's taxonomy of Educational Objectives was created in 1956. This proposal had three basic organizational principles. Firstly, in the author's perspective, great importance had to be given to educational principles and, in order to foster communication among teachers, some educational distinctions had to be underscored. Secondly, the taxonomy had to have a logical classification, which means that the terms needed to be accurately defined and coherently used. Thirdly, the theories and principles of the taxonomy had to be psychologically significant and accepted. In addition, neutrality and comprehensiveness were also underlying principles of this categorization.

According to Bloom (1956), learning involves three domains: the cognitive, the affective, and the psychomotor. The first part of his taxonomy is based on the cognitive domain, as "it includes those objectives which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills" (p. 7). The initial focus on human cognition was because most studies in curriculum development focused on that domain at that time and because it associated students' behavior and learning objectives more clearly.

Bloom's original taxonomy contained six major classes: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. The order of these classes reflect the thinking process, from lower to higher order thinking skills, as the following picture illustrates.

Figure 1 – Bloom's original taxonomy

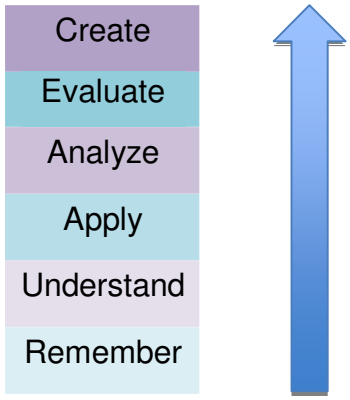


Source: created by the authors

In this continuum, the lower levels offer a base for the higher levels of learning. According to McDavitt (1994), in Lower Order Thinking (LOT), students are asked to learn through memorization, reciting, recalling, identifying, or employing rules. Knowledge, Comprehension and Application are considered LOT classes. On the other hand, in Higher Order Thinking (HOT), students are encouraged to "manipulate information and ideas in ways that transform their meaning and implications" (MCDAVITT, 1994, p.8). In HOT practices, learners are invited to use creativity, test hypothesis, solve problems, and produce original, complex materials. Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation are considered HOT classes. Bloom's taxonomy can be considered a hierarchical framework, since the mastering of lower order thinking skills creates bridges and linkages to higher order thinking ones.

Bloom's original taxonomy has been revisited recently and some considerable changes have been made. In the 90s, some specialists got together in order to adapt the taxonomy to the 21st century students that were to come. Among the specialists were "representatives of three groups: cognitive psychologists, curriculum theorists and instructional researchers, and testing and assessment specialists" (ANDERSON et al., 2001, p. xxviii). Three classes were renamed, two had their order changed and nouns were made into verbs to be more properly used as objectives (KRATHWOHL,

2002). This revision also sees the taxonomy as a hierarchy, because the classes are believed to have different levels of complexity. Nevertheless, since this revisitation offers more importance to teacher usage, the hierarchy is not so strictly defined, allowing intersection and overlapping between categories. The revisited taxonomy can be seen in the illustration below. Figure 2 – Bloom's revisited taxonomy



Source: created by the authors

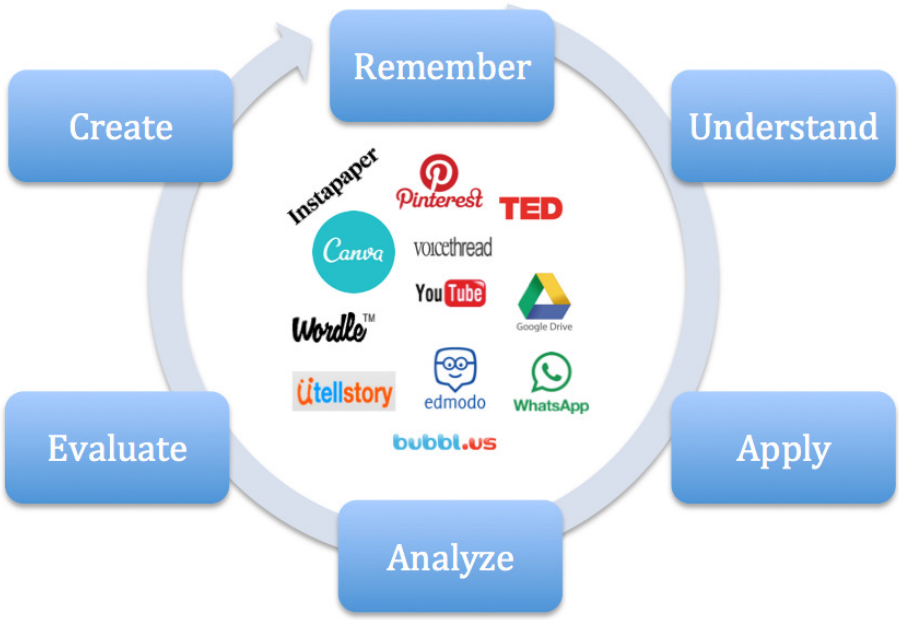
A key characteristic of the new taxonomy is the two-dimensional aspect. One dimension describes the knowledge process, that is, the type of knowledge on which to focus. According to Krathwhol (2002), factual knowledge refers to the basic elements to which students must be introduced in order to solve problems; Conceptual knowledge involves the interconnection among basic elements of a structure that allow them to work together; Procedural knowledge encompasses methods, criteria, and techniques about how to do things; and Metacognitive is basically the knowledge of cognition, the perception and understanding of our own cognition.

The other dimension describes the cognitive process, in other words, how that type of knowledge can be learned. As stated by Krathwhol (2002), Remember means recognizing and recalling important knowledge from memory; Understand involves interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, and explaining oral/written/graphic messages; Apply has to do with executing and implementing procedures in certain situations; Analyze implies differentiating, organizing and attributing

parts of a structure; Evaluate comprises checking and critiquing things based on criteria; and Create means generating, planning and producing original materials. The interaction between these dimensions creates several fruitful intersections, deepening and complexifying the taxonomy.

Bloom's revisited taxonomy can be an effective instrument to integrate CALL and MALL into our practices. Due to the overlaps between dimensions and categories, we have decided to list apps, platforms, and tools based on the classes of the Cognitive Dimension only, since we strongly believe that the dimensions of knowledge are so intertwined that they can be practiced all together using the same software.

Figure 3 – Apps, webtools and Bloom's taxonomy



Source: created by the authors

The first dimension - *Remember* - aims to help students look back and organize knowledge they already know or have started to learn. Curation[19] tools are important applications to be used in the classroom, since they enable learners to create collections of imagetic and verbal content using the

[19] Digital curation refers to the act of gathering, classifying, grouping, and maintaining contents about a specific topics using online platforms.

English language. Pinterest[20] is an online and mobile responsive platform in which users can create, save and share collections (pinboards) of images. Therefore, students could create pinboards to make their own illustrated glossaries, to remember vocabulary relating to specific themes, for instance: “clothing”, “fruit and vegetables”, “transportation”, “furniture”, and so forth. Instapaper[21] is another tool that can be used to remember things. The bookmarking tool allows users to save any web content – articles, videos, webpages etc. – to read later. Thus, when encouraging students to look for content about a certain topic in order to get ready for a reading activity, teachers may suggest using Instapaper, so students can group the investigated materials together and easily access them before and during the activity. Both tools are social networks, too, allowing students to interact and collaborate, while seeing - and participating in - each other’s collections.

In the *Understand* dimension, teachers can use online platforms in activities of oral and/or verbal text interpretation. YouTube[22], for example, offers hundreds of thousands of videos that can be used in and out of the classroom in activities for students to interpret, compare, and summarize ideas using English. Yet, teachers could also post their own videos proposing activities or stimulating a debate. The discussion could take place either in or out of the classroom, since the platform allows users to post comments on the videos. TED[23] is a video platform that contains inspiring and, generally, short talks which could also be used for interpretation tasks. The upside of this service allows choosing the language for the subtitles, having access to the complete video transcript, and downloading the video in MP4 format with subtitles. Both platforms also have the social component, since they enable users to interact with one another, posting comments and sharing content on their social networks, such as Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn. Users can access Youtube and TED by using web browsers on personal computers (PCs) or downloading their mobile apps.

[20] https://br.pinterest.com/
[21] https://www.instapaper.com/
[22] https://www.youtube.com/
[23] https://www.ted.com/

The *Apply* dimension gives students the opportunity to practice what they have been learning. WhatsApp[24] is a mobile instant-message platform that can be accessed on PCs too. Teachers can use it to encourage the practice of English using the four skills integratively. The application allows one-to-one or group interaction, which means that students can text or record messages that will be read or heard by one or many classmates. WhatsApp offers a myriad of possibilities for the language classroom. Offering multiple channels of interaction outside the classroom is but one of its main contributions. Concerning this dimension, the teacher can encourage students to exchange text/oral messages to practice the use of specific pieces of formal or informal language, for instance: introductions, greetings, and farewells in professional and casual interactions; acronyms and abbreviations; multimodal language, such as emoji, and stickers, and so forth. Another platform that can be used for practice is Google Drive[25], which offers online editing of documents, spreadsheets, and slide presentations that can be collaboratively created.

The *Analyze* dimension comprehends not only recalling and recognizing things, but also seeing the relationship between them. Thus, creating mind maps could be an excellent exercise to establish relationships between words and concepts. Bubbl.us [26] is an online tool that allows users to organize ideas in a graph-like format. Using software to conduct this process allows editing and enriching the map countless times, as well as saving and sharing them with others. Since Bubbl.us also enables users to collaborate, students could work collaboratively on each other's diagrams. In the language classroom, the teacher could promote the use of this tool to invite students to study the concepts in texts and articles and analyze characters and facts from a book, for example.

Another tool that can be used to promote analysis inside the classroom is Wordle[27]. The application creates word clouds – graph-like representations

[24] https://web.whatsapp.com/
[25] https://drive.google.com/
[26] https://bubbl.us/
[27] http://www.wordle.net/

of texts in which words are placed together creating a stylized cloud; the bigger a word is the more often it was used in a given text. Thus, teachers could encourage the use of this tool to help students study news articles, for instance, analyzing the frequency a word was used in them and its impact on meaning making.

In the *Evaluate* dimension, students are encouraged to use information they have already investigated and analyzed to check and criticize something. Learning environments can be used to create room for discussion, where students can debate and interact freely or under guidance, inside or outside the school. Edmodo[28] is an online platform by which learners and educators can interact, collaborate, upload, and share files, homework, grades etc. Its interface resembles that of a social network, such as Facebook, but its engines and resources can be more easily controlled and, thus, better suited to educational purposes. Teachers could adopt Edmodo's environment as a place for debate and use its functionalities as evaluating tools. For instance, polls can be created requiring students to collect information on the web, analyze its reliability and validity, and then decide on the best choice. After that, students can be encouraged to defend their point of view by posting comments and mentioning the information they have researched to support their ideas.

VoiceThread [29] is a web-based platform by which teachers can incentivize analysis of a certain topic in order to encourage students to evaluate things and, simultaneously, foster their decision-making skills. After uploading an image, a video, or any other document, users can post comments through text, audio or video. Therefore, teachers could upload a file to initiate a discussion and ask students to reflect and post comments with their evaluation about it. The advantage of this platform is that it affords interactions that support language authenticity and complexity, since the evaluation process can be conducted by using multiple semiotic modes (audio, text, video, gesture, etc.).

[28] https://www.edmodo.com/
[29] https://voicethread.com/

The Internet has a lot to offer when it comes to creating and producing materials. The cyberspace is a fruitful environment for the process of creation due to its favorability for authorship, as well as its readiness to dissemination. In the *Create* dimension, tools such as UTellStory[30] and Canva[31] are effective instruments for creating, hosting, and sharing pieces of language. In the first one, students can create slide presentations by, firstly, either uploading pictures from the computer or selecting images on the web. Users can then add text, narrate each slide, and set transitions. The teacher can use the tool in activities that demand narrating and storytelling, as well as in other tasks that involve storyboard creation. The latter is a web tool for creating graphic design. The user-friendly system offers ready-made editable templates for posters, infographics, flyers, banners, postcards and many others. After exploring the features of some virtual genres in class, the teacher could ask students to create and share social media posts using the tool. The designs offered by Canva look very attractive, trendy, and professional. This could be a motivational factor, since students might feel inclined to use the tool for non-educational purposes, too.

3. The Learning-by-Design framework

In the words of Kalantzis and Cope (2012, p. 520) "learning to mean is a process of weaving backwards and forwards across and between different ways of learning". Based on this idea, the authors put forward a framework of four knowledge processes that aligns with contemporary conditions for meaning-making without disregarding valuable lessons taken from existing theories and practices such as situated practice, overt instruction[32], authentic pedagogy (problem-based learning, inquiry learning, project learning, and others), Bloom's taxonomy, among others.

This framework focuses on the multiliteracies[33] approach that "attempts

[30] http://www.utellstory.com/
[31] https://www.canva.com/
[32] According to Kalantzis and Cope (2012), overt instruction involves students' needs analyses and activities to address students' difficulties. Metalanguage is used frequently to help students overcome difficulties.
[33] This approach, developed by The New London Group, aims to make teaching practice more cultural and communicative. It also involves social diversity and the use of different

to explain what still matters in traditional approaches to reading and writing, and to supplement this with knowledge of what is new and distinctive about the ways in which people make meanings in the contemporary communications" (KALANTZIS; COPE, 2012, p.13).

The model proposes pedagogical types of activities and was originally created to accommodate different media and technologies. The proponents present a quadrant with four knowledge processes, each divided into two sub-processes. This schema provides teachers and learners with more control over their instructional choices and learning outcomes. The framework is as follows:

Figure 4 – Learning-by-Design

Source: New Learning: transformational Designs for pedagogy and Assessment[34]

In the first quadrant, Kalantzis and Cope (2012) reframed the idea of situated practice into experiential learning and connected it with a tradition they called 'authentic pedagogy" which is related to problem-based learning, inquiry learning, project learning, and discovery learning. According to the

kinds of technology to prepare students to lead a successful life in a globalized world (THE LONDON GROUP, 1996).

[34] Source: http://newlearningonline.com/learning-by-design/pedagogy

proponents, *Experiencing* includes the known and the new. When experiencing the known, students bring to the learning situations that they are already familiar with, e.g.: objects, ideas, ways of communicating, etc. Having been exposed to the "known", learners are ready to move on and take in new situations and information, and deal with something new.

In the second quadrant, overt instruction is reshaped into activities that explicit how language works, for example, explaining the features of a genre. Metalanguage can also be used. *Conceptualizing* involves two sub-processes: conceptualizing by name – learners group things by names, categories, etc. – and conceptualizing with theory – when learners have a chance to make generalizations by connecting concepts or by grasping the theory that underpins what they are learning.

The third process, *Analyzing*, is divided into analyzing functionally, that is, to analyze logical connections, cause and effect, and structure and function, whereas analyzing critically deals with activities that promote possibilities for the learner to evaluate their own and other people's perspectives, motives, and interests.

The fourth quadrant connects with approaches that emphasize the transfer from school situations to the real world. According to Kalantzis and Cope (2012), these approaches have strong roots in socio-linguistic traditions such as Halliday's work and Vygotsky's social cultural approach. In *Applying* appropriately, learners try their knowledge out in real-world or simulated situations in order to verify if it works in a predictable way in a given context. As for applying creatively, learners make interventions in the world in innovative and creative ways by expressing their own voices or even transferring their knowledge to a different context.

Regarding the use of this framework, Kalantzis and Cope (2012) claim that crosswalks can be made to schemas of educational objectives found in curriculum standards such as Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives. The authors have mapped out the four processes to Bloom's taxonomy as follows:

Figure 5- Learning by design and Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

KNOWLEDGE PROCESS	BLOOM'S TAXONOMY EQUIVALENTS (A–D ARE 'KNOWLEDGE OBJECTIVES' AND 1–6 ARE 'COGNITIVE OBJECTIVES')	LITERACIES EXAMPLES
Experiencing the known	D. Metacognitive self-knowledge 1. Cognitive processes of remembering: recognising and recalling	Awareness of one's resources for meaning-making, the relevance of personal knowledge and experiences of texts, and a sense of 'voice'
Experiencing the new	A. Factual knowledge of specific details, elements and terminology 2. Cognitive processes of understanding: inferring, summarising	Making sense of new meanings in (not too) unfamiliar texts
Conceptualising by naming	B. Conceptual knowledge of classifications and categories 2. Cognitive processes of understanding: classifying, exemplifying, comparing	Concepts for metarepresentation that generalise about design elements
Conceptualising with theory	B. Conceptual knowledge of principles, generalisations, theories, models and structures 2. Cognitive processes of understanding: explaining	Connecting concepts to explain how a kind of text works to make meaning, in general terms
Analysing functionally	C. Procedural knowledge of subject-specific skill, algorithms, techniques and methods 4. Cognitive processes of analysing: differentiating, organising, attributing	Explaining how a specific text works, applying or testing the theory in practice
Analysing critically	D. Metacognitive knowledge about cognitive tasks 2. Cognitive processes of understanding: interpreting 5. Cognitive processes of evaluating: checking, critiquing	Interpreting the purpose of a specific text, including the human interests involved
Applying appropriately	C. Procedural knowledge of criteria for determining when to use appropriate procedures 3. Cognitive processes of applying: executing, implementing	Creating a text appropriate to a genre or that is workable in a predictable context of use
Applying creatively	D. Metacognitive, strategic knowledge 6. Cognitive processes of creating: generating, planning, producing	Creating a hybrid text, or transferring one's knowledge of text to a different context

Source: Kalantzis and Cope (2012, p.538)

As shown in Figure 5, the knowledge objectives in Bloom's taxonomy are present in Kalantzis and Cope's Learning-by-Design model. In order to offer teachers one more framework to choose from when integrating technology in the language classroom, we briefly present some more tools that can be used to achieve learning objectives.

For the quadrant subcategory "Experiencing the known", teachers can

resort to social bookmarkers. Diigo[35], for example, is a great tool for selecting videos, texts, or images that help student remember experiences and the language associated with them. Another possibility for promoting opportunities of remembering and recalling "the known" is to use note-taking tools. Evernote[36] is a resource that can help students organize personal notes and related personal experiences such as sports, school, daily routines, the environment, etc. In order to promote opportunities for "Experiencing the new", teachers can promote collaborative activities, for example, brainstorming and note taking. The aim of these activities are twofold: to help students remember what they already know, be it personal interest, experiences, etc. and foster opportunities to learn something new from their peers. Sharing these experiences, ideas, etc. can be an interesting way to learn new things. E-walls like Padlet[37] allow posting multimodal texts that can be shared with classmates and other members of students' communities. It can also be used as a virtual learning environment in which to build new knowledge collaboratively

As for "Conceptualizing by naming", Infographics[38] are interesting tools for presenting concepts, structures, ideas, etc. in a personalized manner. They can be used to compare different types of writing (e.g. argumentative, informative, etc.) as well as features of genres. Timelines[39] are equally useful tools for naming the evolution of a certain concept, idea, or artifact. In order to achieve the learning goals of the "Conceptualizing with theory" subcategory, the teacher can openly discuss this genre's features, as well as what kind of language it entails, and how it makes meaning. The teacher can also explore the multimodality of this kind of text and its elements. This can be done with timelines and other digital genres as well. Some infographic repositories[40] offer students the chance to analyze different productions.

In the "Analyzing functionally" subcategory, teachers can use Poll

[35] https://www.diigo.com/
[36] https://evernote.com/
[37] https://pt-br.padlet.com/
[38] https://infogr.am/
[39] https://evernote.com/
[40] http://www.dailyinfographic.com

Everywhere[41]. This app allows students and teachers to interact live via mobile phones. Teachers can foster discussion and conduct formative assessment during classes, as soon as a topic or question is posted. For the "Analyzing critically subcategory", one possibility is to use memes[42]. By creating their own or selecting a popular meme, learners can share these types of multimodal texts, interpret and analyze them critically in class. Memes can also be applied creatively as students can make interventions in the real world by posting their memes in social networks, for example.

Creating posters is an interesting way to express a variety of language functions. Students can use posters to protest, to launch a campaign, to advertise something, etc. Glogster[43] is a great tool for posters and can be used to achieve learning objectives suggested in "Applying appropriately". Developing multimodal posters and socializing them in social networks like Instagram [44] can be interesting ways for learners make interventions in innovative and creative ways. Learners can express their own voices and transfer their knowledge to a different context, in which students usually share their thoughts and stories.

We would like to emphasize that the activities suggested in the previous section can also be adapted to Kalantzis and Cope's model due to the way it articulates Bloom's taxonomy.

4. Conclusion

Learning is changing, both as a mental process and as a social way of organization, as stated by Sharples (2000). Learners are involved in new cognitive challenges that are no longer restricted to teacher guidance. The growing swiftness of technology plays a prominent role in many knowledge dimensions. Its impact on current education has been proved and language learners will benefit enormously from creative learning environments.

CALL and MALL are study areas that tend to grow consistently, given the ever-expanding multiplicity of resources and apps that come up every day.

[41] https://www.polleverywhere.com/
[42] http://www.memecreator.org/
[43] http://edu.glogster.com/?ref=com
[44] https://www.instagram.com/

Together with this development, expanded or new teaching models and frameworks are likely to bring teachers fresh ways to organize the curriculum and the content to be covered. Bloom's revisited taxonomy, as well as Kalantzis and Cope's (2012) framework, are examples of this expansion.

Bloom's original taxonomy continues to be developed because of the author's own concerns about - and criticism of - his original work. According to Wilson (2006)[45], one of the flaws Bloom himself noted was the distinction between the "knowledge" category and the other levels, as these were regarded as intellectual skills in relation to types of knowledge. The author confirmed that Bloom was aware of the discrepancies between the intellectual processes that were performed and the concept of knowledge.

Kalantzis and Cope's (2012) crosswalk framework advanced into Bloom's Taxonomy in a way that the recursiveness of the learning process is taken into account, as the framework proposes a connection with other important theories that focus on learning as a meaning-making activity. At the same time, it allows both teachers and learners to have more control over instructional choices and learning outcomes.

Certainly, more adaptation is inevitable and necessary. The digital resources mentioned in this chapter may survive the new functions we deal with every day or they may vanish and give way to other resources. Likewise, new devices can emerge and bring new demands and new proposals to teaching and learning. Also, these suggestions and ideas must be adapted and customized to different contexts, according to possibilities and limitations.

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In this chapter, Junia de Carvalho Fidelis Braga presents research conducted with in-service English language teachers who were participating in a continuing education program. The discussion has two theoretical pillars: Mobile Learning and Affordances. After introducing and connecting the concepts, the author analyzes the integration of mobile learning in the language classroom, as well as the teachers' perceptions about it. The chapter offers a great introduction of Mobile Learning and can serve as an invitation and inspiration for language teachers.

Ronaldo Gomes and Luciana Silva

English language teaching on the wings of mobility: a study on the affordances of mobile learning in classroom practice.

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Introduction

Technology is becoming increasingly evident in current society, especially with the popularization of mobile devices connected to Wi-Fi or via telecom services. These devices, with multifaceted hardware that combines various types of media capable of promoting interaction and communication, have brought in a new phase of opportunities and challenges in the educational context.

This study aims to answer some questions that may serve as a starting point for a discussion on the use of mobile technology in classroom practices: how do in-service English teachers utilize mobile applications and devices in the classroom? What does this appropriation reveal about their practices?

To discuss these questions, I will make reference to research I conducted with fifty-one English language teachers in continuing education, between 2015 and 2016. Data collection involved the application of a questionnaire, in which teachers detailed their respective areas of work, whether they utilized mobile digital technology, and if so, in what ways they

integrated it into their practices. As a base for discussion, I employ the concept of affordance, proposed by Gibson (1986) and the concept of mobile learning and mobility, by Pegrum (2014).

Mobile devices allow for more flexible and on-the-go learning experiences, while also supporting new teaching alternatives in formal and informal learning contexts. According to a UNESCO (2013) document[46], one of the major benefits of mobile learning is that it ensures that learning, both inside and outside the classroom, is mutually supportive. In this sense, the teacher may, for example, draw upon resources available in mobile devices to promote teaching opportunities that are more centered on the students and also expand the possibilities that could be developed at any time and any place.

The use of different resources to teach and learn while in movement or at different times is not something innovative in itself, since we already make use of a variety of mobile technology in this manner, such as games, toys, books and notebooks. Nevertheless, as Saccol, Schlemmer and Barbosa (2011) point out, we are experiencing a new phenomenon involving the diffusion of mobility through Mobile and Wireless Information and Communication Technologies (MWICTs). These technologies enable us, potentially, to be connected through wireless networks at any time and any place.

In the following section, I address the theoretical considerations that substantiate this study, initially commenting on mobile learning.

1. Mobile Learning

Before presenting some of the discussions on the concept of mobile learning[47], it is worth defining the difference between portable and mobile.

[46] Available at http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002277/227770por.pdf.

[47] Several of the sources consulted, mainly in works by Brown (2003), Santos Costa (2013), Cromptom (2013) and Pegrum (2014) consider mobile learning to be a sub-area of e-learning, simultaneously presenting similarities and differences in relation to this mode of mediation. Some similarities include the possibility for accessing online and offline applications at any time and in any place. Recently, *CALL* conferences, books and journals in this field have included discussions on learning with mobile devices and this extension of *CALL* is now commonly called *MALL* (*Mobile Assisted Language Learning*), a term coined by Chinnery (2006), in the article "Going to the *MALL*". Here, I have chosen to use mobile

Pegrum (2014, p. 5) inspired by Puentedura (2012), makes the following distinction between the two concepts: “portable devices are normally used in Point A, closed down and reopened at point B, while mobile devices may be used at point A, Point B and anywhere in between.” When we employ mobile devices to learn an additional language, we can spontaneously connect, in different contexts, with people in a network, for example, learning communities, or we can use offline media for teaching and learning purposes. Below, I present some definitions and discussions on the concept of mobile learning.

1.1. The concept

Mobile learning has already been the subject of various attempts at definition, with the first definitions being geared more towards technology in itself, as is the case with Traxler (2005, p. 262) who sees mobile learning as “any educational provision where the sole or dominant technologies are handheld or palmtop”. This and other initial definitions centered on solely technological aspects were criticized for not covering, for example, social interactions, as well as educational issues and contexts.

Crompton, Muilenburg and Berge (CROMPTON, 2013, p. 4) define mobile learning as “learning across multiple contexts, through social and content interactions, using personal electronic devices”. Considering that the concept of mobile learning is relatively new and of a complex nature, I refer to the definition by Crompton, Muilenburg and Berge (CROMPTON, 2013) since it covers pedagogy, mobile devices, context and social interactions. During the course of this work, I also present some of the specificities associated with the concept of mobile learning that I found in the literature reviewed:

> *a) mobile learning is individual and, at the same time, social. This relation involving the personal and the social is not just mobilized, but also intensified by mobile devices (KUKULKSA-HULME, 2013; PEGRUM, 2014; TRAXLER, 2009);*

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learning as it is a broader term which includes discussions in the context of language learning and other areas employed in this work.

> *b) mobile learning empowers individuals who become the agents and co-designers of their own learning (PEGRUM, 2014);*
>
> *c) mobile learning can be personalized, situated, formal or informal (HOLDEN et al., 2015; KUKULKSA-HULME, 2013);*
>
> d) *mobile learning is just in time and bite-sized. The essence of learning in these molds involves the when (now!), who, what and why, combined with brevity, in the right balance between not too much and not enough information (PEGRUM, 2014);*

Therefore, mobility is always associated with mobile devices and, along with the affordances of these resources and the formal or informal learning opportunities, it becomes one of the essential elements in mobile learning. Mobility as key theme in the most recent literature (WOODILL, 2011; PEGRUM, 2014) involves the learner and the learning.

As such, Pegrum (2014, p. 16) argues that mobile learning allows for three levels of mobility: i) *when the devices are mobile*; ii) *when the devices and learners are mobile*; and iii) *when the devices, the learners and the learning are mobile*. Next, I will briefly summarize these levels based on this researcher's work:

When the devices are mobile

Mobile devices can be used to connect classrooms where students may access the Internet; download applications; create their own content; share resources with colleagues; communicate among themselves, with other classes and with other communities, in different parts of the world. These devices can also be used to work from a flipped classroom perspective,[48] as well as being able to function as a tool to access courses, workshops, lectures etc., in other fixed spaces, such as at home or at work.

In the context of these pedagogical experiences, mobility in itself is little explored, if we take into account that the devices are treated more as portable – under the terms of Puentedura (2012) – than mobile. Moreover, learners take little advantage of the possibility to move around and their learning

[48] The *flipped classroom* is an approach that inverts the organization of pedagogical activities, allowing students access to class content at home and do exercises on this content in the classroom.

experiences occur in fixed locations. In this sense, mobile devices often function as mere substitutes for desktops or notebooks.

When the devices and learners are mobile

At this level, both devices and learners are mobile. According to Pegrum (2014, p. 17), “in some scenarios, the learners are mobile, even if the learning experience itself isn’t affected by changing locations”. From this perspective, devices and learners move when the activities proposed require it, as is the case with collaborative work in which students move around the classroom or the school, or in collective work whereby the students move in order to share discoveries, exchange ideas or help colleagues. The learner can also access resources and interact with peers when in transit, whether waiting for a bus, in the metro or in other locations. In these cases, learners are mobile at different moments of their learning process.

When the devices, the learners and the learning are mobile

At this level, mobility encompasses the device, the learner and the learning, so that the learning proposal transforms different real contexts into learning contexts. In this case, the learner or student can search for resources in different contexts and integrate them to their learning process, by means of different sources, such as online, peers, teachers, among others. This perspective translates the true mobility of web 2.0 resources, taking into account that learners in situated and real learning events can capture, (re)organize and (re)produce content generated by them and shared in a network with others who, jointly or individually, will (re) use them as learning materials.

The ideas that I expound in this section are aligned with work done by Bateman (2010), who argues that the principal benefits of mobile learning include: exploring innovative teaching and learning practices, promoting learning that is centered on the student and an engagement with the affordances of *web 2.0* mobile technologies, apart from moving towards a paradigm that transforms any space into a potential learning space.

1.2. Teaching English in the mobile era

Interest in mobile learning has grown exponentially with regard to teaching initiatives, as is the case of this study's participants, as well as in relation to research initiatives that seek a better understanding of mobile device use in the educational context. Baran (2014), with the objective of carrying out a survey of trends and gaps in the literature on mobile learning in the area of teacher training, points out that if, at first, studies were geared towards the potential of mobile learning in the classroom, we are now seeing a great interest in research on the use of mobile devices in professional training and teaching practice. According to Baran (2014), of the 329 articles on teacher training in the area of mobile learning, more than half were published between 2011 and 2014.

This growing interest in mobile learning may also be observed in the area of languages, both among researchers and teachers, and among developers of material and mobile applications, as noted by Ushioda (2013). This researcher, in relation to a discussion on motivation and the use of technology in the context of languages, stresses that two types of motivation lead a language learner to become engaged in a certain type of technology. The first is a strong interest in technology, which favors the discovery of benefits for language learning or a strengthening of the motivation to learn English. The second is a great motivation for language learning, which triggers the interest in the technology that facilitates this process.

Although this study does not focus on motivation, it is interesting to note that the research partcipants chose to proceed with their training by enrolling in a continuing education course in the context of English language teaching and spontaneously drew on technological innovations in their teaching practices. These initiatives seem to demonstrate that teachers recognize the potential of technology to enhance their training and classroom practice. This recognition may also be related to significant changes that have been taking place in recent decades in the area of language teaching. Regarding these changes, Pegrum (2014) points out that the view of language teaching as a study area focused on "talking about the language"

has given way to the contemporary view of teaching whose aim is to use language primarily in an active, productive and socially motivated manner.

Pegrum (2014) points out that teaching from the view of language in use in the formal learning context has favored approaches and theories of learning with greater emphasis on meaningful and contextualized activities. Below, I summarize some of the author's approaches:

> a) the socio-cultural theory (VYGOTSKY, 1978) which focuses on the construction of knowledge through interaction;
> b) situated learning (LAVE; WENGER, 1991) which takes into consideration the relations established in a certain situated context;
> c) the student-centered approach, with a focus on autonomy, agency and the development of identity;
> d) the ecological approach (LAM; KRAMSCH, 2003; VAN LIER, 2004) and complexity theory (LARSEN-FREMAN; CAMERON, 2008) presenting a view of complex and interconnected processes in language learning, without losing focus of the learner's identity and agency.

Pegrum (2014) advocates the need to consider the use of the postmethod approach (KUMARADIVELU, 2006) which is based on the most eclectic combination of different approaches, whether traditional or new. I believe that this perspective is in line with Paiva's discussion (2012), which considers that each learning theory or approach proposes a plausible explanation about learning and that the complexity view manages to accommodate apparently opposing elements from the language acquisition process, namely:

> *automatic linguistic habits, acquired through repetition, or as the connectionists prescribe, through strengthening the neural networks. It also accommodates interaction, comprehension, output, and social mediation, without forgetting questions of identity and affiliation for the language and culture it represents. (p. 21)*

I share Paiva's view and add that in mobile learning the teacher can choose vocabulary-building activities, such as flash cards, quizzes, etc., collaborative tasks through Whatsapp, or proposals involving situated

contexts with a focus on the autonomy and agency of the student with GPS technology. The type of activity and technology will depend on the skill in the language that the student intends to develop in a certain class. According to Pegrum (2014), evolution in language practices tends to be motivated by theoretical approaches and influences the practices mediated by computer and mobile devices. I would add that the functionalities of mobile devices, mainly the new generations of smartphones and tablets, allied to the potential of GPS technology, are now capable of mediating learning opportunities that allow for the meaningful use of the language.

Along these lines, Traxler and Kukulska-Hulme (2016) underscore that learning via mobile devices is currently at a level that cannot be considered a mere resource in the context of teaching and learning. For the authors, the new generation of mobile learning tends to be characterized by the context and aims to promote sole learning opportunities, inside and outside the classroom in formal and informal learning contexts.

2. The concept of affordance and its implications in the context of language teaching

The concept of affordance has been used in Applied Linguistic works (VAN LIER, 2002, 2004; PAIVA, 2010, 2011; SOUZA, 2011; SANTOS COSTA, 2013) which recognize the complexity of the systems, sub-systems or phenomena that constitute their objects of study and strive to comprehend their elements based on the relations that are established between them.

With roots in Ecology – a scientific field that investigates the inter-relations established between an organism and other elements of an ecosystem – the concept of affordance, coined by Gibson (1986), refers to the relationship established between an agent (human beings, in this case) and other elements situated in an ecosystem. An individual situated in a certain context implies that he/she relates to the surroundings, that is, with other individuals or elements present in the environment in which he/she is situated. Naturally, whatever surrounds the individual gains the potential for significance and its perception can capture the affordances and possibilities for action. The fact of an object being used for one purpose does not mean it

cannot be used in other ways. For example, Gibson (1986) points out that using a stone as a projectile does not mean that it may not be used as a paperweight, book support, hammer, pendulum plumb or to make a wall.

Transposing Gibson's (1986) concept of affordance to Applied Linguistics, van Lier (2002) stresses that one context in which language is part of the action provides a range of opportunities for the construction of meaning and highlights that affordances figure as manners of relating with the environment through perception-in-action. Activity in an environment can generate affordances that enhance or limit the activity itself and subsequent activities. Van Lier (2004) identifies the advantages in using the concept of affordances in the area of Applied Linguistics; among them, he highlights the recognition of the relations that a learner can establish with others and within the environment. Another advantage is that in using the concept of affordance, particularly in observing the language learning process, we recognize the complexity of the environment and of the learner as a whole: physically, mentally and socially.

Paiva (2011) contends that the concept of affordance has influenced the manner that the phenomenon of language learning is seen; principally, regarding the linguistic social practices that emerge from the perceptions and interpretations of the environment in which the learner is inserted. Concerning the use of technological tools, Souza (2011) and Santos Costa (2013) consider that the concept of affordance is useful in reflecting on the potential and the specific restrictions of a means of communication, such as technological artifacts, for example.

In relation to these and other cultural artifacts present in diverse environments, van Lier (2004) argues that just as the chair, hammer, doorbell and other artifacts were created and intended for specific uses, built in to their designs, they carry historical-sociocultural information since their creation. As such, van Lier (2004) distinguishes the objects with natural affordances from objects with sociocultural affordances, because the objects of a sociocultural nature signal affordances in a special manner which, in a certain way, is obvious to humans. However, he also emphasizes that the environment is replete with potential for significance and that the interaction with the object, and its natural or sociocultural affordances, may feed the perception and

activity, bearing significances – new affordances, signs and activities as well as a differentiated perception.

In the specific case of this work, smartphones and tablets and their native applications[49], for example, hotspot, camera with audio and video, speakers, microphone and internet connectivity are socially constructed artifacts and their 'primary' affordances are often evident to their users, particularly the 'tech-comfy'[50]. However, as van Lier (2004) points out, the agent – in our case, the student – possesses skills, capacity, aptitude etc. that can lead to differentiated perceptions.

Accordingly, the relations established with mobile resources – whether their agents are learners or teachers – can result in differentiated affordances, in being influenced by the situated context, as is the case in the teaching and learning of languages. By way of example, there is the study by Santos Costa (2013) on the integration of mobile learning, in which the researching teacher presents pedagogical proposals such as the uses of quizzes, researching unknown words, producing and recording videos, among others, based on the affordances perceived by her. In integrating these activities to the English language context, new affordances emerge, having been classified by Santos Costa (2013) as: technological affordance (personalization, mobility, presence of multimodality), social (student, teacher interaction and collaboration), linguistic affordanc*e* (students associate the use of language in real life contexts) and pedagogical affordance (continuing education, improvisation, personalization).

In her study, Santos Costa (2013) claimed the affordances that emerged during the integration of the cell phone to language class practice provided alternative geographical spaces for the execution of tasks, social interaction, an approximation of formal and informal teaching and learning contexts, as well as a pedagogical change in the sense of promoting the integration of mobile devices to the context of English language learning.

Although mobile devices are not accessible to a significant part of the Brazilian population, due to cost, network connectivity, and data package

[49] In this study, I use the expression "native application" to refer to the applications directly installed on the mobile device, such as camera, microphone etc.
[50] Term used by Pegrum (2014) to refer to people with technological literacy to use digital tools, especially for everyday social purposes.

issues, they are used, in certain social practices, as mediators of information and communication. It is known that the devices play a role in the daily routine of many teachers and also students, since it is common for us to see our students interacting with friends via social networks, playing digital games and/or phoning their parents, after classes. The fact that these digital devices are small, light and mobile facilitates their transportation to various environments, in pockets, bags, backpacks etc., and this flexibility favors their appropriation, making them accessible in any place and at any time. These issues bring us back to McLuhan (2001), who asserts that technology becomes an extension of ourselves. In this sense, the presence of these devices in formal and informal learning contexts can favor relations between environment, learner/teacher, between one learner and another and between these objects and their applications, as well as the emergence of affordances and, consequently, the activity in the language learning process.

That said, I will now go on to discuss these affordances and the role of mobility in the process of appropriating mobile devices in language teaching and learning activities.

3. The study

This work fits into the molds of the qualitative paradigm chosen to better understand the experiences geared towards the use of mobile devices in the classroom practices of the teachers who participated in the study. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2006), qualitative research is a field of investigation that seeks to understand the phenomenon based on the significances conferred therein.

Fifty-one English in-service teachers participated in this study on the integration of technology in the language classroom. Data were collected using a questionnaire with closed and open-ended items digitally created. As this research instrument was created to investigate other issues regarding the use of technology in the context of language teaching, for the purpose of this chapter I have chosen to focus on the integration of mobile learning in the language classroom. The discussions are based on the following items: i) closed questions building a brief profile of each teacher in relation to their area of work, whether at university level, secondary, primary schools or

language institutes and ii) two open questions regarding mobile learning: a) Have you ever used mobile devices (smartphones, tablets) in the language classroom? If so, describe your experience. b) Did you notice any change in classroom dynamics when you integrated mobile technologies. If so, please elaborate on the changes? The questionnaire was emailed to three different groups of teachers taking part in a Diploma Program in TESOL at the Faculty of Letters of Federal University of Minas Gerais.

4. Discussion

Out of the fifty-one teachers, five lectured at university level, four taught in language institutes only, two taught private classes and forty-two taught elementary school, ten of whom also taught at language institutes. Ten of these, however, had never used a mobile device in class because of strict school policies.

Research participants responded that mobile devices are part of their daily routine, which indicates that this technology is available to its users in the various social practices in which they are involved, including their classroom practices.

The portability of digital devices and their availability in the classroom seem to favor the perception of the importance of these objects. This is the case reported by a teacher who used a hotspot from his tablet when other technology was limited: “I use my iPad in class, mostly when there is no internet access at that location”. Despite the tablet, in this case, being used as ‘technical support’ in the absence of internet access, its appropriation reveals that the integration of mobile resources to the school context can take place in a spontaneous, informal, situated, and even opportunistic or on-demand manner.

Having the device in the environment favors the spontaneous emergence of affordances, such as a dictionary consultation or search for small – bite sized – resources which arise within the contextual demand of classes. The following transcribed sections[51], taken from answers to the use

[51] The excerpts were translated by the author.

of mobile devices in the classroom, illustrate that teachers perceive the pedagogical potential of mobile resources and utilize them in their practices:

> 1) “Yes, students used their cell phone to do research on famous couples and they sent me the audio of the story with some expressions about relationships that were dealt with in class.”
>
> 2) “Students use their cell phones to access content related to the class’ theme, and those who have tablets also use them in the classroom for the same purpose.”
>
> 3) “I bring my cell phone and I’ve already used a tablet with educational games, videos, and students have used their own tablets and cell phones to carry out research in the classroom.”
>
> 4) “I asked students to download other applications related to English, such as applications on pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar...this is good, they learn in a fun way.”

These affordances, although relevant for teaching and learning activities in the mobile mode, are affordances that can also occur in relations established with fixed devices, such as desktops and even notebooks. However, as shown in excerpts 1, 2 and 3, pedagogical actions or interventions spontaneously emerge based on the group’s needs – *‘just in time’* or rather: now! – and seem to influence the teacher’s practice, considering that the actions generated by searching miscellaneous information on the Internet involve task distributions. The decentralization of the teacher’s control gives way to the active participation of the students in English language activities.

Sections 1, 2, 3 and 4 also indicate that the mobile technology resources used in the classroom enable students to gain access to authentic written and oral texts, when carrying out research by reading or watching videos, for example. It is noted that the teachers recognize the need to use different resources to learn languages, as is the case with applications for games, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar, which may be accessed during class, on the way home, waiting for a bus, or in other locations and contexts.

Regarding levels of mobility, as per Pegrum (2014), the pedagogical activities presented in excerpts 1, 2, 3 and 4 mainly involve the mobile device

in the environment where the user is located. During these activities, although the students are taking advantage of their devices' portability, they are not availing of the possibilities for mobility typical of these devices. The same occurs in relation to the third level of mobility: *when learners, devices and learning are mobile*, as per Pegrum (2014), because students do not use their devices to integrate information from other situated contexts to inform their peers.

Crompton (2013) and Pegrum (2014) argue that when mobile devices are used in the same way as fixed devices, the specificities of e-learning apply more than those of mobile learning. Although the digital resources identified in the answers to the questionnaire were used in a similar form to e-learning, these resources may be subsequently appropriated in such a way as to involve both the device and the learner, as is the case with the mobile games and applications mentioned in excerpt 4.

Apart from the possibilities offered by access and connectivity, there is evidence that teachers utilize other native applications – such as the microphone and camera, for example – to promote individual, collaborative and even interdisciplinary activities, as is the case of the '*Gentileza gera gentileza*' (kindness begets kindness) project. The relations set up with these objects generated new affordances geared towards teaching and learning, as the following excerpts demonstrate:

> 5) "In the "*Gentileza gera gentileza*" project, students produced a film in the "silent movie" style. The scenes were recorded on cell phone and then edited on *Movie maker* (software tool). They also worked on the subtitles according to the film's style."

> 6) "In an activity of the "wireless telephone" type, listening and speaking skills were practiced, with emphasis on summarization. One volunteer student at a time was chosen to listen to, or read, a current story or news item, without the other students listening to or reading it. The student in question had to make notes on what he heard or read and report back to the others, paraphrasing as much as possible. Each student's summary was recorded using a cell phone and, at the end of the activity, they read or listened to the original item and assessed how much their versions differed. In listening to their own presentations they were also able to hear their own voices and observe relevant characteristics."

> 7) “I have asked students to use their cell phones to send messages in English with the abbreviations of the words most commonly used by English speakers in internet conversations. Besides this, we played games where students used the cameras on their cell phones to take photos of objects in the school based on a description in English. Finally, I recommended some applications that they may find useful in learning English.”

The filming and editing of videos in order to develop writing and the use of microphones to develop oral skills – with the opportunity to produce speech and reflect on the characteristics of orality – reveal that teachers make spontaneous and creative use of the potential offered by the mobile resources available in the classroom. It warrants mentioning that the use of these resources allows students to produce their own content and become the co-designers of their learning. This integration of mobile applications in the school space shows evidence of practices strongly based on approaches centered on the student and which promote interaction and collaboration in an additional language. The same may be affirmed on collaborative proposals via Facebook and WhatsApp. The following excerpts exemplify practices involving the creation of social spaces for student-teacher interaction:

> 8) “I created an English class group in Whatsapp and I made some rules, such as only using English. Students have really enjoyed it and are always sharing language related content. Something simple, quick, practical and pleasurable.”

> 9) “We live in a “connected” society. The use of mobile devices is increasingly more frequent [...]. Nowadays, WhatsApp is, I believe, the most used means of communication. I asked students to bring their cell phones to the classroom, which isn’t difficult to do, and I then prepared a questions and answers game using the abovementioned application. The role of the teacher is to send different questions to each student, who responds by sending the answer to the class group. The end objective is produce a text with the answers.”

> 10) “I used cell phones with conversation groups through applications. It was a real pleasure and beneficial for the process of revisions, future activities, clearing up doubts and exchanging ideas.”

> 11) “In the classroom itself, no. But we created groups on WhatsApp and Faceboo*k*. These interactive activities end up supplementing classroom attendance and can be accessed at any

> time. It is as if the students had a teacher at their disposal through the application and can also access content through posts on the social network."

The activities described in examples 8, 9, 10 and 11 were developed based on the communication affordances of the applications and demonstrate signs that they could be used to approximate practices from inside the classroom with activities outside the school context. In this way, as indicated in section 11, these spaces become complementary. In promoting collaborative practices, teachers encourage their students to assume control and responsibility for their learning.

Regarding mobility levels in these excerpts, mobile learning is mostly used with a focus on the device, if we consider that students use their cell phones or *tablets* for research, consultation, to watch videos and learn through educational games in an individual manner. However, there is also evidence of collaborative activities and movements in the classroom that indicate a focus on the device and the learner, who moves around to interact collaboratively and participate in filming.

I noted indications of the use of device mobility as resource that links formal to informal learning in the responses of teachers to the questionnaire. On being asked if he uses mobile technology in classes and whether he noticed any change in the dynamic with the integration of this technology, one teacher said that students started to bring "novelties" from contexts outside the classroom to complement the content being studied. This 'bridge' between formal and informal learning seems to also occur through games championships. Apart from the affordance of mobility, the teacher integrates content co-authored by students in their classes, which shows the perception of the affordances potential of the audio recorder and video camera for pedagogical purposes. These questions may be observed in the following section:

> 12) "Students more engaged in activities and curious. Always bringing in some new material involving the content. We have Duolingo championships, record audio and video, and we research themes and personalities in the cell phone's Google Chrome."

There seems to be a consensus among teachers that the use of mobile devices tends to promote greater student motivation and engagement in the tasks set, as we can see in the following responses:

> 13) “Students talk too much in class. However, when we use technological resources, they get involved in the theme of the class and the conversations (which do not stop) become guided by the relevant study subject at hand.”
>
> 14) “I have used the cell phone, and I have noticed that students become more interested in participating in classes.”
>
> 15) “Yes. Students became more motivated when our classes started to make use of a tool that is part of their daily routine.”

There is also an issue about the role of mobile technology in the English language classroom. It is the case of one of the teachers who recognizes the use of the mobile device in the classroom, but is skeptical in relation to changes in pedagogical practices due to the use of mobile devices. Excerpt 16 demonstrates these concerns:

> 16)“Speaking of changes, I don’t yet see a change in the form of teaching, but rather in the support through which data is brought to the student. For example, the dictionary, which before was heavy and kept on the shelf, is now installed on the mobile device. Card games or board-games became applications, and so on.”

As such, despite the environment being full of potential significance, the perception of affordances does not always take place, particularly those geared towards the mobility of mobile devices. When dealing with technology, it is often desirable for there to be specific training in relation to mobile learning’s place in society and the possibilities it offers. Bearing in mind that researchers from the area (SANTOS COSTA, 2013; KUKULSKA-HULME; 2015; PEGRUM, 2014) have signaled the benefits of incorporating mobile devices in the English language context, training initiatives may assist in understanding these possible benefits, as well as creating opportunities for questioning and critical reflections on the integration of mobile devices in the language area.

With respect to the affordances that limit the teaching activity, teachers stress the fact that students may get sidetracked or disperse into social networks and other applications, and there may be problems with a lack of connectivity, battery dependence, equipment provided by the public sector, as well as the need some students have to always be close to a presence based mediator. The following sections illustrate these issues:

> 17) “permits dispersion, in the event that the student is not focused on the activity”
>
> 18) “cost of the equipment, (speed, capacity, etc.), connectivity (bandwidth) and battery dependence”
>
> 19) “need to make students aware that the devices are for pedagogical activities and not to access social networks in class”
>
> 20) “Not all students have cell phones or tablets.”

.

Even though these affordances limit the appropriation of mobile devices, others emerge to enable new activities, such as the case of one teacher who makes his computer available to students who do not have mobile devices. Of the fifty-one respondents, thirteen reported that the institutions where they work do not authorize the use of mobile devices in school.

5. Conclusion

Researching on-line and carrying out tasks with audio, video and other artifacts is not new in the context of English language teaching-learning. However, the ubiquitous presence of personal mobile devices seems to allow for a greater approximation of these objects and the perception of affordances that generate spontaneous, local activities informed by resources available on the web. Research participants recognize the potential of mobile learning in the context of English language learning and, similar to their students, they perceive the affordances of these devices and make use of them to promote activities that aim to develop different English language skills.

Besides this, teachers validate the use of mobile devices as a complementary resource in recommending applications to be used outside

the school environment. Their reports indicate few limitations regarding the use of the devices during pedagogical activities; probably, due to the characteristics of the research instrument used or the simple fact of the teacher wanting to share his/her successful experience of integrating a type of technological artifact.

Another point worth highlighting is that this research was performed with teachers in continuing education who had already familiarized themselves with other digital tools. If, on the one hand, this particularity may influence the results of this work, by expecting that teachers in continuing education would use technology in the classroom, this professional development also reveals that they not only make use of already tested and discussed tools, but they also innovate, as in the case of the mobile devices. In addition, the manner in which they integrate these devices is aligned with contemporary approaches that emphasize the decentralization of power in the classroom and stimulate opportunities for interaction, collaboration and the active participation of their students in the language learning process. Mobile applications are integrated based on the perception of their affordances and on the activities they generate.

Concerning the issue of mobility, although the teachers' experiences were mainly at the levels of *when the devices are mobile* and *when the devices and the learners are mobile* in Pegrum's terms, the activities the teachers reported are no less legitimate when we consider the contextual demands of the day-to-day language class, for example, when students need to do research, look up the pronunciation of a word, etc.. Nevertheless, we should not lose sight of the range of possibilities that mobile devices offer in relation to mobility.

In this sense, I share the idea of Pegrum (2014), Nicholas and NG (2015), Kukulska-Hulme (2015), and Traxler and Kukulska-Hulme (2016) that among the specificities of mobile learning, the possibility for learning in different contexts and in transit between two locations that mobility provides is a differentiating factor. In the case of additional languages, interdisciplinary projects could avail of these types of mobility not just through excursions or field work, but also in local activities with episodes that take place every day, such as local traffic, urban courtesies, etc., to share and report these

episodes to their community, at the time they happen. In the words of one of the teachers in this study: “the student has the ‘world’ in his hands”. However, I reiterate the thinking of McLuhan (2001) that technologies can function as entities that extend human functional faculties and, just as a student naturally resorts to his/her cell phone or smartphone to carry out just in time activities in the classroom, classroom practices can enable him/her to go beyond these typically human faculties and create wings for more distant flights in the era of mobility.

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DDT as proposal for language awareness: grammar study, word-choice and semantic prosody

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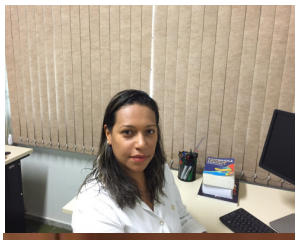

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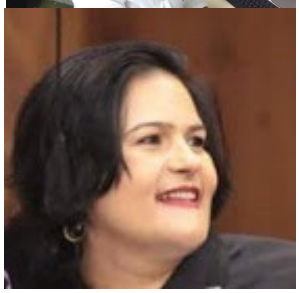


This chapter presents a proposal called data-driven teaching (DDT). This study intends to contribute to discussions in English classes on grammar study, word choice and semantic prosody from authentic texts. The authors also mention the influence of Corpus Linguistics in DDT and show opinions of teachers who are having contact with these studies recently. Ana Larissa Oliveira and Bárbara Orfanó integrate theoretical and practical aspects which are very useful to English teachers in different teaching contexts.

Felipe Coura

Paper overview

In contemporary times, a massive number of information technology tools is made available to the language classroom. This phenomenon may enable teachers to better assist learners in their pathway towards mastering the meta-cognitive language skills necessary for achieving higher proficiency levels (JAMES et al., 2014). In this paper, we make the case that the awareness of grammatical rules; word choice and semantic prosody, for example, can be successfully addressed in data-driven teaching (DDT), with the help of corpora tools.

Word choice and semantic prosody can be addressed while learners are encouraged to analyze extracts of language in use. Generally speaking, words do not only have collocates, but they also tend to occur in specific environments that can either have a positive or a negative connotative

meaning. For example, the word *commit* is usually associated with the words *suicide* and *crime*, both with a negative semantic prosody. As learners enter a word string with the purpose of analyzing the usage of this word in different contexts, they can infer their pragmatic force. The examples can also help them grasp the usage of words, their collocations, their habitual environment, as well as their co-occurrence with a specific grammatical structure, or with other words and expressions.

Given that Data Driven Teaching (DDT) can serve the purpose of deepening the reflection upon language usage and linguistic phenomena in general, in the next section we will discuss the use of corpora tools in the language classroom in an attempt to relate them to the development of the meta-cognitive rules underlying social interaction.

1. DDT, corpora tools and the enhancement of meta-cognitive skills

The aim of this section is to discuss the use of corpora tools to raise language awareness in the classroom. While we engage the reader in this discussion, we will also provide examples of in-class activities proposed by teachers who took part in a Diploma Course offered by the Federal University of Minas Gerais. These activities were prepared in a 30-hour-online course, entitled *Data-Driven Teaching*, which was held in 2016.

Corpus Linguistics (CL) has contributed immensely to DDT in different ways. According to Johns (1991:2) DDT enables learners to act as 'detectives', since they can investigate linguistic features, using authentic data in a contextualized way. This characteristic is in line with CL´s main assumption that acknowledges a corpus to be comprised of real authentic texts.

The past twenty years have been fundamental in stating the importance of CL to language teaching. Starting from the revolution in dictionaries (see for, example the 2nd edition of the Macmillan English dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2007) to the Cambridge Grammar of English (2006), which also relies on corpus data. Another very important contribution has been the free online corpus available for consultation, which

allows both teachers and students to search an enormous sample of authentic data. This possibility ties in with DDL/DDT, as it pe

rmits that teachers design activities guided on students´ needs in a more effective way. Along the lines of corpora tools, other digital resources can serve pedagogical purposes, as we will attempt to demonstrate in the next section.

2. DDT and language awareness: Bridging the Gap Model

In contemporary times, teachers have, at their disposal, an endless variety of activities covering different language skills and competences in the blink of an eye. However, despite all the availability, and the relatively easy access, it is not difficult to find classes that do not take full advantage of the current scenario. Thus, it is still important to invest in teaching education focusing on this matter.

Technological tools have greatly influenced our society in many different fields, for example, recreational, social, professional, as well as in social communication and in arts. In order to understand the impact of social media to education, many researchers have drawn their attention to this phenomenon. Thorne & Black (2007), for example, have published working papers reviewing several research findings on new media literacies.

A language-awareness-based pedagogical framework with supporting materials for teachers is the focus of the Bridging Activities Initiative (THORNE and REINHARDT, 2008). This Project involves “incorporating and analyzing student-selected texts within the advanced foreign language curriculum in order to provide a context-situated teaching practice’ (THORNE and REINHARDT, 2008, p. 562).

The Bridging Activities Model provides an opportunity for language awareness, based on actual usage, in opposition to normative teaching, still commonly found in instructional contexts. In this model, awareness of vernacular digital language conventions provides an interesting vantage point to digital communication in contemporary times.

To implement this Model, teachers can, for example, assist learners in their search for social and linguistic conventions prevalent in different digital texts. Table 1 illustrates how this awareness can be raised in a set of questions, in this case, related to multi-player gaming.

Table 1- set of questions to language awareness in multi-player gaming.

1. How is communication used as a resource in the immediacy of in-game problem solving and play?
2. What sorts of speech functions are common? For example, do you see instances involving the soliciting of help, providing directions, reprimanding and apologizing, sharing of information and strategy, introductions/greeting and leave-taking rituals, or other kinds of language use that might be common to other contexts?
3. What kind of talk goes on in gaming environments that does not relate directly to game play? Examples might be off-topic (nongame) banter, overtures of friendship, and complaints or accolades regarding general qualities of the game.
4. How do more experienced and less experienced online game players differ in their in-game chat?
5. Are there lexical and/or text-convention differences between in-game chat and other common internet communication tools, such as instant messenger?

(Source: Thorne and Reinhardt, 2008 p. 565)

Language awareness is premised on the principles of noticing and predicting the variable rules, as well as the linguistic choices associated with particular text modes, contexts and communities (JAMES et al, 2014).

The awareness of these conventions is devised as a pathway towards the development of meta-cognitive skills and language usage. From this perspective, learners are motivated to critically judge the grammatical and/or lexical choices that comprise a text and to reflect upon how these choices can impact different communication exchanges.

Within this language awareness framework, learners examine extended excerpts of actual use and are encouraged to identify how they work in a given social context (genre). They are also guided to distinguish the specific language items that instantiate text genres and text types (HALLIDAY and MATHIESSEN, 2014).

In this respect, McCarthy and Carter (2014) point out some principles that aim to develop the awareness of language as discourse. These principals include the contrastive principle, which focuses on differences within comparable text types and/or language items used to achieve particular social actions; the continuum principle, involving exposure to a variety of texts in the same genre, but produced by different authors; and the inferencing principle, which involves strategies for cultural and literary understanding, or interpretative skills.

In essence, language awareness approaches to language teaching and DDT both highlight the need to bring up a theoretically informed discussion that overtly fosters learner's metalinguistic knowledge. In the next section, we discuss how grammar awareness can be brought to light with the assistance of DDT.

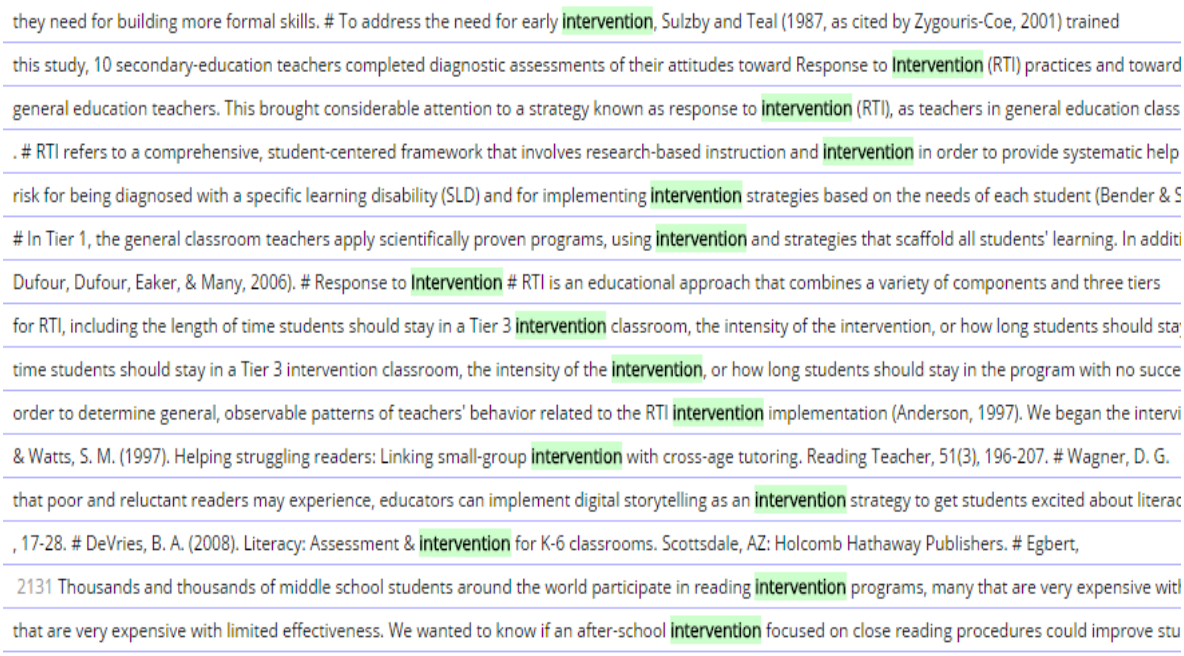
3 .DDT and language awareness of grammar rules: the case deverbal valency [52]

Metalinguistic knowledge can be guided through the use of concordance lines, for example, in order to help learners perceive the use of highly lexically dense structures in academic writing. These structures can be encoded in the form of instances of nominalizations, as a result of the incongruent type of language present in grammatical metaphors [53] (Thompson, 2004; Halliday and Mathiessien, 2014). An example of how this metalinguistic awareness can be addressed is presented in Figure 1:

[52] Deverbals are nouns that come from verbs (*construct – construction*). They usually have mandatory complements that accompany them (the construction <u>of the house),</u> forming their valency.

[53] Grammatical ideational metaphors represent an important resource for creating a new form of wording through grammatical modified items (Thompson, 2013). When an instance of grammatical metaphor is used, a noun turns out to encode an event (process). This process usually involves a relationship of logical cause and effect. By the same token, in instances of nominalizations, the less consistent and more economical packaging of the linguistic form renders different pragmatic effects on the reader as they also impact the text flow (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004),

Figure 1 – Sample of the use of 'intervention'



(source: Corpus of Contemporary American English-http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/)

In Figure 1, the valency of the deverbal *intervention* can be analyzed, using concordance lines. In order to serve this purpose, the following types of questions can be addressed in the classroom:

(a) What are the elements involved in the meaning of the word *intervention* in the text? (Who intervenes in what?)

In academic texts, the arguments of the input verb, in this case, *intervene* (someone intervenes in something) are usually expressed in the deverbal's valency. These arguments can either be placed in a pre or post-head position in relation to the deverbal. At other times, the arguments may be not overtly expressed, and will in turn have to be retrieved through disciplinary knowledge, knowledge of the world, or through a fully understanding of the text's cohesive chain.

(b) In which of the lines was the word *intervention* employed as a topic initiator?

The use of instances of nominalizations in a text enables non-agentive subjects as sentence topics. This feature is very pervasive in academic writing, since it produces an effect of objectivity. It also makes

room for evaluating, comparing and contrasting the phenomenon under analysis.

This activity can be carried out with the help of the students, who can gather the collocation lines themselves or in collaboration with the teacher. They can also expand the scope of the concordance lines, when needed, so that the broader context can be brought to light. This would favor a deeper and more accurate analysis of the phenomenon described in the text.

In the next section, the focus will be given on teachers' perception of how DDT can be used in classroom in order to promote meaningful learning experiences. This will be illustrated with activities proposed in a Diploma Course from a Federal University in Brazil[54].

4. DDT: insights from the language classroom

In this section, we will present some activities involving DDT. We will also bring to light some comments made by the teachers taking a discipline entitled Data Driving Teaching. The discipline was part of a Diploma Course for English teachers, and it was offered in 2015. The commentaries refer to how teachers assess DDT. Table 2 is an example from one task from the discipline.

Table 2- Activity proposed as part of the tasks from the discipline.

Pay attention to this dialogue from the sitcom Friends and in the concordance lines for the word ***so*** *presented below: Identify 3 different functions and meanings for the word so in the concordance lines.*

<Monica> Okay. Shhh. Okay, umm, I just wanna say that ...I love you guys so-so much and-and thank you for being here on my special night. Our special night. I mean it just wouldn't be my...our our night, if you all weren't here to celebrate with me... us Damnit.

<Chandler> It's okay, I want this to be your night too. To Monica.

Concordance lines for so in *Friends*
1 I don't know why you say that so soon. Come on Joey, I just
2 use you're out of toner. Okay, so...no toner today. THANKING T

[54] http://150.164.100.248/cei/

3 n't secretly smoke do you. No. So it's just your mother then
4 a light bulb to cook brownies. So, I think your boxes are ov
5 o whatever you want. Hey Ross. So, I was checking out the uh
6 Why would you want to do that. So that there will be a decen
7 IGIZING Sorry. Joey, Joey I am so sorry. I told you not to m
8 is-this...this all came together so that I could stop you from
9 he thought he broke your chair so he switched the chairs. So
10 that every week too. Oh, just so you know, you-you have to

In this activity students have access to two different types of data (a dialogue and a set of concordance lines). The aim is for students (in this case teachers taking a specialization course in English teaching) to identify the different parts of speech of the word *so*. The most common answers were that the word was used as an intensifier, subordinating conjunction and as a conjunctive adverb expressing purpose. Addressing different meanings and functions to the same word in this case *so*, allow students to increase their vocabulary and also raise pragmatic awareness.

A very important component of the course was a forum where teachers who were taking the course shared their interpretations from the readings proposed in the course. This space for exchanging ideas and experiences was determinant for expanding the concepts that were addressed in the course. Extract 1 is an example of the way teachers interacted and also illustrates teachers' conceptions of DDL.

Extract 1-

Hi everyone,

As I have mentioned in my week task, I was introduced to this idea now and I do not know a lot about the topic. However, I believe DDL will help us to introduce new structure to our students in a more authentic way. They would learn how to use the language and not simply memorise rules. I believe that we should consider using DDL and study, improve our knowledge on how to use it and waste time preparing a lesson plan suitable for our students needs. I wish you guys could add something in the topic so as I can learn more and feel more comfortable in using DDL. (from a teacher taking part in the Diploma Course)

In the extract above, the teacher confesses that he is not very familiar with DDL, but he would like to improve his knowledge about it. One can hypothesize that after reading, discussing, doing and preparing DDL activities he believes that his students can benefit from using it. Teachers were also introduced to the advantages of using concordance lines and how intertwined they are with DDT.

5. The use of concordance lines and DDT

Advocating for the use of concordancing in language teaching Leel (2011) states that: "using concordancing software is a breakthrough in language teaching which helps students to develop their ability to observe, to speculate and to identify patterns in the target language..." (2011:400). Bringing concordance lines to the classroom is a great advance for Corpus Linguistics and a challenge for many teachers. One of the many advantages of CL is the use of authentic language, thus while reading and manipulating concordance lines students are in fact being in contact with real language.

O´Keeffe, Carter and McCarthy (2007) state that it is important to make students realise their mistakes and areas that need improvement by examining real language. One reason for this 'self-correction' characteristic is the opportunity learners have to be adventurous with language. Many researchers acknowledge that this is what promotes meaningful learning, besides this puts learners in charge of their own learning process while teachers take the role of facilitators/guiders, which in turn, help learners develop autonomy. Figure 1 brings an example of a set of concordance lines with the word *intervention* taken from the Contemporary Corpus of American English (COCA)[55].

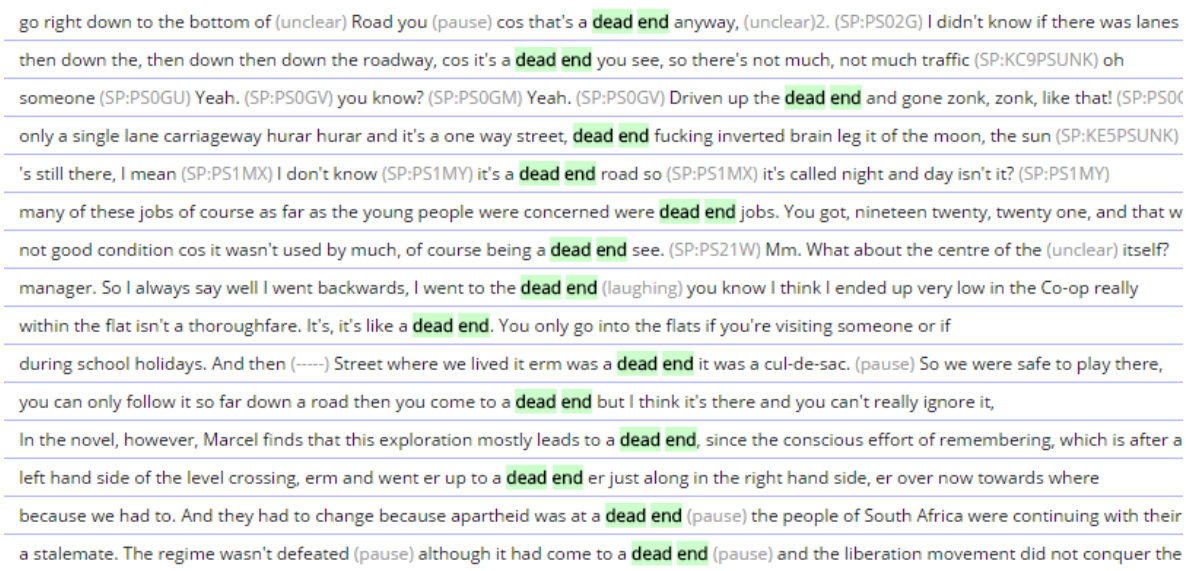
Despite the advantages of using CL tools in language teaching, the area faces difficulties deciding how to present corpus data to students. Gilquen and Granger (2010:361) suggest two corpora pedagogic and local. The first comprises texts used in class, they can be from course books and/or from texts used in class. It is true that there is the possibility that these texts may lack authenticity, but on the other hand they might as well give students'

[55] http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/

confidence to work with a corpus they have studied before. The latter, the local learner corpus brings interesting characteristics that can be explored for teaching purpose. This corpus includes data produced by non-native speakers (in our case students learning English as a foreign language). This corpus can be used for: 1) form-focused instruction: teachers can explore form-focused instruction and; 2) learner-centred activities: based on common mistakes from a specific group of students. For example, Brazilians usually face difficulties using the perfect aspect.

Probably, the most significant gain from using both pedagogic and local corpora is to tailor English classes to our students needs and also make learners understand their weakness and usual mistakes by their own, which in turn brings benefits to their overall development as students. Figure 2 illustrates the use of the idiom *dead end* taken from the *British National Corpus* (BNC)[56].

Fig. 2- Concordance lines for the idiom *dead end*.



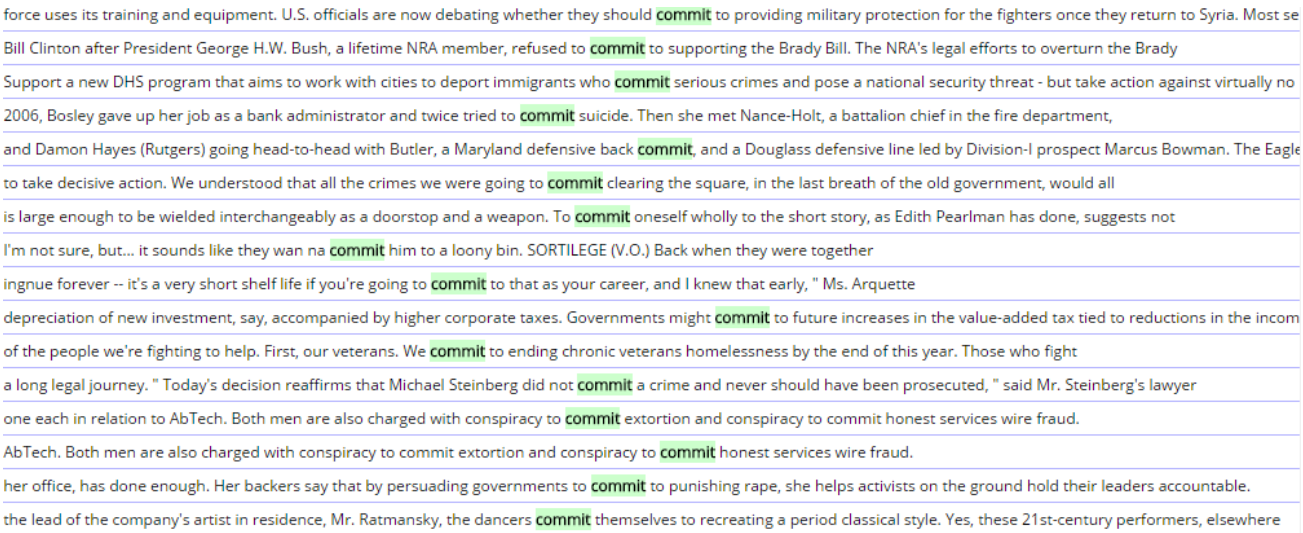
From analysing the concordance lines from the figure above, one can find different meanings for the idiom *dead end*. It can be the end of a road, a negative outcome for a situation or the end of a process. Teachers are always trying to identify different ways of addressing vocabulary teaching and manually analysing samples of concordance lines can reveal students

[56] http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/

difficulties and consequently aid teachers in determining better techniques to improve students' vocabulary acquisition. However, an expressive number of teachers claim that students find it difficult to interpret information presented in a concordance layout. This is partly true; nevertheless teachers can help learners adapting activities until students are more familiarized with concordancing software.

Another interesting area that can be addressed using DDL is the teaching of semantic prosody. This concept is not well explored in language teaching, despite the benefits it can bring to students´ learning process. O´Keeffe et. al (2007) observe the importance of semantic prosody for vocabulary teaching. According to the authors (ibid: 104) it is crucial to raise learners' awareness of the contextual environment of a word. Previous work carried out by Louw (1993), Sinclair (2004) and Schimitt (2006) shed light to the role played by semantic prosodic in determining basic and advanced levels in vocabulary learning a notion presented in O´Keeffe's (2007) book. Figure 3 illustrates the concept of semantic prosody in the COCA's newspaper section.

Fig. 3- Sample of concordance lines for the word *commit*.



Stubbs (1995: 25) points out that "it is becoming increasingly well documented that words may habitually collocate with other words from a definable semantic set". Partington (1998: 68) posits that ''semantic prosody

refers to the spreading of connotational colouring beyond single word boundaries". For instance, in the case of commit, studied by Partington (1998, 67), it is claimed that the unfavorable connotation extends over the word itself and with the other words it collocates with, predominantly related to negative meanings and unpleasant situations, for example, 'murder', 'suicide' and 'crime'. Building on these ideas it is instrumental to find ways to include word-choice and semantic prosody in language teaching and DDT proves to be well suitable for this purpose.

Half of the examples from figure 3 associate the word *commit* to something unpleasant or undesirable. In other words, one could state that commit has a negative semantic prosody and it usually co-occur with words that carry a negative meaning, which in turn invoke a specific context for their use. The most effective way to broaden students understanding of vocabulary learning and its multi-level characteristic is allowing learners with the opportunity to manipulate real language samples from different genres. Vocabulary acquisition is at the heart of language teaching. Besides, teachers face difficulties when teaching vocabulary as can be seen in extract 2.

Extract 2-

I am so glad to read all your comments, due to them I could realized that unfortunately, I have rarely used DDL in the classroom but thanks to the opportunity this post graduation course is providing me, I will be able to prepare activities using it specially to practice vocabulary. Although believing that it is not an impossible task to teach English students using DDL materials it is challenging. One of the ideas that I had during this online course is that we have to used it first and research the materials that are already available in the literature to get to know how teachers are applying for the students. Another action that we should perform to overcome these difficulties is that we could select the concordance lines according to our students levels so that they would not be confused with the amount of vocabulary they have to learn. I hope I could add something for the discussion. (from a teacher taking part in the Diploma Course)

As we have attempted to argue here, DDT can represent a very effective way to address grammar, word choice and semantic prosody. By encouraging autonomy and self-study, it can enhance several sub-skills, which are considered essential in learning in general and in language mastering in particular, for example, predicting, observing, noticing, reasoning, analyzing, reflecting and exploring.

Nonetheless, the limitations of DDT have also been pointed out by many teachers and scholars, for example, in term of the shortage of multi-media resources, together with the difficult that may arise when one attempts to use this approach with beginners, who may lack language repertoire. The teacher's testimonies we presented in this paper also reflect these shortcomings.

Yet, some teachers are willing to vary the resources they bring to their classes and include DDT and concordances lines as part of their practice. Extract 3 brings part of a comment made by a teacher.

Extract 3

The Data-driven learning allows students to use in class authentic material, which may raise students positive attitude towards learning. I'm quite likely to combine the DDT with the inductive approach during my next language lesson – first conditional -, in which I expect students to find out some patterns in pre-selected structures from COCA, and then they may be able to come up with grammar rules to the grammar topic. This lesson might be less teacher-centred. Moreover, I hope to help students work on their autonomy.

(from a teacher taking part in the Diploma Course).

From the extract above, we can notice that not only did the teacher acknowledge the importance of using authentic materials in the classroom, he also reputes DDT as an effective resource for teaching grammar in an inductive way.

6. Final remarks

In this paper, we argued in favor of the use of DDT and corpora tools in order to foster language awareness. The in-class activities we showed here were an attempt to highlight the potentiality of this approach to address grammar awareness, word choice and semantic prosody. By means of this theoretical framework, we believe teachers can expand their resources towards the goal of bridging the gap between information technology and teacher's knowledge.

The approach suggested here is based on usage and it has the further advantage of providing learners with a privileged front-seat to comparison, contrast and evaluation, which are, as a matter of fact, strategic meta-

cognitive skills for learning in general and for mastering language proficiency in particular.

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In this chapter, Bárbara Malveira Orfanó and Leonardo Pereira Nunes offer an account of the fundamental principles associated with the use of corpora tools in the language classroom. The text provides the reader with a privileged front seat to the use of these teaching resources with sample activities of various kinds. It is at one time practical and theoretically informed. A mandatory reading for any language teacher in search of professional development.

Marisa Mendonça Carneiro and Ana Larissa Oliveira

Corpus Linguistics and English teaching: challenges and possibilities

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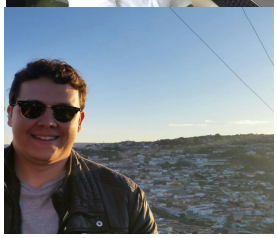


Overview

Over the past years, there has been some endeavour to use corpora in language teaching. Scholars have been constantly carrying out research so as to develop didactic materials containing language produced spontaneously both by native speakers and foreign/second language learners. Teachers have also perceived and acknowledged the importance of materials with a more comprehensive grasp of linguistic features and have therefore made use of them for pedagogical purposes. In spite of theoretical and pragmatic issues that have to a certain extent hindered this interface, this chapter addresses how Corpus Linguistics and the use of corpora have positively impacted language teaching (including English) and presents interesting functional tools and activities that can be used in the classroom environment.

1. What is Corpus Linguistics?

Corpus Linguistics (CL) is a methodological framework involving the analysis of texts which have been naturally and authentically produced. It aims at exploring elements of a certain language or language variety through evidence found in a *corpus* (or *corpora* in the Latin plural). A corpus is a group of gathered texts based on a set of linguistic principles and criteria and whose linguistic elements can be retrieved and investigated by electronic means (MCENERY; WILSON, 2001; SARDINHA, 2004). Considering the advent of modern technology, computational resources are therefore of utmost importance as they are widely used to query corpora automatically or semi-automatically.

2. What are the features of a corpus?

There are many types of corpora, and this variation mainly depends on the criteria used for building (or compiling) them and the linguistic aspects to be investigated. Features such as *mode* (written *vs* spoken), *time* dimension (contemporary *vs* historic / synchronic *vs* diachronic), *selection* (fixed size *vs* variable size), *content* (specific genres, registers, one or more languages), *authorship* (native speakers *vs* learners), *internal layout* (originals *vs* translations) and *purpose* (studying, contrasting and testing aspects) are to be considered when compiling a corpus (SARDINHA, 2004).

So that a corpus is a representative piece of language in which elements can be somehow generalized, it ought to be previously designed and compiled by taking balance, sampling and size into consideration.

A balanced corpus should comprise a reasonable number of text categories of a certain language and/or language variety. Such categories are usually grounded on text typology, which means that texts are categorized according to field of knowledge, time of production, medium of production and level of formality (MCENERY; XIAO; TONO, 2006).

Sampling can be seen as a certain amount of texts that are representative of a population of texts. Such population may comprise a selection of textual materials, such as newspapers and journals, for instance.

Depending on the linguistic elements to be queried, texts can be selected either by numbering and then by random choice or by a homogeneous division in which portions are then also chosen randomly (MCENERY; XIAO ; TONO, 2006).

Size is also a very relevant feature of a corpus. According to Kennedy (1998), the total number of words (tokens) and different words (types), as well as the number of categories and samples to be integrated into the corpus are to be a limited but representative portion of all the writing and/or speech produced in a certain language and/or language variety. In that respect, Biber (1990, 1993b) states that samples that range from 2000 to 5000 words are roughly sufficient to represent text categories, although pilot studies are usually carried out in order to test such design.

3. Resources for corpus investigation

A number of procedures are used to search a corpus, to gain information or display the facts about language that are under investigation. The most used ones are word-lists, concordance lines, cluster-lists and keywords. All of them can be used when designing activities and for that reason we shall shortly explain each one before discussing how they can be used in language teaching.

4. Word-lists

The most used format in displaying information about the linguistic elements in a corpus is generated by means of listing and counting (Kennedy, 1998:244). Word lists can be organized either alphabetically or in descending order, which is the most common one. Word lists, as pointed out by Kennedy (ibid: 248), are useful to identify the words most likely to be met by users of the language in particular domains. Arguing along the same lines, O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter (2007) also emphasize that word frequency lists are essential for identifying the core vocabulary of English for pedagogical purpose.

4.1 Concordance Lines

According to Hunston (2002:39), a concordancer is a program that searches a corpus for a selected word or phrase, and shows every occurrence of that word or phrase in the centre of the computer screen, with the words that come before and after it to the left and the right. Concordancing is the most basic way of processing information enabling researchers to investigate the meaning and behaviour of individual items, and also the pragmatic meaning of given phrases. Concordance lines are used as a source to provide authentic examples of the use of words.

4.2 Cluster lists

The procedure of generating cluster lists is similar to making single word lists. The researcher decides the number of word combinations, for instance 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6-words and any cut-off points for frequency (see, CARTER; MCCARTHY, 2004). According to Carter and McCarthy (ibid), corpora display the 'regular patterned preferences for modes of expression of language users in given contexts, and show how speakers orient themselves towards the same language patterns when involved in comparable social activities'. Moreover, the analysis of how language systematically clusters into combinations of words can give significant insights into vocabulary description, curriculum design and vocabulary acquisition, and fluency development (O'KEEFFE, MCCARTHY ; CARTER, 2007).

4.3 Keywords

This tool allows us to identify keywords in one or more texts. According to Scott (1999) a key-word list comprises words whose frequency is unusually high in comparison with some norm. Scott (ibid) puts forward the idea that keywords provide a useful way of characterising a text or a genre and have potential applications in teaching. O'Keeffe (2007:13) observes that keywords can be used by teachers and materials writers to create word-lists for English for Specific Purposes programmes (English for doctors).

Researchers believe that it is important for teachers to be aware and comfortable with using the functions described above. The lack of theoretical background on how a corpus is compiled, softwares used for language analysis[57] and the basic tools that can be applied to language teaching might be responsible for the inexpressive use of CL in English Language Teaching (ELT). The next section will review and discuss how corpora can assist ELT.

5. Corpora and English Language Teaching

As previously stated, corpora investigations have been employed in a range of fields within Applied Linguistics, including ELT. Such interface, however, has not always been a well-articulated one. As Mukherjee and Rohrbach (2006) point out, corpus linguists within SLA (Second Language Acquisition) have not attempted a proficuous redefinition of their research in order to cater for the ELT community's pedagogical needs. In turn, such a community has not thoroughly recognized the relevance of corpus-informed activities based on applied linguists' findings. For this reason, the referred authors claim that a complementary view both from Corpus Linguistics and from language-pedagogy is a necessity for a more fruitful approach to be used in the classroom.

Römer (2011:205) agrees that CL has had a great impact on the teaching of English, but states that corpora and corpus tools has not yet been fully implemented in pedagogical contexts and observes that much work still remains to be done. The author puts forward the idea that when referring to the applications of corpora in second language (L2) teaching, it is necessary to include the use of corpus tools and corpus methods. In addition, when mentioning pedagogical corpus applications: the use of corpus tools and methods in a language teaching and language learning context, one needs to distinguish between direct and indirect applications. The former makes reference to how something is taught and learned, thus involving the learner and the teacher in the process of working with corpora. The latter involves

[57] It is important to mention that there are toolkits freely available on the web, such as *AntConc*, which can be downloaded at http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/. However, other programs only have demo versions available without any cost, such as *WordSmith Tools*. This can be downloaded at http://www.lexically.net/wordsmith/version5/index.html.

taking decisions on what to teach and when to teach it having an impact on the teaching syllabus and the design of teaching materials (ibid:206).

Both applications have yielded a fruitful debate among researchers and have positively informed material designers. Probably the strongest argument in favour of using CL in language teaching lies on the fact that when using corpus-based materials teachers are bringing to the classroom real language samples from a variety of contexts. This authentic use of language is in conflict with the prefabricated content that is usually found in textbooks. Besides, when corpus-based activities are brought to class, for example Data-Driven-Learning activities, students take the role of 'language investigators' by moving from a passive to a more active learning position, and this approach is definitely in line with contemporary views of language teaching.

Over the past 30 years, the number of research papers and reference books on the use of CL in ELT teaching and learning have promoted a positive impact on English teaching. For an in-depth reading we suggest: (Fox, 1998; Hunston, 2002; O'Keeffe ; Farr, 2003, Bernardini, 2004, Conrad, 2004; Dutra, 2009; Bennett, 2010; Meunier, 2011; Römer, 2011 and Almeida 2014).

5.1 Suitable corpora to be used in English Language Teaching

Few years ago, it was difficult and expensive to get access to a corpus. First, most corpora were compiled for research purposes being available for restricted research groups. In addition to that, book publishers were financing the compilation of different kinds of corpora as they started to be used in dictionaries, course-books and reference books. There are still many projects financed by publishers willing to enhance the quality of their material, including samples of real language in the content of their books.

However, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, advances in technology have been essential to the dissemination of corpus studies. Nowadays, it is reasonable to say that anyone can build a corpus (considering how easy it is to download different types of texts on the internet). In fact, some researchers acknowledge that teachers should build their own corpus to better suit their students' needs. Leel (2011) reports on his experience of building a small corpus of Harry Potter's seven books. He states that students were highly

motivated in practicing prepositions with concordance lines taken from the Harry Potter corpus.

Another possibility is to compile a corpus comprising students' production. Granger (2009:5) highlights that with learner corpus it is possible to undertake pieces of research on learner language in its own right (by looking at aspects of learner proficiency across levels, major 'errors', competency and achievements, *etc.*), as well as by comparing it against 'native' language to reveal the learners' language own features. Aijmer (2002:56) also reinforces the argument that by contrasting a learner corpus against a 'native' corpus it is possible to uncover particular features of a specific L2 and shed light on the 'overuse or underuse (rather than simply misuse) of linguistic items'.

Teachers have now at their disposal corpora from different genres that can be used in their classes in a variety of ways. It would be impossible to list and comment all of them and here we will limit to the ones that we judge to be of importance: The Contemporary Corpus of American English (COCA)[58], the Lextutor[59] and the British National Corpus (BNC)[60] are good ones to start. All of them are freely available and anyone can search for words, expressions or the parts of speech of a specific word. Lists can be generated and it is even possible to have access to audio-recording data. These online corpora and many other ones[61] that were not mentioned here offer different learning experiences for their users. The next section brings activities prepared by English teachers[62] followed by our comments. The idea is to demonstrate, in a more practical way, how CL can be incorporated in ELT.

6 Corpus-based activities

Designing activities using corpus tools is becoming more common as teachers' understanding of Corpus Linguistics increases. Despite the claim that designing corpora-based activities is a challenging task, there is a large

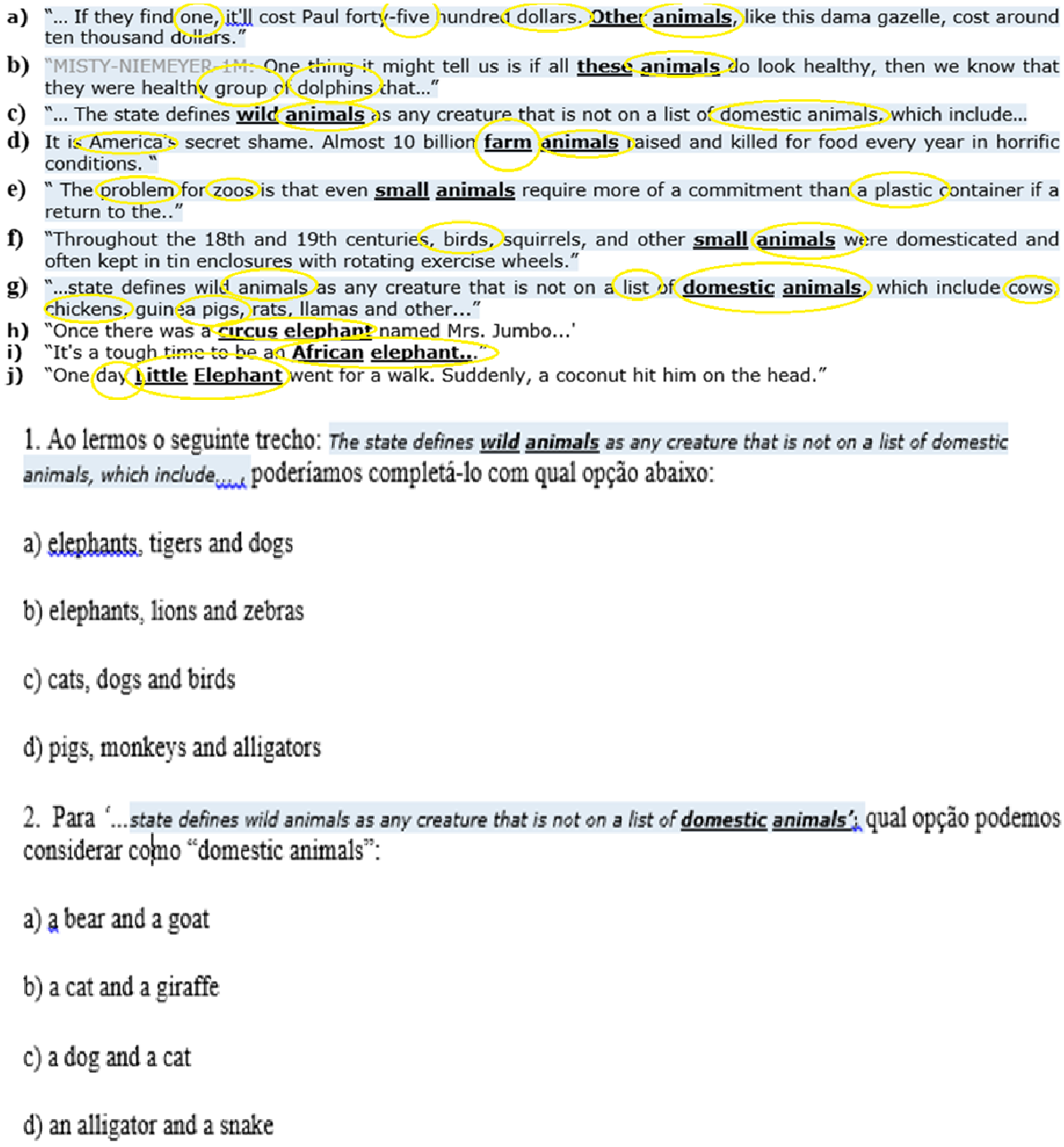
[58] http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
[59] Access to Lextutor: http://www.lextutor.ca/
[60] Acess to BNC: http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/
[61] Access this website for a list of online corpora: http://martinweisser.org/corpora_site/CBLLinks.html
[62] We are grateful to Eliene de Souza Paulino and Valdênia Almeida for giving permission to use their activities in this chapter

number of teachers willing to take a try. It is important to bear in mind that one of the most important characteristics of CL lies on the fact that all texts are samples of authentic language which alone bring numerous advantages for students' learning process. The Chapter on data-driven-learning in this book also deals with and some of the examples made reference to CL and its implications to material design. In this present chapter, we chose to demonstrate how corpus-based activities can be used as an extra resource in ELT with the hope that these examples can motivate other teachers. We do so by illustrating with activities designed by English teachers that took into consideration their students' needs and the resources available having in mind their teaching context. The next section brings examples of vocabulary, collocations, grammar and writing activities.

6.1 Vocabulary

The contribution of CL to our understanding of vocabulary has given us the opportunity to study its use in real context searching both written and spoken language. O´Keeffe *et al*. (2007) makes reference to how CL has contributed to vocabulary teaching emphasizing its role in identifying English core vocabulary, the most common word categories and how these can contribute to determining students' level (basic, intermediate and advanced). As a result, teachers are better informed about the vocabulary that should be taught in class, the relation between words and specific contexts of use. As a result, they can give students effective feedback on how they use vocabulary in speech and writing. O´Keeffe *et al*. (ibid:56) calls our attention to the fact that developing skills and awareness that 'will stand the learner in good stead for becoming an autonomous vocabulary-learner is a question of developing activities alongside the actual learning of words which introduce to the learner notions such as collocation, metaphor and etc'. The activity below designed by an English teacher from a public school in Contagem/MG is a good example of what O'Keefe's *et al*. (ibid.) has mentioned about vocabulary teaching.

Example 1 - Teaching vocabulary associated with animals



a) "... If they find one, it'll cost Paul forty-five hundred dollars. Other **animals**, like this dama gazelle, cost around ten thousand dollars."
b) "MISTY-NIEMEYER-1M: One thing it might tell us is if all **these animals** do look healthy, then we know that they were healthy group of dolphins that..."
c) "... The state defines **wild animals** as any creature that is not on a list of domestic animals, which include...
d) It is America's secret shame. Almost 10 billion **farm animals** raised and killed for food every year in horrific conditions. "
e) " The problem for zoos is that even **small animals** require more of a commitment than a plastic container if a return to the.."
f) "Throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, birds, squirrels, and other **small animals** were domesticated and often kept in tin enclosures with rotating exercise wheels."
g) "...state defines wild animals as any creature that is not on a list of **domestic animals**, which include cows, chickens, guinea pigs, rats, llamas and other..."
h) "Once there was a **circus elephant** named Mrs. Jumbo...'
i) "It's a tough time to be an **African elephant**..."
j) "One day **Little Elephant** went for a walk. Suddenly, a coconut hit him on the head."

1. Ao lermos o seguinte trecho: *The state defines **wild animals** as any creature that is not on a list of domestic animals, which include.....* poderíamos completá-lo com qual opção abaixo:

a) elephants, tigers and dogs

b) elephants, lions and zebras

c) cats, dogs and birds

d) pigs, monkeys and alligators

2. Para *'...state defines wild animals as any creature that is not on a list of **domestic animals'***, qual opção podemos considerar como "domestic animals":

a) a bear and a goat

b) a cat and a giraffe

c) a dog and a cat

d) an alligator and a snake

(source: Eliene Paulino, 2014)

It is important to mention that this activity was prepared for children aging 9-12 years old. Using concordance lines, first they were asked to circle the words they already knew. Following this, they had to group animals in the *domestic* and *wild* categories. According to the teacher the activity was successful and students were highly motivated while completing the tasks. This example contradicts the claim that corpus-based activities are not suitable for beginners. In fact, it demonstrates that even in an early age

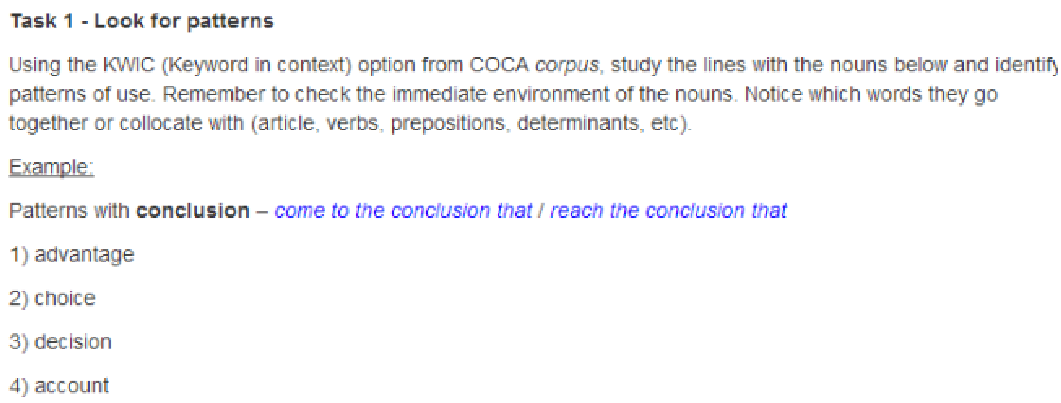
learners can engage with concordance lines as long as they are introduced to them in an appropriate way considering age and proficiency level.

6.2 Collocations

Words do not appear in isolation, and for that reason they should not be taught this way. Besides, having good vocabulary knowledge goes beyond understanding the definition of single words. In addition, the reason for the high frequency of some single words is due to the fact that they co-occur with another word. Vocabulary items pattern together creating, for example, fixed expressions, phrasal verbs and idioms. Corpus-based activities can offer good learning opportunities for raising students' awareness to the importance of how words cluster together. Almeida (2014) studied the importance of teaching collocations for EFL students and proposed some activities using COCA.

Example 2 - Using the Keyword in context tool from COCA so that students have to look for the collocations of specific words

Task 1 - Look for patterns



Task 1 - Look for patterns

Using the KWIC (Keyword in context) option from COCA *corpus*, study the lines with the nouns below and identify patterns of use. Remember to check the immediate environment of the nouns. Notice which words they go together or collocate with (article, verbs, prepositions, determinants, etc).

Example:

Patterns with **conclusion** – *come to the conclusion that / reach the conclusion that*

1) advantage

2) choice

3) decision

4) account

(source: Valdênia Almeida, 2014)

In example 2 the teacher is asking students to search independently the corpus for patterns of specific words. Differently from the first example, in order to complete the task students need to have access to the corpus and some previous knowledge of the tools and resources available for users in COCA. However, it is not a difficult task and students benefit in a numerous of

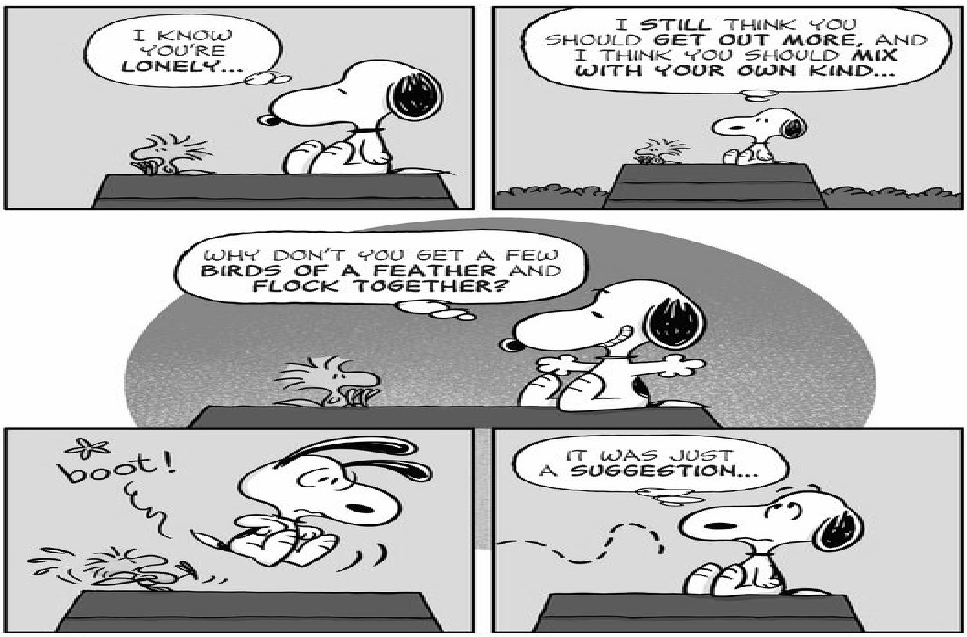
ways while searching the corpus for patterns (access to real language, develop autonomy and expand vocabulary, to name a few).

6.3 Grammar

Another significant contribution of CL to English teaching is the paradigmatic shift on grammar teaching. In line with an approach that contemplates a more descriptive view of grammar focusing on its context of use rather than on a rigid set of rules, CL findings are informing material designers promoting changes in English classes. Moreover, CL has put in evidence the intertwined relationship between lexis and grammar. Vocabulary cannot be dissociated from grammar and understanding this consequently leads us to a view of grammar that contemplates meaning and form. Besides, it is the combination of both (meaning and form) that enables students to realize language in its different context of use.

Example 3 - Discussing the meaning of *should* in the comic strip.

1- Read the comic strip[63] and answer the question. What is the meaning of the word *should* in the comic?



[63] Comic strip taken from: https://br.pinterest.com/pin/378161699942887321/ (20/09/2016)

2- The examples below were taken from COCA (spoken section). What linguistic resources are being used to soften the strength of the utterances?

1-Maybe you should throw it away before you put the blood in there.
2-well, I should say, three of you were 2006 bronze medalists in curling, the only U.S.
3-I don't know if you can see, but it's definitely bent. It should be straight, but
4-I think this man should be celebrated and applauded. Not condemned.
5-But more importantly, after 40 years in Washington, I perhaps should be more, I shouldn't be accused of being politically naive, but I

(activity designed by the authors)

The activity above is a good example of how CL can contribute to the teaching of grammar in a more 'holistic' way. The activity combines text genre and concordance lines to illustrate the meaning of a modal verb and how its use is determined by the context in which it occurs. The teacher has the possibility to choose which aspect needs more attention according to students' proficiency levels and interest.

6.4 Writing

It is becoming common for teachers familiar with Corpus Linguistics to use corpora based activities as a way of providing feedback. Gaskell and Cobb (2004:304), for example, propose the use of concordance lines to help students improve their writing. The authors report on an experience in which students errors were highlighted in a word document with hyperlinks to concordance lines with the correct form in multiple examples. The task for students was to correct their mistakes by analyzing examples from the concordance lines. They concluded that this way of giving feedback allowed students the opportunity to draw conclusions on their own which in turn helped them develop other cognitive skills. The last example illustrates this.

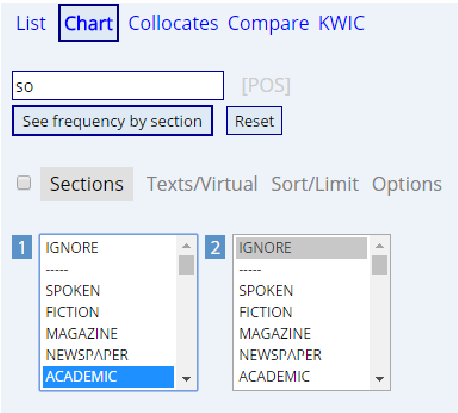
Example 4 - Activity focusing on the use of linking adverbials

We can see that the divorce grow every year and women are more close of the numbers of mens divorce, this shows a tendence of the society. So this is important and can be harmful for a children. Because the children

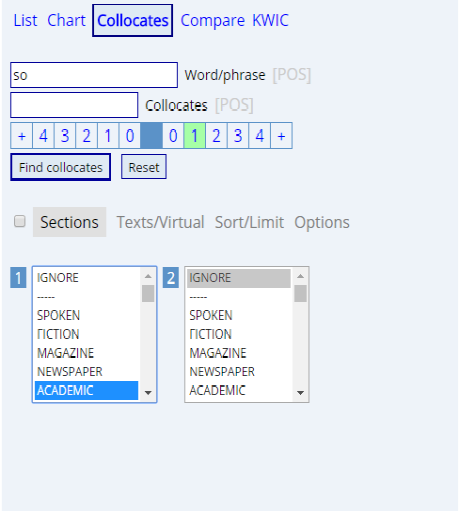
can be depressed and have other mental problems, for the society this is dificult because people started to think that divorce is comum and natural so the vision of fidelity no longer exist ...

The paragraph above is part of an integrated writing task written by an EFL student. The aim of the activity illustrated here is to raise students' awareness on the correct use of linking adverbial *so*.

1- Using the chart function from COCA type so and check its frequency in each sections of the corpus.



2- Go to the collocation function and type so and choose the option to search for the first word that collocates with so on the right.



3- According to the result you had in number 2 analyse the examples and correct your paragraph.

The four activities presented here are just illustrations of a sea of possibilities that can be used in English classrooms. We believe that they have the potential to make students understand the role of context in language and the need for learners to assume a more protagonist role in learning.

7. Concluding Remarks

First, it is of paramount importance to explain that this chapter briefly outlined the most important issues concerning CL and English Teaching and we advise the reader to search for more publications in the area. The aim here was to give teachers good reasons for integrating corpus-based activities in their classes.

Basic theoretical background was presented including some background in CL, the definition of terms, explanation of basic corpus tools and examples of corpora suitable for language teaching. This section is important as previous studies indicate the necessity for ELT teachers to understand the principles of CL. We agree with Mukherjee and Rohrbach (2006) that EFL teachers need to be more acquainted with CL to properly present corpus-based activities to their students.

This chapter hopes to have demystified the idea that it is hard to use corpus-based activities and that they only work with advanced students. The number of free online resources available for teaching using corpus tools is now significant and is still increasing. Teachers need to find ways to introduce concordance line activities in a more friendly way for students adapting and grading exercises according to their proficiency level.

There is also a good number of reference books that can be used by teachers. It might be easier to use corpus-based activities with advanced students; however, the activities presented in this chapter showed that it is also possible to design having students from lower proficiency levels in mind. Definitely, it will demand more from teachers (copying concordance lines and pasting on word documents), filling in gaps, making word lists, matching columns and many other possibilities, in sum, working as mediators for students. Fortunately, Corpus Linguistics is finding its way in language classrooms and research is proving that when used properly it contributes to

students' language development. The challenge is exciting and can be fruitful for the area as it indicates new paths to take.

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