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Chapter 1 : Cognitive Science - Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Linguistics

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History[edit] Cognitive linguistics is a relatively modern branch of linguistics. It was founded by George Lakoff and Ronald Langacker. Lakoff coined the term "cognitive linguistics" in his book "Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things", one of his most famous writings. Lakoff had already previously written many publications discussing the role of various cognitive processes involved in the use of language. Some Preliminary Speculations", in which he also coined the term "cognitive grammar". However, by the end of the s, the field had attracted the attention of many people and started to grow. The journal Cognitive Linguistics was established in as the first journal specialized in research in that field. This stands in contrast to the stance adopted by Noam Chomsky and others in the field of generative grammar. Although cognitive linguists do not necessarily deny that part of the human linguistic ability is innate, they deny that it is separate from the rest of cognition. They thus reject a body of opinion in cognitive science suggesting that there is evidence for the modularity of language. Departing from the tradition of truth-conditional semantics, cognitive linguists view meaning in terms of conceptualization. Instead of viewing meaning in terms of models of the world, they view it in terms of mental spaces. They argue that knowledge of linguistic phenomena is i. However, they assert that the storage and retrieval of linguistic data is not significantly different from the storage and retrieval of other knowledge, and that use of language in understanding employs similar cognitive abilities to those used in other non-linguistic tasks. Three dogmas of embodiment[edit] Cognitive linguistics suffers from three defective dogmas, which are the scope of much of the criticism CL receives. These three dogmas are from the hypotheses of embodiment engendered by CL. Embodiment as an eliminative reductionism: Sociocultural linguistics is an interdisciplinary science that conceptualize the linguistics as a resultant of the interaction of language with social and cultural components. However, cognitive linguistics empirical methodologies somehow contradict this. The main objection to this concept is that the excessive focus on the brain structure, anatomically and functionally, will eliminate the socio-cultural theories of language. Embodiment as temporally static: This dogma complements the first one. We are live creatures, our brain is a dynamic and organic organ, and the development of the brain across time is a critical factor in determining the brain functions, the structure of the brain, and the molecular processes that govern it. Brain functions suffer a lot of biological variabilities; it varies across age; children, adults, and aging brain, it varies in right-handed versus left-handed people, in certain injuries, and evolutionarily over generations. Thus, since brain function and structure are dynamic, then language must be dynamic too. However, results from cognitive linguistics, so far, do not take the temporal progression into consideration. It merely describe facts about the use of language under certain solid conditions. Embodiment as consciousness or as unconscious: Nevertheless, that is not the case in cognitive linguistics. For example, our brain slices sound waves into phonemes unconsciously. Such process is studied using techniques like EEG which is not informative about whether neurolinguistics processes are conscious or not. These two commitments are the basis of orientation and approach followed by cognitive linguists: The aim of the generalization commitment is to pinpoint the broadest generalizations. Thus, molding and understanding general rules that fit all aspects and characteristics of human language. The cognitive commitment aim is to characterize the general principles of used language that are consistent with what is known about brain anatomy and functions from other sciences. So, this core philosophy of this commitment is that rules of the used language should agree with what is known about cognition from other sciences, especially psychology and cognitive neuroscience. Cognitive semantics, dealing mainly with lexical semantics, separating semantics meaning into meaning-construction and knowledge representation. Cognitive approaches to grammar, dealing mainly with syntax, morphology and other traditionally more grammar-oriented areas. Cognitive phonology, dealing with classification of various

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correspondences between morphemes and phonetic sequences. Aspects of cognition that are of interest to cognitive linguists include:

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Chapter 2 : A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning | Applied Linguistics | Oxford University Press

An examination of second language learning focuses on how universal cognitive processes in language learning and individual differences account for differences in language learning patterns. An introductory section gives background information suggesting that psycholinguistic factors in language.

Order of acquisition In the s, several studies investigated the order in which learners acquired different grammatical structures. Furthermore, it showed that the order was the same for adults and children, and that it did not even change if the learner had language lessons. This supported the idea that there were factors other than language transfer involved in learning second languages, and was a strong confirmation of the concept of interlanguage. However, the studies did not find that the orders were exactly the same. Although there were remarkable similarities in the order in which all learners learned second-language grammar, there were still some differences among individuals and among learners with different first languages. It is also difficult to tell when exactly a grammatical structure has been learned, as learners may use structures correctly in some situations but not in others. Thus it is more accurate to speak of sequences of acquisition, in which specific grammatical features in a language are acquired before or after certain others but the overall order of acquisition is less rigid. For example, if neither feature B nor feature D can be acquired until feature A has been acquired and if feature C cannot be acquired until feature B has been acquired but if the acquisition of feature D does not require the possession of feature B or, therefore, of feature C, then both acquisition order A, B, C, D and acquisition order A, D, B, C are possible. Variability[edit] Although second-language acquisition proceeds in discrete sequences, it does not progress from one step of a sequence to the next in an orderly fashion. However, most variation is systemic variation, variation that depends on the context of utterances the learner makes. Language transfer One important difference between first-language acquisition and second-language acquisition is that the process of second-language acquisition is influenced by languages that the learner already knows. This influence is known as language transfer. If this happens, the acquisition of more complicated language forms may be delayed in favor of simpler language forms that resemble those of the language the learner is familiar with. Stephen Krashen took a very strong position on the importance of input, asserting that comprehensible input is all that is necessary for second-language acquisition. Further evidence for input comes from studies on reading: He claims that such sequencing, as found in language classrooms where lessons involve practicing a "structure of the day", is not necessary, and may even be harmful. For example, students enrolled in French- language immersion programs in Canada still produced non-native-like grammar when they spoke, even though they had years of meaning-focused lessons and their listening skills were statistically native-level. The modifications to speech arising from interactions like this help make input more comprehensible, provide feedback to the learner, and push learners to modify their speech. This area of research is based in the more general area of cognitive science, and uses many concepts and models used in more general cognitive theories of learning. As such, cognitive theories view second-language acquisition as a special case of more general learning mechanisms in the brain. This puts them in direct contrast with linguistic theories, which posit that language acquisition uses a unique process different from other types of learning. In the first stage, learners retain certain features of the language input in short-term memory. This retained input is known as intake. Then, learners convert some of this intake into second-language knowledge, which is stored in long-term memory. Finally, learners use this second-language knowledge to produce spoken output. In the early days of second-language acquisition research on interlanguage was seen as the basic representation of second-language knowledge; however, more recent research has taken a number of different approaches in characterizing the mental representation of language knowledge. Micro-processes include attention; [52] working memory; [53] integration and restructuring. Restructuring is the process by which learners change their interlanguage systems; [54] and monitoring is the conscious attending of learners to their own language output. Of these three, planning effects on fluency has

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had the most research attention. Their effect on second-language acquisition is unclear, with some researchers claiming they help it, and others claiming the opposite. For example, a learner may use more polite language when talking to someone of higher social status, but more informal language when talking with friends. Immersion programs are educational programs where children are instructed in an L2 language. The goal of these programs is to develop a high level of proficiency in both the L1 and L2 languages. Students in immersion programs have been shown to have greater levels of proficiency in their second language than students who receive second language education only as a subject in school. Also, students who join immersion programs earlier generally have greater second-language proficiency than their peers who join later. However, students who join later have been shown to gain native-like proficiency. Grammatical skills and the ability to have precise vocabulary are particular areas of struggle. It is argued that immersion is necessary, but not sufficient for the development of native-like proficiency in a second language. A smaller social distance is likely to encourage learners to acquire the second language, as their investment in the learning process is greater. Conversely, a greater social distance discourages attempts to acquire the target language. Females have been found to have higher motivation and more positive attitudes than males for second-language acquisition. However, females are also more likely to present higher levels of anxiety, which may inhibit their ability to efficiently learn a new language. Factors, such as integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation drive motivation. The outcome of positive motivation is not only linguistic, but non-linguistic, such that the learner has met the desired goal. It was originally developed by Lev Vygotsky and his followers. The ZPD notion states that social interaction with more advanced target language users allows one to learn language at a higher level than if they were to learn language independently. According to Ellis, "It is important to recognize They differ from cognitive approaches and sociocultural approaches in that they consider language knowledge to be unique and distinct from any other type of knowledge. They are found empirically, by surveying different languages and deducing which aspects of them could be universal; these aspects are then checked against other languages to verify the findings. The interlanguages of second-language learners have been shown to obey typological universals, and some researchers have suggested that typological universals may constrain interlanguage development. It focuses on describing the linguistic competence of an individual. He believed that children not only acquire language by learning descriptive rules of grammar; he claimed that children creatively play and form words as they learn language, creating meaning of these words, as opposed to the mechanism of memorizing language. For example, L2-users often display knowledge about their L2 that they have not been exposed to. This unsourced knowledge suggests the existence of a universal grammar. Individual variation in second-language acquisition There is considerable variation in the rate at which people learn second languages, and in the language level that they ultimately reach. Some learners learn quickly and reach a near-native level of competence, but others learn slowly and get stuck at relatively early stages of acquisition, despite living in the country where the language is spoken for several years. The reason for this disparity was first addressed with the study of language learning aptitude in the s, and later with the good language learner studies in the s. The relationship between age and the ability to learn languages has also been a subject of long-standing debate. Age[edit] The issue of age was first addressed with the critical period hypothesis. However, the exact age marking the end of the critical period is debated, and ranges from age 6 to 13, with many arguing that it is around the onset of puberty. However, in general, adult learners of a second-language rarely achieve the native-like fluency that children display, despite often progressing faster in the initial stages. This has led to speculation that age is indirectly related to other, more central factors that affect language learning. Children who acquire two languages from birth are called simultaneous bilinguals. In these cases, both languages are spoken to the children by their parents or caregivers and they grow up knowing the two languages. These children generally reach linguistic milestones at the same time as their monolingual peers. One argument for this is that simultaneous bilinguals develop more distinct representations of their languages, especially with regards to phonological and semantic levels of processing. Conversely, learning a language later in life would lead to more similar semantic representations.

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Once surpassed, older learners often display clear language deficiencies compared to child learners. This has been attributed to having a solid grasp on the first language or mother tongue they were first immersed into. Having this cognitive ability already developed can aid the process of learning a second language since there is a better understanding of how language works. The exact language deficiencies that occur past a certain age are not unanimously agreed upon. Some believe that only pronunciation is affected, while others believe other abilities are affected as well. However, some differences that are generally agreed upon include older learners having a noticeable accent, a smaller vocabulary, and making several linguistic errors. One explanation for this difference in proficiency between older learners and younger learners involves Universal Grammar. Universal Grammar is a debated theory that suggests that people have innate knowledge of universal linguistic principles that is present from birth. Even with less advantageous nonbiological influences, many child learners attain a greater level of proficiency than adult learners with more advantageous nonbiological influences. Strategies have been found to be of critical importance, so much so that strategic competence has been suggested as a major component of communicative competence. Learning strategies are techniques used to improve learning, such as mnemonics or using a dictionary. If learning strategies and communicative strategies are used properly language acquisition is successful. Some points to keep in mind while learning an additional language are: Anxiety in language-learning situations has been almost unanimously shown to be detrimental to successful learning. Anxiety interferes with the mental processing of language because the demands of anxiety-related thoughts create competition for mental resources. This results in less available storage and energy for tasks required for language processing. A related factor, personality, has also received attention. There has been discussion about the effects of extravert and introvert personalities. Extraverted qualities may help learners seek out opportunities and people to assist with L2 learning, whereas introverts may find it more difficult to seek out such opportunities for interaction. Further, while extraversion might be beneficial through its encouragement of learning autonomously, it may also present challenges as learners may find reflective and time-management skills to be difficult. Social attitudes such as gender roles and community views toward language learning have also proven critical. Language learning can be severely hampered by cultural attitudes, with a frequently cited example being the difficulty of Navajo children in learning English [citation needed]. Also, the motivation of the individual learner is of vital importance to the success of language learning. Motivation is influenced by goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy. Further, a supportive learning environment facilitates motivation through the increase in self-confidence and autonomy.

Second-language attrition Attrition is the loss of proficiency in a language caused by a lack of exposure to or use of a language. One way it does this is by using L1 as a tool to navigate the periods of change associated with acquisition and attrition. However, according to the regression hypothesis, the stages of attrition occur in reverse order of acquisition. With acquisition, receptive skills develop first, and then productive skills, and with attrition, productive skills are lost first, and then receptive skills. However, if a child has established a high level of proficiency, it may take him or her several years to lose the language. Proficiency level seems to play the largest role in the extent of attrition. For very proficient individuals, there is a period of time where very little, if any, attrition is observed.

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Chapter 3 : Volume 38 Issue 6 | Applied Linguistics | Oxford Academic

theinnatdunvilla.com: A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning (Oxford Applied Linguistics) () by Peter Skehan and a great selection of similar New, Used and Collectible Books available now at great prices.

Advanced Search Abstract This commentary discusses some methodological innovations and challenges in testing two cognitive models of task-based instruction and learning: I argue that there is a need for more extensive use of methods that can provide independent evidence of construct validity for the independent variables and causal processes invoked by the frameworks. By exploring some innovative task-based research and drawing on examples from other fields, I offer suggestions for improving our practices in future research. The primary concern of both frameworks is to explain how task characteristics can affect SLA processes and outcomes, with the ultimate goal of informing task-based syllabus design. Considering the growing popularity of TBLT among educators worldwide, empirical studies testing the models have potentially important implications not only for theory-building but also for pedagogical practice. As such, it is crucial to ensure that appropriate methods are used in assessing their explanatory adequacy. The aim of this commentary is to identify and discuss methodological challenges in investigating the theoretical questions posed by the CH and TOH, and to explore how these challenges may be addressed in future research. I argue that, in order to fully capture and evaluate the key constructs and predictions of the models, researchers need to turn their attention to the explanatory or independent variables and the causal processes posited. This move would supplement and balance the currently dominant focus on the outcome or dependent variables. Building on some innovative task-based studies and research from other fields, I offer suggestions for investigating one of the central explanatory variables of the proposals and the processes it is argued to generate. A principal independent variable in both models is cognitive task demands, which Skehan terms as cognitive complexity and Robinson refers to as task complexity. Drawing on a multiple-resources account of attention, Robinson claims that making tasks more cognitively complex will not only have predictable impact on speech production processes but also allocation of attentional and memory resources to input, and retention of that input. In both models, a key dependent variable is quality of linguistic performance defined in terms of indices of complexity, accuracy, and fluency CAF. Applying this to the TOH and CH, it follows that researchers need to supply specific and separate evidence for all proposed factors, from the independent variables including cognitive task complexity, through the explanatory processes of speech production and attentional allocation, to the dependent variables of CAF measures. Let us consider the extent to which current research practices evident in the literature meet these criteria. To begin with the positives, recently much progress has been achieved in understanding and exploring methods that are suitable for tapping the dependent variables of interest, for example, CAF measures Housen and Kuiken By comparison, the measurement of the independent factors and the causal processes posited appears to be more problematic. As Norris points out, the most common method to test the TOH and CH involves designing a task and then manipulating it in terms of task complexity, that is, creating a simple and complex task version along a dimension, which is believed to affect the cognitive demands imposed by it. Next, researchers typically measure learner performance using linguistic outcome measures such as CAF under both the simple and complex conditions. This conclusion, however, is based on evidence insufficient to confirm or refute the models, because one step in the reasoning is more often than not skipped. Namely, for any operationalization of task complexity, researchers must seek and furnish independent evidence that the task complexity manipulations have indeed led to the desired changes in cognitive demands, and that any changes in cognitive demands have in fact triggered the causal processes predicted Norris Specifically, it needs to be shown rather than assumed that the task version designed to be more complex is indeed more cognitively demanding. Likewise, independent evidence needs to be gathered for the causal processes that are predicted to take place instead of inferring based on linguistic performance data whether they have occurred. But if researchers must measure explanatory constructs in investigating

task-based models, the question is: What are some possible ways of measuring the cognitive load induced by task manipulations and of investigating the processes that ensue due to any changes in cognitive demands? I turn to methods that appear promising in tackling these challenges. Four such methods also appear to be useful for investigating the CH and TOH, namely, subjective self-ratings, subjective time estimations, secondary task methodology, and psychophysiological techniques. The use of rating scales is motivated by the assumption that people can assign a numerical value to the perceived mental effort expended during cognitive activities. This technique has been employed in a small number of task complexity studies, all of which have adopted or adapted a scale originally introduced by Robinson. Subjective time estimation involves asking participants to estimate the length of time they have taken to perform a given task. A recent meta-analysis Block et al. Baralt, the first to utilize this method in an L2 study of task complexity, found that, as expected, tasks designed to be more complex were perceived to take longer. These results received partial confirmation in a recent study by Malicka and Levkina. Dual task methodology entails performing a task simultaneously with the primary task. Secondary tasks typically include simple activities that require sustained attention. The principle underlying the technique is that performance on the secondary task, assessed in terms of reaction time and accuracy, mirrors the level of cognitive load generated by the primary task. This approach has not yet been applied in task complexity research, even though it has been used in SLA research for other purposes DeKeyser. Finally, physiological methods include measuring heart activity, employing neuro-imaging techniques, and recording eye activity. These methods presume that fluctuations in cognitive load will be reflected in physiological functioning. At this stage of L2 research, a combination of these approaches is probably the best way to gauge the cognitive load imposed by task demands. It is worth pointing out, however, that any results in terms of these indices will inevitably be influenced by individual differences. None of these techniques generate pure or objective measures of task complexity. Rather, they capture how task characteristics and learner factors together contribute to the extent of cognitive effort experienced by learners Bachmann. However, this does not subtract from the fact that these methods appear useful for obtaining independent measurement of cognitive load or effort, which is a key explanatory variable in the CH and TOH. Several of the explanatory processes referred to in the frameworks involve conscious operations e. Therefore, introspective methods seem to offer a useful means of gaining access to aspects of these processes. Among the introspective techniques, probably the stimulated recall procedure Gass and Mackey lends itself best to tapping conscious operations, since both the CH and TOH are primarily concerned with explaining the impact of task manipulations on production-related processes and outcomes. As part of stimulated recalls, learners could be asked to stop videotapes of their performances when they remember experiencing difficulty and could be prompted to describe the source of that difficulty. Researchers could also elicit comments in relation to observable performance phenomena such as pausing behaviour. In computer-mediated contexts, stimulated recall comments could also be triangulated by recordings of eye movements. Eye-tracking methodology is gaining ground in L2 task-related research e. In future task complexity research, it would be desirable if researchers began with investigating whether their manipulations do indeed result in the anticipated changes in task demands. This could be done within a single study that also seeks evidence on outcomes, or it might be done in separate studies that exclusively address the validity of task complexity manipulations and investigate the processes they trigger. As part of this process, various data sources that examine task-generated cognitive load and explanatory processes could be triangulated. Clearly, in the initial stages, the usefulness of these data sources also needs to be assessed.

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Chapter 4 : A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning : Peter Skehan :

Discusses psycholinguistic and cognitive aspects of language. By Peter Skehan. Part of the Oxford Applied Linguistics series.

The Cognitive Approach Historical Background In the late s and early s the fields of psychology and linguistics were experiencing a sort of upheaval. Behaviorism, which had dominated psychology for several decades, was called into question by cognitive psychologists, who asserted that stimulus-response conditioning could not account for all the complexities of human learning. With respect to language learning, a young linguist named Noam Chomsky questioned B. In Chomsky wrote a critical review of B. These developments in psychology and linguistics eventually filtered into foreign language classrooms. During much of the s and 60s the Audiolingual Method, which was based on behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics, had dominated American classrooms. As these theories were called into question, the Audiolingual Method lost credibility as well. In addition, some students and teachers expressed frustration with the lack of implicit grammar explanation and the lock-step pace of the class, which allowed for little variation in learning styles or speeds. By the behavioristic assumptions of the ALM had been largely replaced, at least in principle, with a "cognitive code approach" to language learning. Rivers affirms that the cognitive code approach "was much discussed but ill defined and consequently never gained the status of what one might call a method" p. Nevertheless, cognitive principles began to play a significant role in foreign language classrooms and continue to do so. Theory of Language Learning Chomsky and other linguists developed a theory of language known as transformational-generative grammar. Chomsky theorized that the human brain is programmed with a "language acquisition device" LAD that enables children to acquire languages naturally. According to this theory, the LAD allows human beings to internalize a complex system of rules that can generate all possible sentences in their language. A transformational-generative view of language ties in closely with principles of cognitive psychology. Among the cognitive principles that have implications for language learning are the distinction between automatic and controlled processing, the distinction between meaningful and rote learning, and the process of restructuring. Each of these is briefly explained below. Shiffrin and Schneider assert that human beings have two distinct ways of processing information. Shiffrin and Schneider claim that it is only through the repeated use of controlled processes that a skill becomes automatic. Another key concept of the cognitive approach is the distinction between meaningful learning and rote learning. Rote learning, on the other hand, consists of relatively isolated concepts that are learned verbatim and are not integrated into the cognitive structure. Language teachers have long known, for example, that vocabulary words that are learned in a familiar context are learned more easily and retained longer than lists of words learned through rote memorization. In order for new concepts to be stored in the mind, learners must impose some type of organization on the new information. This constant modification of organizational structures in the mind is called restructuring. Restructuring helps to explain why learners often appear to forget grammar principles that they previously seemed to have mastered; this "forgetting" or "backsliding" occurs when learners encounter new forms that cause a restructuring of the whole system Lightbown, Many of these activities have been commonly used in foreign language classrooms and textbooks since the s. Among them are the following: All learning must be meaningful to the learner. When presenting grammar concepts, for example, cognitive code theorists suggest that the teacher give explicit grammar explanations accompanied by multiple examples to facilitate understanding. Chastain insisted that grammar be taught deductively, with explanations of rules preceding examples of their usage; Carroll , however, maintained that "it hardly matters whether one starts with the rule or the example, as long as this alternation [between rules and example] exists" p. In order to develop automaticity in language use, students need extensive practice using language skills. Often this practice is organized so as to progress from highly structured to more open-ended activities Rivers, Inasmuch as language use involves the application of a complex system of rules, students need opportunities to apply

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these rules to express their own meanings in communicative situations. In addition, students need feedback on their language use to help them understand how to apply rules more effectively Hadley, It should also be reviewed periodically McLaughlin, Students can benefit from instruction in language learning strategies, including metacognitive strategies that help them plan, organize, and monitor their learning. McLaughlin, ; Oxford, Notes on the Video The lesson in the video shows a third-year Portuguese class taught by Dr. Blair Bateman of Brigham Young University. The lesson takes an inductive approach to teaching a grammar concept the use of articles with place names by presenting examples and leading students to induce the rule and then asking them to explain it in their own words. The explanation phase is followed by practice activities in pairs to help students develop automaticity in using the rule. References and Additional Resources Ausubel, D. A cognitive view 2nd ed. Current issues in psycholinguistics and second language teaching. The development of modern-language skills: Center for Curriculum Development. A review of B. Aspects of the theory of syntax. Teaching language in context 3rd ed. Second-language acquisition research and classroom teaching. Applied Linguistics, 6, Theories of second-language learning. What every teacher should know. Approaches and methods in language teaching 2nd ed. University of Chicago Press. Controlled and automatic human information processing: Perceptual learning, automatic attending, and a general theory. Psychological Review, 84,

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Chapter 5 : Oxford Applied Linguistics | Applied Linguistics | Oxford University Press

I bought this book to learn more on the cognitive approach to language learning and found this book to be a very practical and useful book in the field of Applied Linguistics. I hope other scholars and students in this field will find it very useful.

The role of theory in pedagogical grammar: There is little consensus on what methodology should be applied in order to facilitate grammar acquisition; as a result, in classrooms throughout the world, grammar is taught in traditional ways which lack a solid theoretical underpinning. This is partly due to the fact that applied linguists have given insufficient attention to various facets of pedagogical grammar and to addressing certain key issues in grammar teaching. Keywords Pedagogical grammar; communicative; cognitive; 2nd-language acquisition Full Text: Grammatical instruction in the natural approach: A cognitive grammar view. Cognitive linguistics, second language acquisition, and foreign language teaching. Second language acquisition and ultimate attainment. Cognitive linguistic theories of grammar and grammar teaching. Aspects of the theory of syntax. Common European framework of reference for languages: Cognitive approaches to pedagogical grammar. Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology. Language Teaching, 23 1 , New perspectives on grammar teaching in second language classrooms pp. Form-focused Instruction and teacher education: Studies in honour of Rod Ellis. Principle of learning, implications for teaching: A cognitive neuroscience perspective. Journal of the Philosophy of Education, 42 , Explorations in the functions of language. Edward Arnold Heindler, D. Your ticket to English. New perspectives on grammar teaching in second language classrooms. Cognitive linguistics and language teaching. The mighty weight of tradition: An evaluation of grammar exercises in EFL textbooks. The CEF and the secondary school syllabus. Second language acquisition and second language learning. Pergamon Press Langacker, R. Foundations of cognitive grammar, volume 1: Stanford University Press Langacker, R. Foundations of cognitive grammar, volume 2: A communicative grammar of English 2nd ed. Applying cognitive linguistics to second language learning and teaching. Second language learning theories. Blackwell Publishing Long, M. Exercises and creative activities. Theory and practice in EFL teacher education pp. Assessing the effectiveness of grammar pedagogy. Harmony and diversity pp. Harmonising the teaching and learning of grammar: Learning strategies in second language acquisition. Meaningful L2 practice in foreign language classrooms: A cognitive-interactionist SLA perspective. Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology pp. John Benjamins Publishing Company. Longman dictionary of applied linguistics. Approaches and methods in language learning. Handbook of cognitive linguistics and second language acquisition. Cognition and second language instruction. A cognitive approach to language learning. Oxford University Press Spada, N. Form-focussed instruction and second language acquisition: A review of classroom and laboratory research. Language Teaching, 30 2 , The relevance of Cognitive Grammar for language pedagogy. Council of Europe Press. Interaction in the language curriculum. Teaching language as communication. Grammar, and nonsense, and learning. A book of readings. Aspects of language teaching. Refbacks There are currently no refbacks.

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Chapter 6 : The cognitive approach to language learning and teaching

A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning (Oxford Applied Linguistics) by Skehan, Peter. Oxford University Press. PAPERBACK. Item in good condition.

Cognitive linguistics is characterized by a commitment to the inseparability of meaning and form in the study of language. It also takes the view that language reflects general aspects of cognition rather than adopting a modular view of mind. A further feature of the approach is the view that language is best studied in the context of use and indeed emerges from it. Cognitive linguists have predominantly focused on two general areas of inquiry: Cognitive linguistics is an increasingly influential approach in cognitive science, social science, and applied linguistics. Foundational Works Cognitive linguistics emerged from research conducted by prominent scholars working on the West Coast of the United States during the 1970s and 1980s. Most notable among these are Ronald W. Langacker Langacker , who developed the theory of cognitive grammar see Cognitive Grammar ; George Lakoff Lakoff , who applied work on categorization to metaphor, lexical semantics, and grammar; and Leonard Talmy Talmy , who studied the conceptual basis of grammar. These three researchers are widely considered to be the founding fathers of the enterprise. Also foundational were Lakoff and Johnson , which developed conceptual metaphor theory see Conceptual Metaphor Theory and Johnson , which developed the theory of image schema see Image Schema Theory that grew out of work on conceptual metaphors. Other important work that has proved to be foundational was developed in Fillmore on frame semantics see Frame Semantics and Fillmore, et al. Fauconnier developed the theory of mental spaces see Mental Spaces Theory , which later gave rise to conceptual integration theory see Conceptual Integration Theory. This perspective was foundational for the later development of conceptual integration theory see Conceptual Integration Theory. Originally published by MIT Press in In Linguistics in the morning calm. Edited by the Linguistic Society of Korea, This has been seminal for encyclopedic approaches to lexical semantics and the later development of construction grammar see Construction Grammar. The body in the mind: The bodily basis of meaning, imagination, and reason. Women, fire, and dangerous things: What categories reveal about the mind. Lakoff, George, and Mark Johnson. Metaphors we live by. This work argues for a conceptual basis for metaphor and metonymy and develops the framework of conceptual metaphor theory see Conceptual Metaphor Theory. It was one of the earliest works to argue for an embodied basis for conceptual and linguistic organization. Foundations of cognitive grammar. These volumes develop the foundational assumptions Vol. Toward a cognitive semantics.

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Chapter 7 : Cognitive Linguistics - Linguistics - Oxford Bibliographies

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Cognitive theory assumes that responses are also the result of insight and intentional patterning. Insight can be directed to a the concepts behind language i. It can also be directed to b language as an operation - sets of communicative functions. A variety of activities practised in new situations will allow assimilation of what has already been learnt or partly learnt. It will also create further situations for which existing language resources are inadequate and must accordingly be modified or extended - "accommodation". This ensures an awareness and a continuing supply of learning goals as well as aiding the motivation of the learner. Cognitive theory therefore acknowledges the role of mistakes. Equally important to the principles underlying the use of "meaningful drills" and also relevant to the role of mistakes in cognitive theory is the association of mentalism with notionalism. How much cognitive theory do English language teachers need to know? The "Novish" simulation makes this possible. An appreciation of cognitive theory can be gained by reviewing the history of language teaching, especially changes in attitude during the s when "meaningful drills" were being advocated and the shortcomings of "meaningless drills" were being highlighted. Although drilling and rote learning gained their critics in the second half of the 20th century, it remains the case that: The recognition and productive use of patterns will always be an important part of language learning. Teachers adopting a cognitive approach will strive through the exercises they set to make pattern practice meaningful. Substitution drills merely require the learner to substitute in the previous response the word provided or embedded in the next prompt. The stimulus to which the response is trained is therefore the prompt taken in conjunction with the previous response. The prompts signal the internal changes and the series of responses set the pattern. Mutation drills require systematic changes in the form of words provided in the prompt before a substitution is made. Transformation drills may embody the changes outlined above but also require at least the option of a change in word order, the addition or deletion of grammatical constituents and may exact the alternation of grammatical pairs. They can accordingly practise changes from affirmative to negative, changes in voice from active to passive, changes in mood, from indicative to interrogative to imperative to subjunctive and changes in sentence-type from simple to compound or complex. A further use of Transformation Drills is in the process of word derivation. Application relationships relationships of reference prompted by pictures, sound effects or knowledge of the world. Collocation relationships between vocabulary items in a sentence involving any or all of its constituents prompted by cue words or whole sentences. The relationship is exclusively verbal and responses depend on a knowledge of lexical inter-dependencies. Implication relationships between sentences prompted by whole sentences and requiring the substitution of synonyms, hyponyms, antonyms, converse terms or consequences in place of their antecedents. Consequence, Hypnonmy and Antonym Drills - S: This is a wonderful book. This is a fantastic record. Felicity is a very nice girl S: What are the principle drawbacks of mechanical or controlled drills and the ways of overcoming them? As a method of language practice, drills are difficult to reconcile when the language becomes "meaningless". Meaningless drills failure to offer learner an element of discrimination or choice failure to give rise to naturalistic speech they fail grammatically in many instances. Lack of context results from behaviourist principle of focussing uniquely on form: Unique focus on form may succeed in the controlled environment, but the benefits of structural learning may not be transferred into the real environment. Drills attempting to forestall mistakes show only positive instances of what can be done. Negative instances are not given. The meaning conveyed by an utterance e. A sentence does more than communicate information. It performs a role both in relation to other utterances that have been produced and as part of the interactive process involving the participants. Without this wider context, drills run the risk of overgeneralisation. They may cause, as opposed to correct, mistakes. The absence of an element of choice within a drill undermines the semantico-grammatical category of

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communicative function from which conceptual meaning is derived, thus inhibiting the learning process. When the only changes are vocabulary items controlled by prompts i. A context for the utterance it contains - without context, there is a risk of over-generalization. Wilkins] "The meaning conveyed by an utterance is a matter of the function of the sentence utterance as a whole in the larger context in which it occurs. It should give rise to naturalistic language It should allow the learner some element of choice or discrimination. Recognise the potential for practising patterns Arguments in favour of drills include: Their track record and the variety of exercise-types that they offer There have been many successful courses which have been largely dependent on drills. Depending on their nature and scope, drills may EITHER elicit sequences of unrelated sentences from the learner OR build up something which begins to look like connected spoken prose. Given sufficient definition of aims and the avoidance of monotony, artificiality and inefficiency, drills must surely contribute to language learning by virtue of their many useful applications. Recognise the most suitable applications of drills at different levels of language proficiency Drills are likely to be useful at elementary level or in the "practice phase" of a lesson where limitation of the learning goal is desirable. Drills are likely to be useful at the intermediate level where practice, revision and checking of learning is particularly important. Drills are likely to be useful at the advanced level to diagnose and iron out a particular difficulty. Drills may be tried with the whole class or used on an individual basis. The limitations of drills are clearly matched by useful possibilities, which publishers have been slow to exploit in the 21st century. Understand the nature of the conceptual problems involved in learning a new language. Attempts are often made within language teacher training to put trainees into situations similar to those encountered by people learning a new language for the first time. This can be done if the trainer knows a language which is new to all the trainees. I was once set the task of learning to read and write using the Arabic alphabet, including the joins of different handwritten letters. This kind of task provided the opportunity to explore conceptual problems. The section is headed: Novish - An experiment in language learning. You may need to have the book open to follow the examples and grasp the arguments which are being made. A practical demonstration of language learning supported by Cognitive theory: The Novish structures, which contain the conceptual difficulties, perform such basic functions as identification and verification of class: Other languages divide nouns into genders such as "masculine" and "feminine", even when the nouns are inanimate objects with no sexual gender. Novish is perhaps more logical than French or Spanish in its rule system for defining grammatical categories. Dakin forces us into traps by including problem-solving in the drills he presents in his programme for learning Novish. Our mistakes very often derive from lack of conceptual awareness and failure to grasp important semantic criteria. Although the conversion of "rule" to speaking habit is likely to be a slower more conscious process in the case of L2 learners, take heart! Novish children make the same mistakes!! How important is it to understand the underlying rule for each step? Carroll defines "rule" as "simply a formal, usually verbal, statement of the conditions under which something is expected to occur or not to occur under certain sanctions. Carroll illustrates this claim by citing the fact that people can speak a language without any conscious knowledge or application of the rules that underlie their language. The importance of semantics conceptual awareness as a structurally-based basic language programme unfolds Novish Frame 2: Insufficient knowledge of Novish to allow many L2 analogies, so we are tempted to measure each new item using L1 concepts as a gauge. Novish Frame 3 introduces a refinement. Correct form is "Sademanena gal". However, the underlying rule is less important since a Novish speaker would probably understand our meaning if we said "Sademanena gal". Novish Frame 6 introduces the use of "Sademane" in a question. It is noticeable that "Sademane" or "Sademanena" is replaced by "Sadestil" when verification is given. At this stage, we think we know what is being verified just as we think we know what is being asked, but we are already on dangerous ground. The learner will quickly recognise "sadegru" as a second word he will sometimes have to use as opposed to "sademane" in giving confirmation. Dakin has deliberately selected nouns which will lead to a false distinction: Whether it is justifiable for a teacher to lead his students into a trap and then to mystify them with "Ye sadegru opl" is a question in its own right. At what stage should a teacher make learners aware of the

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rules rather than trying to trap them? Clearly the proper distinction is one of some importance and any mystification should certainly not be prolonged beyond the point where Ss recognise that they have something new to learn. To depend on "mim-mem" techniques to somehow unconsciously teach this distinction is clearly ludicrous. It is widely recognised that learning language purely by imitation and repetition is uneconomical and that if each new speech pattern had to be learnt by imitation the task would be endless. Therefore in frames the underlying rule must be realised. Here we learn that in comparing and contrasting different objects or people Novish speakers are vitally concerned with difference or even similarity of class as well as difference in identity. The words "Ye" or "Nu" are applied essentially to class likenesses and differences and not to precise definition of what an object or person is or is not. I can imagine many potential misunderstandings in situations where English speakers might use or take "Ye" to indicate a particular identity when what a Novish speaker understands is common membership of a certain group: Ye sadegru ku, sadegru Margaret! Can language learning proceed without conceptual awareness and knowledge of culture? Students should be given the chance to share the concepts of their target language. To deny them of what they are ready for, is to overlook what Chomsky recognised as the "creative aspect" of language use. Such a denial would serve to discourage creation by analogy, to kill the spirit of enquiry and to isolate the learner from a knowledge of the utterances which represent his achievements. To what extent can the teacher organise the examples for things so that the class can infer from them the "rule" without explicit explanation?

Chapter 8 : Second-language acquisition - Wikipedia

A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning by Peter Skehan. Oxford: Oxford University Press, , pp.

Chapter 9 : Cognitive linguistics - Wikipedia

A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning has 14 ratings and 3 reviews. Sarah said: Rather difficult to read (not sure if that's the fault of the writer.